CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE
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Mc Clelland (1951) has presented arguments that motives have their origin in early childhood experiences. Parental discipline, attitudes and behaviors have been found to be related to need for achievement. A significant study in this respect has been done by Rosen D' Andrade (1959). It has been found that fathers and mothers of boys with n-Ach had a higher level of aspiration for their sons and showed greater positive effect over achievement related behavior than parents of boys with low n-Ach. They also found that boys with high n-Ach had authoritarian mothers, but had fathers, who tended to stay out of picture; while boys with low n-Ach had fathers who have been authoritarian and tended to interfere with their sons. Mc Clelland (1961) on the basis of the interviews with the parents of Brazil, Japan and Germany substantially supports the above findings. Several studies (Baumrind, 1971; 1972; Grefow, 1973; Ojha, 1972; Tewary & Mishra, 1977) have been done to see the effect of child rearing practices on achievement motivation in different cultural context. The general findings of these studies have been that fewer restrictions from parents lead to high level of achievement motivation.
A correlational study by Singh (1989) on child-rearing practices and achievement motivation revealed that indirect disciplines and loving as well as protecting attitude of parents contribute significantly to the development of achievement motivation both in tribal and non-tribal school children.

King-Fun-li (1974) in Hong Kong study on 5th and 6th grades children found a negative vs relationship of n-achievement with parental attitude of dominance and fostering dependency and positive relationship with favouring of communication. Epstein & Radin (1976) Muttal and Muttal (1976) also made similar observation with regard to relationship between parental attitude achievement motivation. It was noted that parents who show more affectionate and permissive attitudes and use less restrictive and hostile psychological control tended to have children with higher achievement motive. Prasad et al. (1979) have reported that high n-achievement subjects received their fathers as giving more encouragement than did mothers, however, low n-achievement subjects perceived their mothers as stricter than their fathers. Ojha (1984) found that mother's love goes with high n-achievement level in boys whereas mother's rejection and protection are associated with low-achievement level. The n-achievement remains uninfluenced
by mothers' restriction, permissiveness and neglect. On the other hand, father's permissiveness and love are concomitant with the rise in n-achievement level whereas father's restriction, rejection, and protection bear an inverse relationship with n-achievement. Like mother's neglect, father's neglect also does not vary with n-achievement level of boys. These studies indicated that the positive evaluation of a child by his parents favours the development of the higher achievement motivation.

Child-rearing attitudes are not different from discipline, actually both are interrelated. Attitudes are the cognitive aspect, while discipline is the conative aspect of child rearing. Parents display variety of attitudes and behaviour pattern towards their children. A large number of studies (Becker, 1964; Rosen, Schaefer & Levy, 1968; Rae and Siegelman, 1964; Schaefer, 1965; Seigalman, 1965) revealed various kinds of parental behavior patterns. Infact parents' attitudes and behavior towards their children have been found to be very much important in the development of various personality traits of achievement motivation.

In Indian context, Trivedi (1988) have studied scholastic achievement of adolescent children of working and non-working mothers. Results suggest that the researcher has found that maturity affects the scholastic achievement of children to some extent but it does not affect the
achievement at all. The difference between the achievement scores of the children of working and non-working mothers at class IX and XI is not significant.

In this direction, a considerable contribution has been made in the USA and the USSR. Essing and Morgan (1957) found that girls whose mothers did not work, were well adjusted in the area of family as compared to girls of working mothers. Glueck & Glueck (1957) discovered the fact that emotional conflict was more prevalent in boys whose mothers worked regularly. Hand (1957) found that the percentage of children that appears to have adjustment problem were the same for the working and non-working mothers. Similar findings were achieved through some studies made by Maccoby E.E., Nelson Dean, D, on the children of working and non-working mothers.

As the socio-economic structure and cultural pattern of our country differ from that of others, it becomes necessary to study the type of problem in the Indian context, Rao (1965) discovered that intelligence and school attitude was significantly related to the prediction of Scholastic achievement. Saxena (1972) has observed that education of the mothers affects the scholastic achievement of children. Jain (1985) and Sarma (1972) found that children belonging to working mothers, differ significantly on scholastic achievement as compared to those belonging to non-working mothers.
In cross-cultural study on the relationship between achievement motivation and authoritarianism, Ray (1980) showed that achievement motivation was a good predictor of authoritarian personality and then concluded that "... it is achievement motivation, not authoritarianism that gives rise to South African authoritarian practices".

Patrick, et al. (1984) have studies the level of achievement motivation in South Africa. The findings suggest that when similar white and non-white groups are compared, the mean motivation score of the black groups is at least not generally lower than that of the whites. In fact, the two English speaking groups obtained the lowest scores. That the Afrikaner and Black group obtained higher scores than the English speakers may have a historical explanation. Traditionally, Afrikaners, have always considered the English "ahead", resulting possibly in the Afrikaners', higher achievement orientation.

Tsukamato, Shinichi (1987) have studied the effect of children's need for achievement (n-Ach) and multiple modeling on their self-reinforcement behavior. The n-Ach level was determined by TAT scores. The criterion adopted by the high n-Ach subjects in the two model condition were more lenient than those in the stringent model condition and more stringent than those in the lenient model condition. The
criterion adopted by low n-Ach subjects were more lenient than those in the stringent or lenient model condition. No significant grade differences were found in the mean number of self-administered reinforcers in the two model condition.

Fenn, et al. (1987) have studied the relationship between student affective characteristic (SACs) and student achievement and school effectiveness ratings. Two more effective (ME) and two less effective (LE) schools were defined via the sequential tests of educational progress (STEP) of students of grades 4, 5, and 6 from 7 urban, elementary schools in New England. Multivariate analysis of covariance of step data and school and college ability test data found that significant achievement differences between subjects in the ME and LE schools were not due to differences in student ability.

Sarma (1984) have studied academic achievement of 237 students of class IX and the level of educational attainment of both parents were assessed. Significant correlation was found to exist between educational attainment of fathers with that of the corresponding mothers. In a high percentage as 79.32 the husband's educational levels were found to be higher than those of their wives. This is a pointer in the direction of the existence of masculine dominance in the society. In about a third of the total sample, the wives'
educational attainment in just one step difference gives the husbands a double benefit; they retain their ability to maintain masculine, dominance and at the same time enjoy intellectual company. Parental educational education is highly associated with the academic achievement of their sons and daughters.

