CHAPTER – II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

The chapter is devoted to the review of literature. Review of literature has been presented under two broad headings.

1. Theoretical review

2. Research review

Theoretical Review

This part consists of the conceptual clarification of the terms related to the research design with the help of theories.

Research Review

In this part, the focus is on the literature related with social maturity; working and non-working rural and urban mothers, anxiety, age and sex of a child.
CHAPTER - II

Theoretical Review

1. Social Maturity:

Description of social maturity has been given as under:

- No man lives for himself alone. The path to healthy and better living lies through the attainment of a degree of social adequacy and adjustment i.e. social maturity, (Bhopatkar, 1973).

- Raval (1970) viewed social maturity as a complex integration of intellectual, emotional, motor, sensory and language development. She said that the ability to live with or to get along with others for adjustment requires all these developments. Therefore, social maturity includes following major dimensions:

  - From dependency to independency
  - From lack of responsibility to a sense of responsibility
  - From incompetence to competence
  - From self centerism to altruism
  - From fancy to fact

- Phatak (1993) reported that the development of social maturity of a child is a complex integration of various aspects of his development such as motor, mental, language etc. During infancy it
is mainly confined to physical and functional control of the body, learning and establishing the habits of self-care and the basic cultural pattern of living in his / her society. Social maturity is not built into the structure and functioning of the living organism once for all but is moulded by the child’s experiences and interactions with other persons and their effective one. Social maturity is highly culture embeded and ensures the child’s happy living in the society.

The well known social psychologist Doll (1946) has studied the concept of social maturity in depth. He developed the Vineland Social Maturity Scale which measures the level of general social competence from birth to maturity. Doll has defined social competence as “The functional ability of the human organism for exercising personal independence and social responsibility.” His scale includes such behaviours as self help, self direction, socialization, communication, occupation and locomotion at different stages of maturation.

As stated earlier social maturity is interrelated with the term socialization and social development. Social scientists have defined it from various aspects. For example:
Socialization is the process by which an individual learns to behave like others in his society and culture (Kuppuswamy, 1984).

Socialization is the process by which an individual becomes a member of the family, culture and society — a process that begins at birth and continues throughout life cycle (Hurlock, 1989).

Frued described socialization "as a change from pleasure principle of immediate need of gratification to the reality principle."

From Erikson's point of view the socialization is a "process in which the child form its infant state of helplessness, total egocentricity moves to its ideal adult state of conformity."

Mussen et. al. (1979) revealed that the "important forms of social behaviour are necessary for successful adjustments, which begins to develop during early childhood. The period from three to six years, therefore, is the most 'crucial' age in the child's socialization in terms of the quality and quantity of social behaviour development."

Psychologists have devised a number of theories to explain how human beings are socialized. These theories are very in:

1. Whether human nature is seen as antisocial, pro-social or neutral,
Theories of Socialization:

The process that governs our socialization is probably complex and overdetermined. Thus, we need combination of theoretical approaches to understand how socialization works. Thus researcher describes four theoretical approaches that have had a significant impact on the study of socialization along with theory of attachment.

(I) Cognitive Development Theory:

Cognitive developmental theory of Jean Piaget has divided the child’s life into two stages:

1. Egocentric stage – which pre-dominates up to six or seven years of age. In this stage the child’s activities are self-centred. He cannot differentiate himself from the world. Piaget believed that children’s thought processes undergo predictable quantitative changes with the development.
2. Social stage in which child truly becomes aware of his social companions. Emancipation from parental dominance and greater participation in the social world bring about a shift in the child’s models of imitation. Observation, comparison and comprehension of others assume an important part in the life of children.

Cognitive developmentalists believe that children play a very active role in their own socialization. They argue that the effect of any socialization experience will depend on how the child perceives or interprets the experience as per cognitive level.

(II) **Psychoanalytic Theory:**

Sigmund Freud developed psychoanalytic theory which explains socialization in the terms of gratification of needs and avoidance of pain. It states that the child strives to reduce biologically based drives and adjust to the world around him.

Freud described socialization as a “change from pleasure principle of immediate need of gratification to the reality principle.” Freud believed that an individual passes through a number of distinct stages in the course of
becoming mature. Freud's stages are centered on different parts of the body, depending on where the child invests most of his energy. For example:

1. **Oral Stage**:

   In the first year of life, the infant is said to be in the oral stage. The mouth and oral activities supply the greatest pleasures. Needs centered around and people are valued according to their capacity to provide oral gratification.

2. **Anal Stage**:

   During second and third years, the child experiences sensory gratification by elimination and stimulation of the rectal area. Voluntary control and sphincters become source of both pleasure and frustration as toilet training begins.

3. **Phallic Stage**:

   During three to six years, the child experiences the oedipus conflict; love of opposite sex, parent and anger towards, the same-sex parent. Anxiety leads him to identification with parental values and the development of the super ego.
4. **Latency Stage**:

In the latency period from six to twelve years child is able to resolve the oedipus complex. The child develops interests outside the home. Energy is extended in school work and vigorous play.

5. **Genital Stage**:

In the genital stage adolescent's mature genitals are the primary source of pleasure.

Frued emphasized the first five years of life as a formative period. Because of this reason social maturity scale is heavily loaded with the items during this age.

**(III) Erikson’s Psychosocial Theory**:

Erik Erikson has developed eight stages through which man progresses in psychosocial development. Each stage is regarded by Erikson as a “Psychological Crisis” which arises and demands resolution before the next stage can be negotiated.
1. **Trust V/s. Mistrust**: (0-1 year)

Mother is significant person. Her love and responsiveness develops trust and security in child. If the child is inadequately handled the child becomes insecure and mistrustful.

2. **Autonomy V/s. Shame, doubt**: (1-3 years)

Parents are the significant persons. The way they react to the child’s assertive behaviours and continuing dependency needs. To be fulfilled a favourable ratio of autonomy and shame results in self-direction with self-esteem.

3. **Initiative V/s. Guilt**: (3-6 years)

Family is significant. Conflicts between self and others threaten child’s sense of initiative and produce feelings of guilt.