Wirawan & Gandhi (1986) investigated to the relationship of parental practice to intelligence and school achievement. The findings of the study were: (1) parental guidance seems to play a role on the child’s intelligence for girls, but not for boys, (2) parents willingness to use external resources seems to influence the child’s intelligence for girls, but not for boys, (3) parents rejection and acceptance seems to have an impact on the child’s school achievement for girls but not for boys, (4) Too much provision for the child’s needs may not be helpful for boys in terms of their school performance. (5) No significant difference in two sex’s. (6) There is a significant difference in the degree of parents’ willingness to use external resources between the two sex’s, with boys scoring higher than girls, and (7) Intelligence is clearly related to school achievement.

Sawaid et al. (1987) examined the relationship between parental attitudes towards their children and achievement motivation in the children in a sample of 84 lower
socio-economic status Indian boys using a parental attitude scale and an achievement motivation inventory. Results show that restrictive attitude by fathers and protective attitude by both fathers and mothers were inversely related to their children's achievement motivation. A loving attitude by the father was positively related to achievement motivation. Similarly, in (1985 Suss et al.) have explored the relationship between 8 to 10 years olds achievement motivation and the reinforcement behaviour of their parents in homework situations. Results indicate significant correlations between subjects' motivation and parental reinforcement both in homework and general educational situations. However, both positive or negative correlation were found between subjects achievement motivation and parental punishment.

Teevan, et al. (1986) have administered the TAT and a sociometric questionnaire regarding student's general status in class. Results suggest that achievement motivation is an influence in social attraction and interactions. Similarly, in 1982 Mohan, et al. have studied the sociometric status, personality, academic achievement and personal problems. Results show that both in case of boys and girls, the star pupils are the ones with highest academic achievement, both securing first position in their classes.
Jagannathan (1986) have attempted to analyze each one of the socioeconomic status (urban) sub factors and to find out how the children of different categories of these sub factors differ in their academic performance. The results showed that father's income, education, occupation, family's news-papers and magazine subscription have profound influence on the children's educational attainment.

Susan, et al. (1986) have examined the early incidence of under achievement among a sample of intellectually average, bright and superior grade one students (ranging age from 6:3 to 7:3 years) in order to assess to relative incidence of under achievement among children of differing intellectual levels. Overall, 20% of the students were identified as under-achievers. However, under-achievers were found to be equally among these three groups.

William (1984) have studied school achievement, social status and self-esteem had an important impact upon status in this senior class.

Marshall (1988) have studied motivational strategies of three fifth grade teachers. Highly motivated students were observed in a classroom where the teacher used a great number of motivational statements regarding the purpose and value of the lessons. In a work-oriented classroom, the teachers
emphasized performing tasks to completion, and in a class where students actively avoided doing work, motivation was imposed through authority recognition and threat.

Singh (1988) have studied relationship between achievement motivation, intelligence, Introversion-extroversion, SCS and achievement in mathematics. Results disclosed that the relationship between achievement motivation and (i) intellectual efficiency, (ii) Introversion-extroversion, (iii) SCS and (iv) mathematics achievement.

Munn, et al. (1986) have investigated the relationship between locus of control and academic achievement among 268 students in grades five (5) to eight (8). The Nowicki strictland LOC scale (NSLOCS) was used as a measure of student motivation, whereas the Iowa tests and basic skills language, mathematics and composite scores were employed to assess academic achievement. Results indicate inconsistently moderate inverse relationships between subjects level of external control and academic achievement. The NSLOCS appears to demonstrate empirical value in identifying motivational factors related to school performance.

On the other hand, Charls (1976) have studied achievement motivation, locus of control and academic achievement behavior. Two views of LOC as a mediator of the
effects of achievement motivation on achievement behavior were examined. Measures of achievement motivation, LOC, and the preference for and performance of achievement tasks were obtained from 63 male 9 graders. Achievement motivation was as strongly related to achievement activities for the entire sample as it was for internals alone. Thus, LOC did not distinguish high need achievers who prefer achievement activities from those who do not. The mediating function of LOC implied by attribution theory received partial support. Achievement needs were significantly related to internal attribution of success, which in turn, were related to achievement behaviors. However, no relationship was obtained between achievement needs and internal attribution of failure or between internal attribution of failure and achievement activities.

William, et al. (1981) have been studied the relationship between twelve month home stimulation and school achievement. HOME observation for measurement of the environment was designed to reflect parental support of early cognitive and socio-economic development. Twelve month home scores were correlated with elementary school achievement, 5-9 years later. 50 low-income children were rank ordered by a weighted average of centile estimate of achievement test scores, letter grades and curriculum levels in reading and math. 24 children were classified as having significant
school achievement problems. The results supported the predictive value of the twelve month home stimulation for school achievement among low income families. In an additional sample of 21 middle income families there was insufficient variability among home scores to allow prediction, the home total scores were highly correlated, $r = .86$, among siblings tested at least 10 months apart.

Singh et al. (1981) investigated the relationships between graphic expression, need for achievement (n-Ach) scores, and intelligence, locus of control, dependence proneness, and maternal dominance. Results indicate that the graphic measure of n-Ach was complex and that its major variance was associated with maternal dominance, internal locus of control, independence, and intelligence.

Achievement motivation has been reported to be related with competition. However, the relationship may not be a simple one. Competition may either indicate the concern for maximising the gain or to maximize power. In the former case it will be related to achievement motivation, and not in the latter case. Analysis of some data obtained from maximising differences game confirmed this. The results of studies of maximizing game behaviour done in India on children of various age groups show lack of any relationship between achievement motivation and competition (Pareek, et al. 1980).
Krishna, et al. (1978) have conducted a study of self concept, academic motivation and anxiety among high and low academic achievers. The findings reveal that the high achievers scored significantly higher on self-concept and academic motivation than those of the low achievers. Both groups of females did not differ statistically in terms of their anxiety scores. Further, it was found that the academic achievement tended to exhibit significant and positive association with self-concept and academic motivation. Academic achievement was found to be independent of anxiety. The findings were in the hypothesized direction except in case of anxiety.

Baarda, et al. (1983) compared the academic achievements of children of unemployed fathers and a control group of children of employed fathers. The academic achievements of experimental subjects were found to decrease when their fathers lost their jobs and to remain low for the duration of the unemployment.

Bal (1988) have studied the effect of mothers employment on achievement motivation of adolescents. 60 adolescent sons and daughters of working mother’s were compared with a control group of 60 children of non-working mothers to assess the differential effect of maternal employment on achievement motivation of sons and daughters.
Analysis of variance revealed that children of working mothers are significantly different on composite scores and five of the nine aspects of achievement motivation. Sex differences were found significant for achievement behaviour and persistence alone. Daughters of working mothers were found to be scoring higher than sons on composite score as well as achievement behaviour, recognition behaviour and aspiration level. Their scores were higher than daughters of non-working mothers on composite score as well as all the 9 aspects of achievement motivation. The explanation is given in terms of role modeling hypothesis.