4. **Industry V/s. Inferiority**: (6-12 years)

School and peers are significant areas. Intense social comparison amongst peers are dominant. School children learn to win approval by making things. Persistent failure in producing valued things
leads to a sense of inferiority. A favourable ratio of industry and inferiority leads to a sense of competence and pleasure in work.

Rest of the four stages of Erikson’s theory are “

5. Identity V/s. identity-diffusion

6. Intimacy V/s. isolation

7. Generativity V/s. self absorption

8. Integrity V/s. disgust, despair.

These stages have not been discussed here as the present study is confined to ten years old children.

From Erikson’s point of view the Socialization and personality development is an outcome of psychosocial conflicts rather than sexuality.

(IV) Social Learning Theory:

Social learning theorists believe that the vast majority of human behaviours are learned. Three precepts of Albert Bandura theoretical position are as follow:

1. Most children learn by imitating other people. Thus, child’s learning occurs in social situations rather than in isolation.
2. Children copy only those behaviours which they value and wish to have for themselves.

3. The learnings which are reinforced with rewards become a child's habit. Whereas learnings that are not reinforced are dropped.

In the area of social learning theory Pavlov, Watson, Hull, Skinner are well-known scientists, who demonstrated on conditioning response.

- The principle of classical conditioning was first explained by the Russian Physiologist Pavlov. Pavlov's theory utilizes the principle of substitution in explaining the process of learning. He said that when child learns to speak a language, he uses those sounds which are associated with smiles, gestures of approval and appreciation.

- Watson started the conditioning experiment on human beings. He demonstrated as to how child acquires fear. He has also given us a method for removing such fears.

- Skinner emphasized by means of his experiments that most of our learning does not consist in simple S-R
connections. The response is determined not by the stimulus but by the organism and its needs. He created the concept of operant instrumental conditioning. He also used the concept of reinforcement.

(V) **Theory of Attachment:**

Over the past two-three decades women have entered in work force. Many mothers leave behind their infants under age of one year. Her daily separation from a child may affect attachment bond and emotional development consequently. Social maturity scale also includes certain items on emotional development. Therefore, researcher throws certain light on this theory.

The concept of attachment is relatively new in theorizing about child development. In 1958 Bowlby introduced the term to describe the tie between mother and infant.

Bowlby suggested that there are five innate and unlearned responses which bind the infant to his mother, namely, sucking, clinging, following the mother with his eyes, crying and smiling. Sucking, clinging and eye-
following are initiated by the infant with only marginal response from the mother. But crying and smiling become effective by the active response from the mother. In the course of development, these five responses become integrated and constitute the basis for attachment behavior and are eventually modified through learning.

Ainsworth (1973) says "An attachment is an affectional tie that one person forms to another specific person, binding them together in space and enduring over time. " Animal babies, as well as human babies, seek the proximity of the mother. Each species has characteristic attachment behavior patterns. In the birds it is formed a few hours after birth. In the animals within a day or two. Clinging seems to be the most important attachment behavior of the monkeys. Bowlby (1969) asserts that the infant is ready to make his first attachment to a specific person in the second quarter of the first year. After the first six months, it is more difficult. The difficulties are very great after the first year. This is why the period from three months to six months is a very critical period in child's life. It is the period of primary socialization when the infant makes his first social attachment, the sense of trust as Erikson calls it.
From birth onward, infants tend to look at faces in preference to other stimuli. During the first six months, their most vigorous smiles and cooing are in response to faces. The mother facilitates this by putting the baby in a face-to-face position, looks into his eyes and caresses his limbs and body. His crying is a spontaneous expression of his distress and the mother spontaneously responds by trying to relieve his distress.

In early infancy, a set of built-in behaviours encourages the parent to remain close to the baby. Around six to eight months, separation anxiety and use of the parent as a secure base indicate that a true attachment bond has formed. As representation and language develop, preschoolers better understand the parent’s goals and separation anxiety declines. Out of early caregiving experiences, children construct an internal working model that serves as a guide for all future relationships.

The strange situation is the most widely used technique for measuring the quality of attachment between 1 and 2 years of age. Four attachment classifications have been identified: secure, avoidant, resistant, and
disorganized / disoriented. Cultural conditions must be considered in interpreting reactions in the Strange Situation.

A variety of factors affect the development of attachment. Infants deprived of affectional ties with one or a few adults show lasting emotional and social problems. Sensitive, responsive caregiving promotes secure attachment; insensitive caregiving is linked to attachment insecurity.

Besides attachments to mothers, infants develop strong ties to fathers. When interacting with babies, mothers devote more time to physical care and expressing affection, fathers to stimulating, playful interaction. Secure attachment during infancy predicts cognitive and social competence in early and middle childhood.

All the above theories of socialization indicate that Social maturity is a state of “Operational, organisation of many basic and intervening personality traits under the influence of various situation and demographic variables” (Raval, 1970). That is why none of the theories justify this attainment completely. Though, the contribution of the learning theories cannot be ignored in understanding the
attainment of social maturity develops in child. Hence, the theoretical approach is not appreciated in relation to attainment of social maturity.

Since, Social maturity scale covers various developments, relationship between them, have been studied and presented herewith :-

(I) Social Maturity and Physical & Motor Development:

At birth, the child is a helpless being. But step by step the child acquires control over his muscles and learns to hold his head, to sit up, to use his hands and fingers and gradually to stand on and walk.

During early years the growth is rapid and it follows a predictable and orderly pattern of development i.e.

- It takes place from head to foot sequence.

- It takes place from the centre to the extremities.

- It takes place from gross to fine and more co-ordinated movements.

Two large scale Indian studies on motor development of children from birth to five years of age have been made.
(1) The Baroda study (1971) was a longitudinal study of motor and mental development of children from birth to thirty months of urban and rural infants.

(2) The another study was conducted by NCERT (1971) to obtain developmental norms for Indian children from 2½ to 5 years of age.

The Motor tests were given in four areas:

(1) Ball play;

(2) Standing, walking and running

(3) Climbing, skipping, hopping and jumping

(4) Hand skills

The result shows the influence of environment on motor development. The urban children were able to fare better in most of the tests than the rural children.

(II) Social Maturity & Emotional Development:

Social maturity often refers the development of emotional expression in a socially acceptable way. Emotional maturity includes all the aspect associated with emotion and emotion provoking
stimuli. But here emotional expression is only the aspect associated with social maturity. Emotional expression is essential for adequate social adjustment and smooth relationship on the part of the child.

The new born's emotional reaction can be divided into two groups: positive or pleasant responses and the negative and the unpleasant responses.

The emotions of early childhood are more common and more intense. He is easily aroused to emotional outburst. He shows temper tantrums, intense fear and unreasonable outburst of jealousy.

When child enters late into childhood he comes to know the unpleasant emotions are unacceptable to his contemporaries. Therefore, he tries to make his emotional expressions pleasant, most of the time. Experience and learning help the older child to discover how different people feel about different emotional expressions.
(III) Social Maturity and Social Development:

Social development proceeds slowly during the sensory and prelinguistic ages. Then there is rapid progress in the preschool age. Bridges (1931), described three stages of social development:

1. Dependent Stage:

   When the child relies on the adult and accepts help passively.

2. Resistance Stage:

   Which reaches its peak around three years.

3. Co-operative Stage:

   During the fourth and fifth years there appears the period of co-operativeness and friendliness.

   Swaminathan (1991), stated that during this age, a child develops 'pro-social' behaviours like sharing, co-operation, helping, learning to follow and to lead, to conform and to accept and to resolve conflict in the group.
Between six and twelve years of age, friendships are easily made and easily broken. He learns that code of the parents, school, peers and other parents are different from each other. He loves to play with own sex mates. There is the formation of gang. Gang is important source for him to learn right and wrong, manners and way of dressing.

According to Havighurst (1953), the following three tasks have significance to social development in early childhood.

1. Forming simple concept of social reality.
2. Learning to relate oneself emotionally to parents, siblings and other people.
3. Learning to distinguish right and wrong and thus developing a conscience.

The social development tasks for childhood are:

1. Learning to get along with age mates.
2. Learning the appropriate sex role.
3. Developing social values.
4. Developing attitudes towards social groups and institutions.

Various items of social maturity scale have been identified with developmental tasks. Therefore, it has also been included in the conceptual clarification.

(IV) **Social Maturity & Communication**:

Learning to speak properly in early childhood is important because speech is an essential tool in socialization. The child who can communicate with his peers with intelligible words, makes better social contacts and is more readily accepted as a member of group. Hence, effective communication is an essential aspect of social maturation.

The first step for communication is the ability to understand what others say. Otherwise, his speech response will be unrelated and his social contacts will be jeopardised. For example as deaf can not hear what others say they become socially isolated.

At birth the infant communicates through cries, At about one year most children speak their
first words. In the second year, the child begins to join words and communicate in longer utterances. In the third year he can skillfully perform the basic functions of language. The child begins to use 'question words'. Gradually the child learns to speak long and complex sentence with advancement of age.

A child communicates not only through language but also through 'non verbal' elements like gestures, movements, smiles, facial-expressions, sounds and intonations.

(V) Social Maturity & Cognitive Development:

Cognition means knowing. It is the process of learning and understanding. It includes imagery, perception, thought, reasoning, reflection and problem solving. Cognitive development, therefore, refers to the development of intellectual skills.

The great Swiss psychologist Jean Piaget (1896) has made the most significant contribution in the field of cognitive development. He suggested four stages in the cognitive development of child.
1. Sensory Motor Stage: (from birth to two years)

During the first two years, the child's cognitive growth is based on sensory and motor actions. The child gets information about the surroundings through the five senses and the inborn reflexes. The child gets attracted to variations in sound, movements, colour in the environment. The child follows objects with his eyes and looks for the hidden objects. The child begins to understand the basic cause and effect relationships.

2. Pre-operational Stage: (From two to six years)

Around two years of age the child's imagination starts to develop. The child indulges in pretend play, role play and symbolic play. The child also acquires language skills. Words and labels help the child in remembering, thinking and problem solving.

With the development of imagination and language the child now is able to identify objects
and things in pictures. On the basis of experience the child now understands that certain events are repeated regularly like day and night. The child develops the concepts of time in terms of morning and night. Pre number concept begins to develop for example the child understands simple things like big and small, more and less, tall and short & so on. This lays the foundation for further number skills such as counting, addition and subtraction with real objects.

A major feature of pre operational thought is that it is egocentric. He has no need to justify his reasoning by logic.

3. Concrete Operational Stage : (from six to ten years)

The main difference between the pre-operational stage and the concrete operational stage is that latter is concerned with the stability and integration of his cognitive system. At this level child can add, subtract, multiply and divide. He is now capable of classification of concrete objects on the basis of their shape, colour and size. This classifying
and organising objects and ideas is fundamental prerequisite for mature reasoning and logical operations.

The child around six years of age, becomes more systematic, organised in his way of thinking. The child's ability to think becomes more flexible, he can understand the other person's point of view, sympathies with other person's feelings. This change in the way of thinking, organizing, classifying, problem solving is the stepping stone to the child's later development.

4. **Formal Operational Stage**: (from eleven to fifteen years)

This stage has not been discussed as the present study is confined to ten years old child.

(VI) **Social Maturity and Moral Development**:

According to western culture social maturity means attainment of independence and a sense of responsibility. But according to Indian culture the concept of social maturity not only covers independence and sense of responsibility but
alongwith these moral and religious aspect is also considered important category.

Hence, the social maturity test consists of moral and religious aspects. During the early years of life moral development takes shape which ultimately influence social maturity. That is why stages of moral development is given the adequate importance here.

Some of the performances of social maturity scale demands the moral behaviours of children. The child has to learn what is “good” and what is “bad”, what is “right” and what is “wrong”. He has also to learn his “Duties”. Thus, moral behaviours operate in the social context.

Kohlberg and Gilligan (1971) have shown that there is a close relation between cognitive growth as envisaged by Piaget and moral development. On the basis of the responses of children and adolescents, Kohnberg concluded that there are three main levels of morality, with two substages within each level. The levels and stages, as Kohlberg described them, are as follows:
Level: 1 The Preconventional (or premoral) Level

Stage 1: Punishment and obedience Orientation.