A comparative study of intelligence and achievement motivation of tribal students of missionary and non-missionary schools revealed that missionary schools subjects scored significantly higher in IQ than subjects attending govt. schools. Also males from missionary schools scored significantly higher in achievement motivation than males from govt. schools. Findings are attributed to the better learning conditions and higher aspirations that characterize missionary schools (Singh, et al. 1986).

Gupta (1982) has studied on the impact of anxiety and achievement motivation on self-concept of high school students. It was hypothesized that significant differences in self-concept would exist among high, middle and low
achievement motivated subjects, that there would be significant self-concept differences in subjects at various level of anxiety, and that there would be significant differences between achievement motivation and anxiety in relation to the self-concept of subjects. A two way ANOVA showed non-significant differences in subjects self-concept at various levels of anxiety, in the subject self-concept at different levels of achievement motivation, or in subjects self-concept at three levels of achievement motivation from one level of anxiety to another.

A factor-analytic study of achievement goals and means analyzed the meaning of achievement in the Indian socio-cultural context. The results indicated that achievement is a multidimensional cognition and its structure in the Indian context is different from the concept of achievement employed in the traditional theory of achievement motivation. They implicate that a comprehensive understanding of achievement strivings requires attention to culture specific aspects of achievement (Agrawal et al., 1986).

Poresky, et al. (1985) conducted a study with 33 families with 4-8 years old daughters to test the family systems theory postulate that there exist causal links within the family including the marital relationships and parenting behaviour and child development. Few significant
correlates were found between measures of spousal relationship and report of parent behaviour, and no spousal relationships or report of parental behaviour, were correlated with measures of the daughters intelligence and motivation maternal employment was inversely correlated with daughter's achievement motivation, and maternal education was directly associated with daughters' intellectual performance.

The parental attitude research inventory or PARI was developed by Schaefer and Bell (1958) to measure twenty three different parental attitudes. A subsequent factor analysis by Zuckerman, Barrett-Ribback, and Monashkin (1958) indicated that the PARI scales actually measure three attitudinal dimensions: Authoritarian-Control (authoritarian, suppressive, punitive, and restricting attitudes), Hostility-Rejection (hostility towards children and husband and rejection of the maternal role), and Democratic Attitude (equalitarian beliefs and values). Presumably, these three dimensions would be related to other personality variables in the parents as well as to their children's behaviour.

A portion of an investigation by Zuckerman and Oltean (1959) dealt with the relationship between child-rearing attitudes as measured by the PARI and certain of the motivational variables measured by the Edwards personal preference schedule or EPPS (Edwards, 1954) in a group of 24
mothers of college students. The relationship between the two types of variables is shown, the mother who tends to be hostile and rejecting also tends to have a high need for achievement, a low need for nurturance, a high need for aggression, and a low need for affiliation. A very similar pattern holds for the Authoritarian-control attitudes.

Barton, et al. (1974) have studied on child-rearing practices and achievement in school. 169 6th graders and 142 7th graders were tested on standardized achievement tests in the areas of social status, science, mathematics and reading. Results indicated that the child-rearing practices variables in several cases, proved to be significant predictors of both grades and standardized achievement scores. On the other hand, the relationship between child-rearing attitudes of mothers and levels of academic achievement of their eleven year old (grade six) elementary school children were examined. The criterion of academic achievement for the children consisted of objective achievement test scores in reading plus mathematics. Level of academic achievement was defined in terms of the relationship between expected and actual achievement. Those items of the parental attitudes research instrument, which discriminated significantly between mothers of under-average and over achievers, were subjected to factor analysis. The test data of the mothers of sons and mothers of daughters were processed separately. The
result indicated that compared with the mothers of average and over achievers, the mother of under achieving sons are more dominant, rigid, and restrictive in the sense of being possessive and intrusive, while the mothers of under-achieving daughters are more dominant, rigid and restrictive in terms of being protective (Beener 1979).

In (1979) Marvin have found the relationship between motives on the children's apperception test. An experiment was conducted to investigate the development of need for achievement (n-Ach), need for affiliation (n-aff), and need for power (n-pow) on 80 children the ages of 6-10. A primary goal was to determine whether those motives are interdependent. The results showed boys had the higher n-pow scores while girls indicated more n-aff, no differences were found in regard to n-Ach. In addition, the strength of these motives was found to increase with age. The motives were found to be uncorrelated among boys, but not for girls. The findings were discussed in terms of conceiving future investigations of motivation in terms of pattern of needs.

Bhargava, et al. (1978) investigated the relationship of n-ach and n-aff with internal school attainment. A sample of 40, IX grade school boys, were administered upon selected cards of TAT of measuring n-ach and n-aff. Results showed different patterns of relationships between school marks and n-ach on one hand and school marks and n-aff on the other
hand, many studies revealed of significant relationship between scholastic attainment and n-aff e.g. Dembo (1935), Frank (1935), Gould (1939), Bayton and White (1950), Ricciuti (1950) found moderate positive correlation between n-ach and academic performance. In one study, Mc Clelland (1953b) revealed that there exists a low positive relationship between future attainment and need for achievement. Contrary to the findings of Mc Clelland Edward (1954) found significant positive relationship between n-ach and scholastic attainment.

Among a few studies conducted on affiliation motivation Atkinson (1964), concluded that mean affiliation score of the aroused group was significantly higher than that of the control group. While Murray (1948), revealed that mean affiliation score of the rejected group is significantly higher the mean affiliation score of accepted group.

Affiliation means a voluntary association or connection with other persons Kaur and Kumariah, 1980 found that there is less tendency among the anxiety neurotics to have need affiliation, dominance but more need for achievement, deference and endurance. Staples and Walter (1961) found in their studies that first born and only children tend to affiliate more.
The role of the socio-economic factor has been duly focussed upon in social sciences, particularly, in present day Indian contexts. A study by Gunthey and Sinha (1983) attempted to analyse the resultant effect of advantaged and disadvantaged on environmental factors such as anxiety, adjustment and need for affiliation. The results demonstrate that deprivation of sorts (as evident by SES scale) lead to higher anxiety, maladjustment and greater need for affiliation.

Grossman, et al. (1987) conducted a study on affiliation and autonomy in the transition to parenthood. They examined autonomy and affiliation as potentially clinically significant characteristics for men and women in their adaptation to the transition to parenthood. Data were obtained from a longitudinal study of 25 initially expectant couples who were seen at two and five year after the birth for their first child. Results show that autonomy and affiliation assessed during the expectancy were strong predictors of later intrapsychic, marital and parental adaptation. There was some evidence that women's capacity for closeness tended to produced the development of a close relationship between their husbands and their first borns.