Stage 2: Instrumental Relativist Orientation.

Level: 2 The Conventional Level

Stage 3: The good Boy–Nice Girl Orientation.

Stage 4: The Law and Order Orientation

Level: 3 The Post conventional, Autonomous or Principled Level

Stage 5: The Social Contract or Legalistic Orientation

Stage 6: The Universal Ethical Principle Orientation.

The Baby has no conscience. So his behaviour is not guided by moral standards. Eventually; he learns from his parents, teachers and playmates the moral codes of the group and necessity for conforming to them. The Baby judges right and
wrong in relation to the “pleasure” or “pain” of the act rather than in terms of “good” and “bad”.

During the early pre-school years, corresponding to Piaget’s pre operational, stage of pre-logical thought, the child is governed by what he wants to do. The standards of ‘right’ and ‘wrong’ are absolute and are laid down by authority such as parents. As young child ascribe living qualities to everything. It is difficult for them to comprehend the meaning of ‘death’.

With the beginning of the concrete operational thinking, the child is responsive to the culture labels of ‘good’ and ‘bad’. He, however, interprets them in terms of rewards and punishments. A little later, moral elements of fairness, reciprocity and equal sharing are present in the child. The child’s judgements are based on the norms and expectations of the group. As the child reaches the end of childhood, his moral codes approach gradually those of the adults and his behaviour conforms more closely to their standards.
Conventional morality tends to become dominant in the pre-adolescent stage, that is, when the cognitive stage of formal operations begins.

2. **Anxiety:**

Anxiety being the basic trait of personality has drawn attention of many theorists ranging from Fruedian to Skinner. Twentieth century was labelled as the century of anxiety. It is a part of every day life. The term is commonly used by everybody but the connotation of the term is very wide and loosely defined in our literature.

For the purpose of research ‘Anxiety’ needs conceptual clarification. While reviewing the psychological literature related to anxiety, it is observed that very often it is referred to as an emotional state and sometimes as a motivational force.

Various attempts have been made by the psychologists to define the anxiety on the scientific base. A few definitions are as under:

- H. S. Sullivan (1968) a sociological theorist described “anxiety as an intensely unpleasant state of tension due to experiencing disapproval in interpersonal relationships”.

- Sartre (1970) has defined “anxiety as a fear of failure to meet a standard or one does not hold the appropriate standard.”
- Coleman (1969) described "anxiety as a state of emotional tension characterized by apprehension and fearfulness in the absence of specific danger." In very general terms it can be defined as a persistent distressing psychological state arising from an inner conflict. Coleman's definition emphasized more on to the abstract fear rather than anxiety.

- Spence & Spence (1966) equate anxiety with drive level and thus arrive at the well known prediction of an interactional effect between anxiety and task difficulty on task performance.

- Rollo May (1979), as the existential theorist described "anxiety as apprehension caused by the threat to values which the individual holds essential to his or her existence as a personality."

- Fromm Ruchmann puts forward a comprehensive concept of anxiety. He asserts that "anxiety is connected with anticipated fear of punishment, disapproval, withdrawal of love, disruption of interpersonal relationship, isolation or separation."

- Drever (1958) defined "anxiety as a chronic complex emotional state with apprehension of dread as its most prominent component characteristics of various nervous or mental disorders."

All the above views about anxiety have in common one basic conception that any situation that threatens the well being of organism is
assumed to produce a state of anxiety. Anxiety is a subjective emotional state, which is characterised by pervasive feelings such as apprehension, dread, fear and worry and often accompanied by physical symptoms such as muscle tension, tremors, palpitations, chest-pain, headache, dizziness and gastro-intestinal distress.

Because anxiety involves a state of tension and discomfort the individual is motivated to avoid or to reduce it. Over the course of a lifetime, a person develops various methods of coping with anxiety producing situation.

Coleman (1950), stated that defense mechanisms like withdrawal, regression, repression, rationalization, fantasy, compensation, catharsis, sublimation, identification, reaction-formation, projection, displacement, negativism and so on help to remove some of the uncomfortable aspects of anxiety. They represent an unconscious attempt to reduce anxiety and enhance the self-esteem of the individual.

Freed (1939), also pointed out that person employs certain mental dynamisms (protective and defensive techniques) to minimize the anxiety and to maintain psychological equilibrium.

Anxiety differs from fear, worry, stress and tension. The differences are as under:
- **Difference between Fear and Anxiety**:

  Fear is emotional arousal that is caused by the anticipation of an actual physical stimulus or danger such as an electric shock, police man, thief etc. In contrast anxiety is emotional arousal that is caused by anticipation of a situation that is not physically painful but that promises to be psychologically unpleasant due to embarrassment or self consciousness.

- **Difference between Worry and Anxiety**:

  Anxiety differs from worry in two important respects. First worry is related to the specific situations, such as examinations, parties or money problems, while anxiety is a generalized emotional state. Secondly, worry comes from an objective problem while anxiety comes from some subjective problem.

- **Difference between Stress and Anxiety**:

  The word stress is used constantly in connection with emotional states. Stress is a construct that psychology has taken over from the physical science. Stress refers only to the stimulus, an object or situation that most sensible people would agree is dangerous, either physically or psychologically. The individual’s perception of the stress is called threat and its subsequent responses may be anxiety.
Difference between Tension and Anxiety:

Psychological tension refers to a state of the organism created by stress an actual tensing of muscles of the body is an ordinary concomitant of emotional arousal. Tension is also conceptualized as a state of disequilibrium. Tension is a vague feeling of restlessness that is as a consequence of anxiety occuring at a level below conscious awareness. It is a state that links unconscious anxiety to manifest behaviour.

Sources of Anxiety:

According to Frued anxiety has three sources:

1. Reality Anxiety:

   A threat from the external world which is called reality anxiety or more commonly fear. Reality anxiety is the basis of the other anxieties.