Foon, (1988) found that subjects attending co-educational schools had lower self-esteem and greater
affiliation with peers than subjects from single sex schools. However, sex deference mediated these associations.

69 children, (aged 2 to 11 years) and their parents evaluated in conjoint interviews, were rated according to the semantic differential technique to assess two family relationship variables, affiliation and involvement. This was done for each dyadic pair and for the family as a whole, and these variables were related to family pathology. It was found that higher levels of affiliation and central levels of involvement were related to lower levels of pathology (Stedman, et al. 1981).

Kagan et al. (1981) have studied social motives among Anglo American and Mexican American children. The measurement approaches of social motives, co-operation completion games, and projective tests have revealed similar findings; Anglo American children are more competitive and higher in need for achievement (n-Ach) compared to Mexican American children, who are more cooperative and higher in need for affiliation (n-Aff). Results indicate that social motives inferred from a cooperation-competition game had a meaningful relation to those inferred from a projective test, but that the cultural differences in cooperation competition were larger and were not explained by cultural differences in a n-Aff and n-Ach. Social motives inferred
from each measurement methodology, while some what related were distinct.

Lundy, et al. (1988) have studied the recollection of a transitional object and needs for intimacy and affiliation in adolescents. The need for intimacy and n-Aff were measured by the TAT administered to eleventh graders. Results indicate that need for intimacy was related both to recall of a special toy or object and to its softness, while need for affiliation was weakly related.

Bill (1978) studied the relationship of children's perceptions of their mothers child-rearing behaviors to children's self-esteem. It was observed that children who viewed their mothers as using psychological pressure techniques to discipline them had low self-esteem, and children who viewed their mothers as being accepting had high self-esteem.

In a study, Edward et al. (1981) it was found that the children of the autonomy oriented teachers were more intrinsically motivated and had higher self-esteem than children of the teachers who were more control oriented.

Anton (1981) studied the autonomy-control variation in child-rearing and level of self-acceptance in young adults. In a sample of young adults, exploring the relationship
between autonomy-control variation in child-rearing and level of self-regard in early adult life. Results disclosed that subjects of the autonomy group reported higher levels of self-acceptance than those of the control group. They speculated that there exists a close relationship between autonomy, the search for identity and the emergence of positive self-regard. Parents who do not allow their child a certain degree of autonomy may restrict him in his sampling of social roles, and his self-regard may suffer. A less controlling attitudes, on the other hand is thought to allow for such role sampling enabling the adolescents to test himself in a variety of social settings. He also studied autonomy-control variation in child-rearing and level of Alienation in young adults. (Anton, 1982). Results disclosed that subjects coming from autonomy and intermediate families tended to report lower levels of alienation than those from control backgrounds. An interaction effect revealed that in females autonomy and immediate levels of control were related to low alienation, while in males only the autonomy level showed this relationship. The relative contributions of powerlessness, normlessness, and social isolation to the total alienation scores were explored. They found that the lower alienation is related to autonomy in males and females and to the intermediate levels in females, while higher alienation is related to control in males and females and to
the intermediate levels in males. They speculated that the latter emerged from the child-rearing process with a more narrow range of values and norms which later in life, when applied to various social situations proved to be inadequate, inapplicable, or conflicting. As a result, the subjects felt "adrift, wandering, lacking in clear rules and stable moorings" and experienced "normlessness".

An additional findings by Anton (1982) is that a relationship between chronological age and self-esteem becomes apparent if autonomy-control variation in child-rearing is taken into account. Results showed young adults in the control group reported significantly lower self-esteem than those in the other groups; adolescents showed no difference. Young adult and adolescent males in the control group reported lower self-esteem than those of the other groups; females did not differ. In another research conducted by George, et al. (1985) the self-esteem in children as a function of perceived parental behavior was studied. An analysis of combined perceptions suggested that boys who perceived both parents as lax in discipline had higher scores than those reporting from discipline. In contrast the control factor was significant for girls but not for boys. Girls who perceived both parents as high in granting psychological autonomy scored significantly higher than those reporting both parents as low on this factor. Results affirm
that variation in levels of children's self-esteem can be reliably related to variations in their perceptions of parental behavior.

Paul (1985) observed that autonomous children spent little time near eating and bathroom areas. Home environments varied most notably on the frequency of adult involvement in child activities. High adult involvement at home was correlated negatively with autonomy.

The observed pattern of relations among the measures, cast doubt on the notion that autonomy is a unidimensional trait manifested similarly across a variety of situations. For most boys and girls, the transition from childhood into adolescence is marked more by trading a dependency on parents for dependency on peers, rather than straightforward and unidimensional growth in autonomy. Moreover, contrary to long standing notions about the greater salience of autonomy to adolescent males than to females, girls score higher than boys on all three measures of autonomy at all age levels. (Laurence and Silverberg (1986).

In Indian context Agarwal and Verma (1985) have studied the development of independency among children of urban and rural mothers. Results suggest that high income urban mothers are more helpful than mothers in the other three groups in prompting independence in their children. The
other three groups were high income rural mother, low income rural mother and low income urban mother. This may be due to greater knowledge of high income urban mother of child development.

Shrivastava and Gupta (1987) have studied ethnic differences parental control and field-dependence-independence of female children. Analysis of data reveal significant differences between Hindu-Muslim and Muslim-Christian groups while insignificant difference between Hindu-Christian group for the perceived parental control. It has been observed that Muslim girls feel strict parental control in comparison to Hindu and Christian subjects. Muslim female children have also found to be relatively field dependent in contrast to their Hindu and Christian counterparts. Data suggest that strict parental control's is associated with the development of greater field dependence of children.

Moore (1988) investigated the relationship between autonomy and either self care agency (SCA) or locus of control (LOC). Children of grade 5 were pretested and randomly assigned to 1 to 4 groups. Subjects then participated in 61 hr. learning sessions, followed by post testing. Results demonstrate a positive relationship between autonomy and SCA and mixed findings for autonomy and internal LOC. Additionally, as subjects autonomy increased their SCA
increased, however, their internal LOC did not. It is concluded that methods used in this study to promote subjects autonomy promoted their SCA but not their internal LOC.

In (1989) Oppenheimer, et al. have studied relationships among conceptions of control and autonomy and other personality variables. One hundred and thirty one dutch 4th and 6th grades completed locus of control and conception of autonomy questionnaires, an achievement motivation test and a biographical questionnaires. Analysis indicated that the measures indexing children’s conceptions of control (i.e. the perceived competence of self-as sufficient cause) and autonomy (i.e. the perceived independence in coping with problems in the environment) tap different conceptual constructs. Therefore, success in one-domain (i.e. school) does not guarantee success in another (i.e. the social environment, parent child relation, peer relations).

Tesser, et al. (1988) have tested the hypothesis that adolescent under-achievement can be understood as the result of a conflict between dependence and a desire to appear independent, using 107 predominantly white 10th graders who responded to two measures of independence. The difference between subjects predicted and actual grade point averages served as a measure of achievement. The conflict hypothesis predicted that over achievement would be positively related
to evidential independence and that under affiliation would be positively related to claimed independence. Each of these effects was obtained.

The earliest reference available in the field of child-rearing practices goes back to 1930s and 1940s although some information can also be traced to 19th century. In 1930s and 1940s Symonds (1936), Levy (1943), Read (1945), Baldwin (1945), (1946), Shoben (1949), etc. observed that factors such as parent child relation, maternal or paternal attitudes and certain other factors in the home, do influence the behaviour development in children. In 1950s there was a big boom in researches in this area and series of articles, reports, and books were published by authorities such as Schaffer et al. (1955). Sears et al. (1957) Crandall and Preston (1955), Abes (1958) etc. The reinforced socializing agents have tremendous power and influence in building up the behavior of a child. The interest continued in the behavior of a child. The interest continued in 1960s, and 1970s when Whiting (1963), Loring and Mason (1966), New Sons (1965), (1966), Speck (1967), John & Elizabeth Newson (1968), Kohlberg (1969), Hess Robert (1970), Edwards Corlorn (1972) etc. published research work in the area of child-rearing with reference to new dimension such as handicapped children, children of working mothers influences of modern society, social differences etc.

These reports and papers tend to give an impression that home and maternal or paternal attitudes influence the behavioral development in children to a considerable extent. But one may not always agree with these reports because inspite of certain unfavourable attitudes of the mother, not
all children show unhealthy signs of behavior. Moreover, if maternal or paternal attitudes, or other conditions in the home were to be solely or even pre-eminently significant in the development of a child, these conditions should invariably have produced the desired traits in children. But this does not appear to be so.

An suggested by Bhogle (1975), since the field of child-rearing is so vast and since it is governed by so many factors, no one project may even superficially scratch the shell of the problem. Nevertheless sustained and patient research is necessary if we have to make a breakthrough in the field of family relations. Research in this area can take different directions e.g. exploration of existing practices, influences of cultural and other factors like economic, social and physical, maternal and paternal attitudes, towards the child, typical behaviour patterns of children and ultimately finding but the relationship of one of many factors with the behavior of the children.

Shah and Kulshrashta (1977) have studied caste differences in the methods of discipline, child-rearing practices. Caste is still an important factor in the social system of our culture. Every caste in spite of professing some common religio-social practices, has its own system of enforcing the basic practices of Indian cultures. The results show that cultural differences play an important role
on the development and adjustment of the children, special factors being the restrictive and permissive attitudes of the parents. Juneja (1979) has studied working and non-working mothers with regard to practices and problems of rearing children. On a small sample of 25 working and 25 non-working mothers. The interview method was used and the main questions of interview covered the feeding behavior, child's care, attachment, toilet training, separation, reaction to the strangers, security feeling, method of discipline physical and motor development areas related to child-rearing practices.

It was concluded that working mothers stop breast feeding earlier and are more concerned about feeding and the diet as compared to non-working mothers. Working mothers provide less care as compared to non-working mothers. Working mothers feel more attached to the child as compared to non-working mothers. Working mothers give strict toilet training as compared to non-working mothers. Children of working mothers are more independent, more adjusted, socialized and more well behaved as compared to children of non-working mothers. Working mothers exercise mild-discipline techniques while non-working mothers exercise moderate discipline techniques. On the other hand, Yarrow, et al. (1962) studied, child-rearing practices in families in which the mother is employed and in comparable families in
which the mother is not employed. Mothers from intact, White, economically stable families were interviewed. Child-rearing practices are not related to work status. When mothers' motivations and education are considered along with work status, associations with child-rearing appear. Mothers who prefer to work but out of a sense of "duty" do not work report the most problems in child-rearing, children are under firmer control and are given more responsibilities by working mothers than by non-working mothers in groups with high school training. This difference does not exist between working and non-working mothers college trained mothers. College trained families tend to compensate for mothers' employment away from home by more planned with the children.

The report of longitudinal study of the educational, social and emotional development of a small group of nursery school children was prepared by Dr. Hochin (1969). It has been revised an abbreviated under the title of "Indian urban families; child-rearing practices and child growth", by Sharma in (1981). They found that the most impressive phenomenon is that of social change. Family structure is changing rapidly. Even within a joint family there is clearly identifiable nuclear limit. In a nuclear family roles are being redefined, the direction is towards greater participation of both husband and wife, sharing of responsibility, and a joint decision making. Fathers, both
in nuclear and joint families, are in many ways sharing infant care, baby sitting and feeding. Mothers now tend to undertake quite a few extramural chores such as shopping, placing orders, paying bills, etc. Children are reared in a somewhat democratic and permissive environment in which the professed values are those of greater individual freedom, the development of an assertive personality and individualised care.

These findings are related to upper middle class urban groups, therefore, may not be altogether relevant to families of a class which constitutes the grass root population of India.

Block, et al. (1981) concerned their study with an objective index of degree of parental agreement generated by comparing the independent responses of eighty three parental dyads to a set of a Q-sort items reflecting child-rearing values and orientations. The index of parental agreement was significantly related to the quality of psychological functioning in boys and in girls over four year age range from age three to age seven. Parental agreement was more implicative for the psychological functioning of boys than for girls and was related positively to the development of ego control in boys but was related negatively to the development of ego control in the sample of girls.
Ryback, et al. (1980) have explored child-rearing aspects of psychological security, feeding and working, toilet training and socialization in respondents belonging six different cultures: University undergraduates from Ethiopia, the Republic of China, Thailand, Israel, India and the United States. In all cases significant differences across all cultures with in each item were found at least at the .01 level and quite frequently at the .001 level. Although the data from a complex pattern of responses, this study begins to shed some light on cross cultural differences and similarities of child-rearing habits.

Birtchnell and Kennord (1982) compared female psychiatric patients whose mothers died before they were aged 11, with non-bereaved female, psychiatric patients matched by decade of birth, from the same area. The early bereaved had more difficulties with child-rearing, particularly when their children reached adolescence.