2. Neurotic Anxiety:

   Neurotic anxiety is the fear that impulses of the id will become unmanageable and the person will commit a punishable act.
3. **Moral Anxiety:**

Moral anxiety occurs when a person with a well developed superego does something contrary to morality.

Other causes of anxiety are as under:

1. Feeling of inadequacy.
2. Parental over protection.
3. Unrealistic high levels of aspiration.
4. Feelings of insecurity.
5. Lack of self confidence.
6. Experience that undermine self-confidence.

The sources of the anxiety vary among different personality theories: opposing forces among id, ego and superego (Frueud); inferiority feelings versus striving for perfection (Adler); incompatible "neurotic needs" simultaneously driving the person to seek to be with others, to agree against them, and to be independent of them (Horney); conflicting requirement of complex interpersonal relations (sullivan); psychosocial crises in the process of identity formation (Erikson). Despite this diversity in assumed
sources of anxiety, personality theorists agree about defense mechanism and can protect the individual against anxiety to some extent.

**Theories of Anxiety:**

**Anxiety as an Unconscious Conflict:**

Froued believed that neurotic anxiety was the result of an unconscious conflict between id impulses (mainly sexual and aggressive) and the constraints imposed by the ego and super ego. Many of the id impulses pose a threat to the individual either because they are contradictory to personal values or because they are in opposition to what society will permit.

**Anxiety as a Learned Response:**

In contrast to psychoanalytic theory, the behaviourist or learning theory approach focuses not on internal conflicts but on ways in which anxiety becomes associated with certain situations via learning. Situations that were anxiety producing in childhood may continue to be avoided in adulthood because the individual has never reappraised the threat or developed ways of coping with it.
3. **Women's Studies**: 

Present research deals with women's issues like employment & social maturity of their children. Therefore, conceptual clarification of women's studies have also been probed. Women's studies are necessary because they fill in missing information about women in history and correct misconceptions about women's bodies, mental capacities, activities and achievements. In the process of doing so women's studies is developing new lines of inquiry that focus on women and the views. Women's studies is also adding to our knowledge of men.

Women's studies can keep alive the past and present work of women. It is a source of strength for the women's movement and a basis for action to bring about social change and individual development. It increase awareness of women and men which may help us to understand personal issues and making better decisions.

Cognitive developmental theory holds that girls and boys feel internal needs as well as external pressure to conform to a gender-appropriate identity. Social learning theory gives greater weight to external factors such as the reward of gender appropriate behaviour and the punishment of cross gender behaviour.
According to Frueidian theory, the significant turning point in psychosexual development for gender identity occurs at about the age of three. Psychoanalytic theory shows how our subjective experiences influence our feelings and behaviour while theories of socialization show social context. The social environment contributes to the learning of gender roles.
Research Review

1. Social Maturity

Indian Researches

Indian studies available on social development and social maturity of children were mainly of a fact finding type based on highly localized incidental samples, thereby limiting the findings to a specific group. A majority of the studies were cross-sectional and they investigated the influence of certain variables like sex, age, socio-economic status, parental attitudes, etc., on dependent variables such as social behaviour, intelligence and personality etc., Gururaja (1981) stated in her 'Review Studies on Social Maturity of the Indian Child' that inspite of keen hunting for bibliographical reference and documented studies in this research area, the actual source material available was meagre.

Studies in the area of ‘social maturity’ appeared on the Indian research arena only in the seventies until Raval (1970) prepared a Social Maturity Scale on the line of Vineland Social Maturity Scale. Norms have been established for the rural and urban children of under ten years. In her scale she included major dimensions of social maturity; i.e. from dependency to independency, from lack of responsibility to a sense of responsibility, from incompetence to competence, from self centerism to
altruism and from fancy to fact. Her study revealed that the first, fifth and eighth years were of the greatest significance for social development. This conclusion may be compared with Frued's theory of psycho-sexual development of children. Frued emphasized the first five years of life as a formative period. We may infer that the years during which the scales are thinned out, are the period of latent learning and the years during which the scales are heavily loaded are the years of obvious and manifested accomplishment. She also pointed out that for social development, home environment as well as the general environment i.e. rural or urban – play a significant role. Kuppuswamy (1984) using Raval test found that out of 170 items 100 items showed significant rural-urban differences. Out of 100 items, only in 7 items the rural children were superior while in 93 items urban were superior.

Later in 1974 social maturity scale was standardized by Thirtha and Gururaja in Bangalore centre on the bases of Vineland Social Maturity Scale. The scale can be used to obtain the social maturity of children in the age group of 3½ to 14 years and norms have been established for rural and urban samples. This scale has included following eight dimensions of maturation : self-direction, self-confidence, locomotion, communication, leadership, friendship, co-operation, ability to take stress. This scale was particularly useful to child study since the items were pertain to school
situation and the behaviour could be rated by the teacher. In the same context NCERT undertook the nation wide project for developing norms on line of Gesell's Schedule to study the Indian child. The study encompassed a representative sample in the age group of 2½ to 5 years old children and collected data in the different areas of development, namely motor, adaptive, personal–social and language behaviour. Norms for urban, rural and industrial areas were given in the reports for specific behaviours which were observed. Murlidharan (1983) also studied the personal–social development (of 2½ to 5 years children). He discussed different aspects of behaviour such as eating, sleeping, elimination, dressing, personal hygiene, communication, play and developmental detachment. The information was obtained by interviews with parents and by observations. The report highlighted the development patterns of behaviour in these aspects and the regional and urban-rural, industrial differences in the development of social skills and norms were established. In the second developmental norms projects the social developments of the child was studied for the 5½ to 11½ years olds sample and a social maturity scale was standardized on the line of the Vineland Social Maturity Scale. During the same time Maline also developed Maline’s Social Maturity Scale which was the Indian adaptation of the Vineland.
In the first five years the child's parents and the family members primarily influence the development of his personality. Saran (1970) found that the home environment of the pre-school child influenced his social adjustment, i.e. self-confidence, self-assertion, friendliness etc. However, some general tendencies in maternal behaviour which were related to children's response tendencies had been noted. Patel (1964) found differences in social behaviour and personality of children reared completely by mothers and reared by another person respectively. She developed a rating scale to measure the involvement of the mother in caring of the child in behaviours connected with feeding, bathing and dressing, play, elimination etc. and collected data for a sample of 4 years old suburban children in the upper middle class group. She obtained data on intelligence, social maturity, ascendance–submission and sociometric choices of the children and forms that the mother – reared children, in general, were more socially acceptable. Prasad and Prasad's (1975) study in pre-school children's working mothers found sex differences in the behaviour. They compared the behaviour of pre-school children of employed mothers with non-school going children of non-employed mothers in especially play situations. The authors concluded that preschool education positively affected the personality of a child. They found that the pre-school children were better in social participation and behaviour ascendance as compared to the control group. While examining
the effects of mother's working status on children it was found that male children of working group were socially more participative than male children of non-working group.

A study conducted by Fozdar (1985) concluded that the high cosmopolitan culture and low cosmopolitan culture in general did not influence the attainment of social maturity. Patel (1984) indicated a positive correlation between the level of parental satisfaction and attainment of social maturity by their children. In a comparative study on attainment of social maturity in orphan and non-orphan female children undertaken by Garda (1981), it was shown that maternal deprivation did not change the level of attainment of social maturity. This clearly indicated the role of multiple factors influencing the social maturity of children. In orphans the proper institutional care might be playing the role of "Surrogate mother". On the other hand for non-orphans, mere the presence of parents are not enough. Shikh (1972), in her study revealed that there was no significant difference among the children of different socio-economic class in the attainment of social maturity. Chattopadhyay and Bhattacharya (1981), examined whether generalised malnutrition or a specific type of it (e.g. rickets) had an impact on the development of social maturity. Twenty-one children between 4-6 years of age suffering from generalised mal-nutrition, twenty-one with rickets, twenty-one
normal subjects, all of lower socio-economic status and twenty-one
normal subjects of higher socio-economic status were administered the
Vineland Social Maturity Scale. Results showed that both generalised
malnutrition and rickets as well as socio-economic status had negative
effects on social development.

Phatak (1993), Studied Social Maturity (SQ) of 86 infants, 47 boys
and 39 girls longitudinally recorded for sex-differences at 3, 6, 9, 12, 18,
24 and 30 months. Non significant differences are noted at all age groups.
Mean SQs of the total group indicated rapid growth from 3 to 9 months in
the direction of reaching normalcy.

Again in 1994 Phatak (1994), studied 15 environmental
components as independent variables with SQ (Social Maturity Quotient)
as dependent variable. For this purpose 89 infants longitudinally recorded
at 3, 6, 9, 12, 18, 24 and 30 moths. The independent variables were
studied for their individual, total and relative contribution in the variance
of social maturity. The components were grouped under : (1)
Development, (2) Child's life at home, (3) Parental characteristics, (4)
Family characteristics, and (5) Physical environment. The highest
contributing component under each group was used in developing a
descriptive picture of congenial environment for development of social
maturity during infancy.
The researcher could find all the above Indian studies in relation to social maturity inferred upon different dimensions of social maturity, different age group covered by scale and variables selected for the purpose of researches.

Recently, the 'significance of social maturity status of a child' is used in diagnosing the level of mental retardation and to plan counselling for developmental adjustment being explored. At this juncture developing social maturity scales based upon indigenous observations is very important. In view to this available Indian literature was scanned by Phatak, (1983) to locate some age-related valid milestones of social maturity of Indian children. For this purpose she selected five studies, two of them were describing the observed-behaviour of children and rest of three were social maturity scales. They all were as under:


2. Personal Social Development of Indian children, Developmental Norms of Indian children 2½ years to 5 years, R. Muralidharan, NCERT, New Delhi.


After critical evaluation of above studies it was felt that different descriptions of similar behaviour would need proper editing so that the description became applicable to Indian situation at large and the selected behaviour for milestone needed some objective criteria, like the selected behaviour for milestone should occur in most of the children. It should contribute to the child in becoming self-dependent. Furthermore, it should indicate relationship with chronological age.

Most of the researches feel that Social maturity as such has not been adequately explored by the researchers. Moreover, the present trend in research is unidimensional instead of multidimensional. Research is mainly directed towards the unitary personality dimension or clinical variables like motivation, anxiety, intelligence etc. but most integrated aspect and multidimensional social development has not attracted the researchers, hence, the related literature in the field has not been enriched.
And whatever literature is available that is mostly unpublished or left at the corners of libraries.

In spite of very vital attempt to explore the field this much literature could be traced by the investigator which seems to be enough for the present purpose.

So far social maturity is concerned most of the studies are cross-sectional and investigate the influence of certain variables like sex and age of child, socio-economic status, rural-urban and family characteristics, etc. Lacunae can be observed in the area of occupational status of mother. The various studies reviewed in this section cannot strictly be considered as identical studies. They do differ in terms of sampling, measures employed, and procedural formalities observed in data collection and data analysis. One more additional effort to conduct the present study is justified on the ground that social maturity is influenced by a variety of factors and that proper measures of the variables using well standardized tests will enhance the value of findings reported in the literature.

2. **Working Status of Mothers:**

**International Researches:**

In contrast to the ideology where man is the bread winner and women the house-keeper and care-giver, millions of women in India and
other countries involved in earning. Mostly people believe that maternal employment increases responsibilities, especially for mothers of very young children. Theses responsibilities may affect the quality of interaction between mother & child. Full time employment would increase the risk of poor quality maternal care because of lack of time (Crockenberg & Litman, 1991). Next study has focused on role satisfaction. If mothers are satisfied in their role performance, there appear to be no adverse effects of employment on their parenting of young children. There is some indication that role dissatisfaction and role strain may adversely affect the parenting practices of employed mothers, but also that role satisfaction may beneficially affect parenting (Benn, 1986). Few studies have examined total working hours as one of the features of the mother’s employment that may affect the child care, is the total number of hours she works. Bronfenbrenner (1984) reported that mothers employed part time had the most positive attitudes towards their children. Similarly another feature like family socio-economic position may also interact with employment status to affect maternal and child behaviour. There is evidence that low income mother has less role-satisfaction and less social support than higher income women and their parenting may be more adversely affected when they are employed as a consequence.
In a study of fifth grade children of lower class working mothers (Woods, 1972), it was found that children of mothers who were employed full time away from home achieved better social adjustment and intelligence score than those whose mothers worked at home. This study shows positive direction of low SES and full time job have beneficial effects on children. Most studies have shown that working mothers have a more favourable attitude towards children than those not employed outside the home (Nye, 1983).