Bell, et al. (1982) investigated child-rearing aspects of psychological security, feeding and weaning, toilet training and socialization through out teen age school children. Analysis indicate that the male and female respondents may view some aspects of child care practice differently: replies to the questionnaire were marked by higher levels of ambivalence than reported previously for
other ethnic groups. The children were also asked to judge how important various pertative sources were in learning how to bring up children, while both the boys and girls attributed the greatest importance to one's own mother, the girls, also judged their friends, as well as books and magazines to be other relatively important sources.

Conger, et al. (1984) investigated 74 families on three areas of maternal psychological functioning (emotional distress, Authoritarian child-rearing values, Negative perception of children) that might mediate the relationship between three separate dimensions of family demographic characteristics, conceptualized as chronic environmental stressors (i.e. financial, structural and historical circumstances) and the emotionally affective behavior of mothers. Demographic conditions accounted for 52.9% of the variance in mothers psychological characteristics and as much as 36.6% of the variance in positive and negative behaviors to the children. The psychological characteristic explained as much as 15.1% of the variance in maternal behavior. Both chronic stress and psychological variables and an independent influence on the general emotional tone of maternal behavior. The findings provide tentative support for the conclusion that the psychological characteristics partially mediate the influence of some demographic or stressful life conditions on the positive and negative behavior of mothers.
Davenport, et al. (1984) found nurturing attitudes and behaviors among seven married couples, each of which contained on partner who had manic-depressive illness, and their young children were compared with those of normal control families. Mothers from index families in contrast to control mothers, were less attentive to their children's health needs, emphasized performance in some achievement related areas, were more over protective and reported more negative affect towards the child. They also were more disorganized, less active with their children and more unhappy, tense, and ineffective. Index parents secured lower scores in the areas of family interaction and social adjustment, and they experienced situational problems of considerable severity, including clinical depression in the well parent.

Roberts, et al. (1984) have studied continuity and change in parents child-rearing practices. Subjects in the study were mothers and fathers who completed the child-rearing practices report (CRPR) when their child was three years of age and again when their child was twelve years of age. Across-time correlations from the CRPR indicate substantial continuity in child-rearing orientations. Although, there is considerable continuity in parental child-rearing orientations from early childhood to early adolescence, the shifts in emphases generally coincide with
what are considered to be developmentally appropriate areas for change.

Singh (1984) have studied on the perception of maternal and paternal child-rearing behaviors in secondary school students. Child-rearing behaviors with respect to each parent were examined on six variables labeled as loving, Dominating, Rejecting, Protecting, Punishing and Disciplining. Sex differences were found in scores on these scales between children's perception of paternal and maternal behavior. Mothers' were more loving, more protecting and less dominating, rejecting and punishing than the fathers. The fathers, on the other hand, were found to be more disciplinarian than the mother.

Singh, et al. (1984) have studied second order motivation and personality factors associated with child-rearing practices. The majority of the motives and personality variables could be significantly predicted from the measures of child-rearing practice.

Costango, et al. (1985) have studied the domain specific styles and their impact on the child's development of particular deviance; the example of obesity proneness. The study proposes a domain specific model for the parenting of deviant dispositions in children. It was predicted that in areas of deviant behaviour, parents concerns and parents
constraints on children coalesce to produce eventual problems in self-control. Such problems tend to intensify the originally deviant adjustment or to create disregulatory problems in children who have previously evidenced no obvious difficulties. Results of the study confirmed this prediction.

Perry et al. (1985) found the relationship between parents' attitude toward child-rearing and the sociometric status of their preschool children. Analysis revealed that children who were identified by the peers as rejected or isolated had parents that reported child-rearing attitudes reflecting patriarchal family structure, low self-confidence, low preference for young children, infrequent use of praise, lack of promotion of independence, low use of disciplining (mothers) coupled with the view that child-rearing is a mother's duty, definite expectations about child behaviour and a feeling of responsibility for child-rearing activities, low child-orientation, infrequent use of threat, and negative reaction to children's intrusive behaviour (fathers). The four sociometric categories accounted for 42% of mothers' and 62% of fathers' variance in reported child-rearing attitudes. The mother's function correctly classified 49% and the fathers, correctly classified 44% of the children into the correct sociometric category. These data suggested a potentially important relationship between parents' perception.
of their child rearing role and peer relations during early childhood.

Elizabeth, et al. (1985) have studied child-rearing in depressed, abusive and normal mothers. Child-rearing patterns in relation to discipline, emotion regulation, separation, individuation, and level of aspiration differentiated depressed, abusive, and normal mothers. Depressed and abusive mothers both expressed inconsistency, hostility and protectiveness. Both group used anxiety and guilt inducing methods but only abusive mothers used them in conjunction with harsh authoritarian practice.

Litovsky, et al. (1985) have studied the perceptions of child-rearing and self-concept development during the early adolescent years. Results indicate that correlations between the Acceptance/Rejection dimension of the children's report of parental behaviour and the various subscores one self esteem inventory were positive. Correlations between the SEI scores and the psychological autonomy/psychological control dimension of the CRPBI were negative. The correlation were stronger for perception of mother's as opposed to father's child-rearing practices. It was further found that the 9th graders perceived their parents as less accepting than 7th or 8th graders. High self-esteem subjects perceived their parents as more accepting, and using less psychological
control, and as not being overly firm in making and enforcing rules and regulating subjects behaviour. Results support the contention that optimal self-concept development takes place in an atmosphere of acceptance that allows the adolescent autonomy and the opportunity to learn competencies.

Cotterell (1986) have studied work and community influences on the quality of child-rearing. The child-rearing attitude behaviour of mothers of preschool children living in mining and rural, towns in Inland, Australia were examined in terms of the influences of three factors outside the home: Father's absence because of work demands, community characteristics, and mothers informational support. The mothers were interviewed concerning their social networks, contacts with others and informational support. Mothers with "absentee" husbands had lower mean scores on the scale of measures of play and cognitive stimulation, mothers with greater informational support had higher mean scores on play, cognitive stimulation, Warmth and teaching. Husband's absence was also significantly related to the mother's contacts with members of her social network across different neighbourhood venus. The results confirm the importance of factors outside the home as influences on the ecology of children's development.

Tzuriel, et al. (1986) have studied locus of control
and child-rearing practices in intrinsically motivated and extrinsically motivated children. Intrinsically motivated subjects tended to perceive their fathers as more loving and less rejecting, giving less attention (protecting), and were more internally controlled and older than externally motivated subjects. It suggested that effects of parental child-rearing practices are related to the effects of extrinsic rewards on intrinsic motivation.