In several studies it has been found that children of working mothers develop in much the same fashion as children whose mothers remain at home. A mother’s outside employment apparently is not likely, in itself to have unfavorable effects. A distinguished panel of social scientists reviewed all the researches on working mothers and concluded that there were no consistent effects of mother’s employment on any aspect of child development. Maternal employment cannot have a single set of effect on children because mothers work for various reasons, when their children are at various ages and stages of development. The researchers concluded that maternal employment showed no negative effect on the development of children (Martin, 1984).

Working mothers who like their jobs have better personal adjustments, are happier, and are less depressed than full-time house-
wives, even those who prefer being remain at home with their children. The worst adjusted and the most unhappy women are those non-working who wish they could be employed (Crosby, 1982). Depressed mothers have depressing effects on their child. Non-working mothers who wish they could get employed are the most frustrated and depressed mothers in several studies. Yarrow (1972) revealed that the non-working middle-class mothers who were dissatisfied with not working (who want to work but, out of a feeling of "duty" do not work) showed the greatest problems in child-rearing.

The loving exchanges between mothers and their babies, and the conversations between pre-school children and their mothers are tremendously important for children’s intellectual development as well as for their emotional security. But there is no such evidence that the children of working mothers are deprived of these important experiences. The study conducted by Hoffman (1989) showed that employed women spent as much time as non-working women indirect interactions with their children, although they did not of course spend as much time simply in the same room or same house with the children.

Parcel et. al. (1996) studied the effects of parental work & maternal non-employment on children’s reading & math achievement. Using a sample of 1067 children of 9-12 years old of working & non-working
mothers. Analysis revealed that the most important determinants of children’s reading and math achievement were characteristics of the children and parents themselves, namely maternal cognitive ability and spouse’s education. Paternal work hours had some effects on math achievement which maternal work influenced reading achievement under some conditions. Both positive & negative influences were seen.

Najam et. al. (1991) investigated the differences in adjustment of 18 working and 18 non-working educated married Pakistani women within their families. The findings were based on the women’s reports. Adjustment was determined by communication within the family and the involvement of the husband and the children in the household chores. It was found that the higher the education level of the husband, the more the communication between the husband and wife and the more the husband’s involvement in house work. More involvement with children by the working mother was seen in terms of time spent with children and shared activities. However, as reported by mothers, children of working mothers were more independent as compared to children of non-working mothers. It is concluded that the tensions of dual roles of women appear to be minimal if the spouses work together to share the workload.

Recently in the western countries ‘Attachment’ has becomes the area of research interest. They are trying to see effect of maternal
employment, particularly before the age of 12 months may interrupt the development of the bond between mother & infant. In this regard Cynthia et. al. (1993), examined the effects of maternal employment and separation anxiety on maternal interactive behaviour and infant attachment. 73 mother infant pairs participated in a laboratory free-play session when infants were 5 and 10 months of age and in the Strange Situation when the infants were 18 months of age. Maternal feelings about being separated from her infant were assessed by questionnaire at 5 months. Employed mothers returned to work before the infants’ fifth month, and non-employed mothers did not work outside the home through their infants’ tenth moth. Employed mothers who reported high levels of separation anxiety were more likely to exhibit intrusive behaviours at 10 months. While employment was not directly related to attachment, we found infants of high anxiety employed mothers to develop anxious-avoident attachments. The results of the present study suggested that the link between maternal employment and mother-infant attachment might be through the mother’s anxiety about separation and its effect on her interactive behaviour.

Few studies have considered the quality of care provided by mothers when they are home as a mediator of maternal employment effects on child development, and to our knowledge those who have done
so have considered it only in relation to the security of infant attachment. Thus, Benn (1986) reported that among full-time employed mothers of infants, those who provided sensitive and responsive care had infants who developed secure attachments, whereas those who provided less sensitive care more frequently had insecurely attached infants. Similarly, Belsky (1988) found that infants whose mothers worked full time, but who were cared for by their fathers, were all securely attached. These studies are consistent with the view that the effects of maternal employment on young children will depend on the quality of the care they receive from their parents.

Indian Researches:

In 1971 a survey was made by the Tata Institute of Social Science on “Women and Employment”. It was found that 70% of women denied adverse effects in terms of child care. Other two pilot surveys (1971) also concluded that the majority of working women were of view that there were no adverse effect on the care of children, domestic responsibilities, women’s health etc. In the same year one more study conducted by Shri Ram Centre for Industrial Relations indicated that the professional role of the house-wife did have conflicts – with her responsibilities in the home. Hemalata (1983) stated in her study that 85% working women expressed serious problems in the area of care of children. This problem is
influenced by the working hours, socio-economic status, number of children and their age. Working women living in joint or in extended families did not express serious problems with regard to the care of their children. But working women in nuclear families having pre-school age children or younger to it were facing more problems than those who were having school age children. Working women, who belonged to the low and middle income group had more problems than the women in high income group. Because it was economically difficult for them to engage full time servant. Women working irregular hours had to face more problems in the area of child-care, if the children were young, she had to face many problems. Sastry (1991) said that working women face major problems and stress due to child care needs. Though dual-career couples may be in a better financial position to pay for child care there is difficulty in locating such care. In most locations, child care is not available in either sufficient quantity or in good quality. Hamlata (1983), found in her study that 62% women were taking up employment for economic reason: to support the family, and to supplement the family income for higher living standard. About 21% women were working to have independent income and status. 12% were working to utilize their knowledge and 5% to overcome their boredom in home. Family income was also one of the important variables that influence women employment.
In contemporary Indian society rapid socio-economic changes have induced certain adaptive changes in the family, which in turn lead to modifications in socialisation & child rearing practices. In particular, increase in maternal employment is significantly changing the quality and degree of affective interaction in the mother-child dyad. As employed mothers spend more time outside the home children experience greater freedom to act on their own and work independently than the children of mothers who are housewives (Sinha, 1988).