Brody, et al. (1986) have studied contributions of maternal child-rearing practices and play contexts to sibling interactions by observing sibling pairs in their homes while watching TV, playing with a construction task, and playing a popular board game. Three behaviours were operationalized and observed (teacher, manager and helpers), and the mothers of each sibling pair completed a child-rearing practices report. It was found that managing and helping behaviours were positively related to maternal child-rearing practices that encouraged curiosity and openness to the mothers' value of a separate life from her children. The performance of these behaviors was negatively related to maternal inconsistency and anxiety induction. Findings also show that maternal use of non-punitive control techniques and mother’s enjoyment of her maternal role were related respectively to less agonistic behavior and more prosocial behavior.
Portes, et al. (1987) conducted a study assessing child-rearing styles in ecological settings: its relation to culture, social class, early age intervention and scholastic achievement. The study examined the extent to which child-rearing practices may have been affected by the intervention with mothers in a two years training programme and the relation between child-rearing style and children's scholastic achievement. Low SES mothers who participated in an early age intervention and upper middle class mothers tended to be less punitive than those in the low SES in related group. Black mothers were less permissive than those in the white group. Parental disciplinary style was found to be significantly related to school performance.

Sinha and Bhushan (1979) have studied child-rearing antecedents of need-achievement. Results revealed that father was perceived largely by high n-Ach persons as playing dominant role in shaping their behaviours, where as mother was perceived predominantly as pampering by low n-Ach persons. As such parental influences, strictness, expectations, encouragement, etc. were found to be characteristic antecedents of high n-Ach subjects. Besides, education of father, occupation of father, marital status of the subjects, social status, size of the family, living place etc. were also found to be crucial background factors in the
development of high level of n-Ach.

Ghosh and Mitra (1982) have conducted a comparative study of child-rearing practices of rural and urban mothers. A specially prepared questionnaire covering such areas - feeding, changing diet and schedule, toilet training, bathing, play and toys supplied, care during sickness, disciplining - was used to understand the child-rearing practices of the two groups. Responses to different items of questionnaire were collected through personal interview, concluded that child-rearing practices of the two groups studied were, through not identical, quite similar in most of the areas.

Agnihotry and Gupta (1987) conducted a study of self-confidence as a function of perceived maternal child-rearing behavior. The children's report of parental behavior inventory mother form was administered to these groups to determine their perception of maternal child-rearing behavior. The analysis of data revealed that the boys with low self-confidence perceived their mothers as controlling, inconsistent in use of discipline, having on acceptance of individuation, perception of maternal withdrawal of relation and non-enforcement were associated with low self-confidence in boys. The girls with low self-confidence perceived rejection, inconsistent discipline, lax discipline, instilling persistent anxiety and non-enforcement were associated with high self-confidence in boys. The girls with low self-confidence perceived their mothers to be low self-confidence, inconsistent in use of discipline, having on acceptance of individuation, perception of maternal withdrawal of relation and non-enforcement were associated with high self-confidence in boys. The girls with low self-confidence perceived rejection, inconsistent discipline, lax discipline, instilling persistent anxiety and non-enforcement were associated with high self-confidence in boys.
in their mother's behaviour. While perception of withdrawal of relations and hostile detachment were associated with high self-confidence in girls.

Benn, (1986) have studied factors prompting secure attachment relationships between employed mothers and their sons. (18 moths old first born son). Maternal functioning—reflected in ratings of maternal integration, acceptance, and sensitivity was assessed via in depth interviews substitute child care characteristics (form of child care changes in child care and son's age at the time of maternal return to work) were also examined. Results reveal that degree of maternal integration was significantly associated with levels of maternal acceptance and sensitivity and to significantly differentiate securely from insecurely attached mother, Son pairs. In addition, mothers of securely attached sons returned to work significantly earlier during the infant's first year of life than did mothers of insecurely attached boys. Factors that were unrelated to mother son attachment (e.g. sociometric status (SES) and form of child care) were associated with ratings of maternal integration. Results suggest that maternal employment effects on mother-son attachment are mediated primarily by a women's affective state, which becomes manifested in her style of care giving and child care decisions.
Majewski (1987) have studied conflicts satisfactions and attitudes during transition to the maternal role. They studied 86 primiparous mothers to examine the relationships among employment status, role conflict, marital satisfaction, employment role attitude, and case of transition to the maternal role. Interviews and data from five questionnaires were collected 5-18 months after the birth of the child. No significant differences were observed between employed and unemployed subjects in relation to role conflict. Subjects with careers tended to experience more role conflict between their worker, self and spouse roles than subjects with jobs. Subjects who experienced more role conflict, regardless of their work status, had more difficulty in making the transition of the maternal role. Marital satisfaction was positively correlated with ease in transition to the maternal role. Subjects who had reported a more sensitive attitude toward employment reported significantly less conflict between spouse and parent roles. Subjects who had attended a parent-support group, regardless their work status, experienced more conflict between the parent and self-roles, these subjects also tended to have greater difficulty in making the transition to the maternal role.

Devall, et al. (1986) studied the impact of divorce and maternal employment on pre-adolescent children. Compared the
responsibilities activities, peer relations and self-esteem of boys and girls aged 6-12 years whose mothers were divorced/employed, married/employed, or married and unemployed. Children from divorced families did not have more household or child care responsibilities than other children, but they did assume a confident role with their mothers more often. They also rated themselves lower in social competence. Maternal employment decreased the children's participation in athletic activities and involvement with friends.

Kitahara, (1985) studied on the women's work load and rejection of children. Data obtained by other researches on women's participation in work incompatable with child care in traditional societies showed no significant correlation between workload and maternal warmth and affection, hostility and aggression, or indifference and neglect. Ann Miline, et al. (1986) conducted a study of single parents, working mothers, and the educational achievement of school children. Results show that mother's employment and living in a one parent family can have negative effects on school achievement but that these effects differ by age, race and family structure. The results also demonstrate the importance of mediating variable such as income and time use.

Recent research has shown that mother's employment has a small but consistent negative effect on students reading
and mathematics achievement and that this effect is cumulative and proportional to mother's time spent working. Miline's (1986) research provides a conceptual and methodological critique of this research and alternative analysis of the data. We find that the model include measures of the structural, attitudinal and socio-economic determinants of mothers employment substantially diminishes the effects. The sources of the negative effect can be traced to the small number of mothers who worked full time prior to 1970, before their child entered school, retrospective reports of mothers labor force participation appear relatively unreliable for this period. Moreover, reformulating the concept of cumulative work experience suggest that significant negative effects exist only for women in the labor for the shortest period of time or for women who decreased this labour force participation as their child matured.

Parry (1987) have studied sex role belief, work attitudes and mental health in employed and non-employed mothers. The attitudes of mothers to their home and child-care role, to their employment role and to sex roles are potentially important correlates of mental health but have been little researched. Results from a general population survey of 160 working class mothers of young children suggest that dissatisfaction with home-maker role is associated with
higher levels of psychiatric symptoms, psychological distress and self-depreciation. These relationships are suggest for full time home-makers. For employed mothers, dual role conflict was more strongly associated with psychological distress than job satisfaction. Liberal sex role attitudes were associated with lower psychiatric symptoms levels in employed mothers and with higher self-esteem in non-employed mothers. There was significant interaction between employment status and sex role beliefs in relation to anxiety. Employed mothers with traditional attitudes and non employed mothers with liberal attitudes were more anxious. This result was replicated in an independent sample of 200 working class and middle class mothers.

Tiwari and Sharma (1987) studied the social maturity in children of working mothers. Relationship between social maturity and maternal employment was studied on a sample of 100 students of VII class of four school in Raipur city. Results indicated insignificant differences in social maturity of children, of working and non-working mothers.

Researchers have long been interested in the development of child compliance with parental authority (e.g. Lytton, 1977; Mc Laughlin, 1983; Minton, Kagan & Levine, 1971; Schaffer & Crook, 1980; Stayton, Hogan, & Ainsworth, 1971). By complying with parental directives, young children
learn what constitutes appropriate, responsible behaviour and learn no regulate their actions in response to societal demands (Kopp, 1982; Schaffer & Crook, 1978). These early lessons in self-regulation and control serve as a basis for later value internalization as the motivation to comply gradually shifts from external to internal sources (Aronfreed, 1969; Hoffman, 1977; Sears, Maccoby & Levin, 1957).

Research on American families has helped to identify child-rearing practice consistently associated with child compliance. These include the use of reasoning and persuasion, the establishment at warm supportive, and responsive parent-child relationship and the frequent use of external rewards, punishment and unexplained prohibitions (Baumrind, 1967; Becker, 1964; Lytton, 1977; Maccoby & Martin, 1983; Manire & Power, 1983; Power & Chapieski, 1986; Rallin & Thomas, 1979).

Differences in child-rearing in American & Japanese cultures are consistent with the cultural differences in compliance. As a group, Japanese mothers are more likely than American mothers to use the child-rearing practices associated with child compliance discussed above. Specifically, Japanese mothers use more reasoning and persuasion (Conroy, et al. 1980) and are less likely to resort to direct appeals to power and authority or to
external punishment (Caudill & Schooler, 1973; Conroy et al. 1980; Vogel, 1963). Japanese mothers also develop a particularly supportive, responsive relationship with their young children (Miyake, Compos, Kagan & Bradshaw, 1986). This pattern has been described by Doi (1962) as amae—that is, interdependence and indulgence that encourage in children a strong sense of dependence on others (Azuma, 1986; Benedict, 1946; Norbeck & Norbeck, 1956; Vogel, 1963; White & Levine, 1986). The Japanese child senses what places the mother and behaves according (Azuma, 1986). Although American parents form warm relationships with their child as well, they believe that too much indulgence can "spoil" a child and can interfere with developing independence (e.g. Vogel, 1963).

In a study by Thomas (1989) the relationship between parental child-rearing practice and child compliance was examined in two groups of middle to upper-middle class parents in Houston, with Japanese families living in the city and 18 American families. The children were 4 to 7 years olds. In both Japanese and American families, child compliance with adult authority was positively associated with providing opportunities for appropriate behaviour and negatively associated with reliance on punishment and physical intervention.

Sinha and Prasad (1989) conducted a study of parental
attitudes in child-rearing of school students. The age ranged from 13 to 17 years and were average in intelligence and socio-economic status. Results indicated that the male students perceived their father as restrictive, neglecting, and rejecting whereas female perceived them as permissive, loving and protecting. On the other hand, with respect to mother's behaviour, male students perceived them restrictive, neglecting, protecting and rejecting whereas female students perceived them as loving in greater frequency.

Ambast (1988) have studied the parents as perceived by the children. Most subjects age 6-12 years indicated that their mothers are friendlier, less punitive, less dominant, and less threatening than their fathers.

Bose (1987) have studied child-rearing attitudes of working and non-working mothers. Results indicate that working mothers are less dominant, less aggressive, and less suppressive in relation to their children when compared to non-working mothers.

Mohan and Kaur (1989) have studied perception of child-rearing practices by children of working and non-working mothers. Results indicate that there were no sex differences in the perception of rearing practices except puberty development where girls perceived favourably. Overall perception of girls was significantly better than that of
boys. There was no significant difference in the perception of girls of working and non-working mothers. On the other hand boys of working mothers perceived rearing practice of their mothers to be significantly superior in the academic area, demonstration of love and overall perception.

Mody and Murthy (1988) undertook the study to mental health of children of working mother results indicated poor intelligence scores in children of working mothers of the 12 yr. age level. Personality changes were noted at different ages. Children of working mother were careless in the early years, emotionally slightly unstable but independent nature at later years compared to the children of non-working mothers. Poor adjustment was noted in children of working mother.

Laybaurm (1986) reported significant differences across child-rearing techniques of working class parents and that strict, family centered, authoritarian, future oriented upbringing appear most likely to prevent delinquency among children. A high level of parental expectation is also characteristics of the traditional strict upbringings.

A study of mother-child relation dimension of working housewives (Pal and Sharma 1981) attempts to know the factor-analytic view of mother-child relationship, taking eight bipolar dimension of working housewives. Results indicated
that the first factor may be interpreted as "positive extensity Dimension" (or Health Extensity Dimension) of "Motherchild relationship of working housewives. These dimensions are encouragement-discouragement, Democracy-Autocracy, Acceptance-Rejection, Love-hate. On the basis of mean variations, it can be said that in working class families (mothers are working), children get sufficient magnitude of encouragement, democracy, acceptance and love from their mothers. The second factor was interpreted as a "faith-oriented Preponderance Dimension" (or faith oriented social motive dimension') of the mother child relationship of working housewives. This include Dominance submission, Trust destruct dimensions. Factor II indicated that the working mothers dominate their children and have also trust in them. The third factor was interpreted as "Acceptance-Approval Dimension" of mother child relationships of working housewives. The means of reward-punishment Tolerance-Hostility dimensions. This III factor denotes that children get reward from their working mothers and their mothers sufficiently tolerate them.