Employment status of mother influence various aspects of child development. It provides opportunities to children to explore environment and to take independent decision. Mathur (1993) investigated some of the important consequences of maternal employment for certain aspects of personality development of children. He found that in general, the children in employed mothers were more independent. They get more opportunity to face the different situations on their own.

So far international studies are concerned they have stressed on the following points:

Full-time employment, part-time employment, role-perception, role performance, higher income of mother and their influence on child rearing practices & interaction.
Some of these studies revealed that although children of working and non-working mothers are reared in the same manner the children of working mothers achieved better social adjustment and intelligence score compared to those of non-working mothers.

There are no consistent effects of mother’s employment on the development of children.

Recently, ‘separation anxiety’ and ‘attachment bond’ have become the area of research interest in western countries.

So far Indian researches are concerned, they have emphasized on the following points:

- Working mothers and their children have been studied by taking into consideration of various variables like joint and nuclear family, socio-economic status, working hours, number of children, age of children, high/low income of mothers and availability of day care facilities.

- Some of the Indian studies revealed that children of employed mothers are more independent, they can take independent decision, can face different situations and more exploratory. Few researches revealed that mothers do feel guilty for not being able to spare sufficient time for their children.
Thus, it could be clearly inferred from the studies of this section that the influence of employment status of mothers on social maturity of their children is quite complex. This justifies one more additional effort using employment status as an independent variable.

3. **Rural-Urban Area of Residence :**

**Indian Researches :**

Since differences in personality structures of rural, urban and semi urban groups of children in Indian society are significantly pronounced, a few studies in India also have been undertaken to determine the extent of the relation of residential environment to personality growth. The impact of the area of residence (Rural and Urban) on the development of the different traits of personality in children ($N = 484$) was examined by Khan (1988). The development of personality in children was measured by using the Hindi version of Early School Personality Questionnaire by Cattell. It was found that the rural children differ significantly from the urban children with respect to the development of such personality traits as general intelligence, ego-strength, excitability, dominance, tendermindedness, internally restrained and shrewdness where as the rural children have been found to be superior on such traits as ego-strength, excitability, and internal restrain.
Prakash (1982) compared high caste and low caste rural children between 8-12 years of age were on the Raven’s Coloured Progressive Matrices. The results indicated that there was no significant difference in the mean scores of high caste and low caste children on this test. If an enriched environment is provided to scheduled caste children they may come up to the level of high caste children.

Dixit and Gupta (1977) compared 220 urban and rural Indian children (3-5 years of age) to test the hypotheses that rural children are more clearly aware of sex role patterns than children in urban environments; and in the Indian culture children belong to the upper caste social groups are more clearly aware of their appropriate sex role patterns than are children from the lower caste groups. It was found that there were significant differences between rural and urban girls about their sex roles.

Singh and Kaur (1981) compared Administered a questionnaire on mother-child interactional techniques in social and personal situation to twenty-five urban and twenty-five rural Indian mothers having atleast one child between the age of 2 and 5 years. The questionnaire presented certain situation to mothers and asked how they or their children would react. The results showed that rural mothers interacted more with girls than with boys. They felt that girls needed more instruction and discipline than did boys. On the other hand, the urban mother’s interaction was
related to each mother's educational levels, Mother-child interaction was greater when mothers had more education. Both urban and rural mothers used tactics such as attention-diversion, discouragement, scolding and spanking to discipline their children.

Seth, Saksena and Srivastava (1978) compared the child rearing attitudes of mothers in rural and urban area of Lakhimpur-Kheri, Uttar Pradesh. Parental Attitude Research Instrument was administrated to a hundred mothers in each groups. The two groups were matched on the variables of age, education, socio-economic status, and number of children in the family. Mothers in the two groups differed significantly on the ten scales. Urban mothers believe more in seclusion in the rearing of the children. Rural mothers fostered dependency in their children and believed more in the dependency of the mother.

Another study on the attitudes of rural mothers towards the upbringing of their children in different aspects, such as educational and social participation, marriage, and household functions, was done by Arkasali and Khadi (1993). The results indicated that the rural mothers held differential attitudes towards the upbringing of their children. They expressed favourable attitudes towards the upbringing of their sons rather than their daughters in almost all the components studied. Only in
performing household function did the mothers express favourable attitudes towards the upbringing of daughters rather than sons.

In India rural-urban environment seems to be an important variable in studying various aspects of development and personality of a child.

Major research findings revealed that urban children differed from rural children in some of the personality traits and task-performance. Rural children had greater clarity about their sex-roles.

Child rearing attitudes of rural & urban mothers were also found to be different, girls being discriminated against boys on many counts.

On the overall basis no clear-cut effect of rural-urban variation was observed in the development of children. It was therefore thought to include this variable in the present study.

4. **Occupational Status & Anxiety** :

International Researches:

The concept of anxiety continues to play an important role in many current explanation of motivation & personality adjustment.

Anxiety may be either beneficial or detrimental to appropriate activity, depending largely upon its intensity. A mild state of arousal may
motivate & facilitate learning & adjustment in general. However, beyond critical points it becomes restrictive & handicapping.

Benedek (1970) suggested that mothers with high separation anxiety may be overprotective, which would have negative developmental consequences. Recent evidences suggested that working mothers were less anxious about separating from their infants than non-working mothers. (Hock et. al. 1989). Anxiety is a part & parcel of everyone’s life. Anxiety even at high levels, does not signify maladjustment. It is only when a highly anxious individual lacks the skills to resolve a situation (Jersild, 1988). Several studies have proved that there is negative relationship between level of anxiety and intellectual performance (Stevenson, 1965).

However, anxiety is not always a stable trait of a person; it becomes clear that there are also situational determinants of anxiety. The specific characteristics of a situation may heighten or lower-down the levels of anxiety. Mothers of sick babies were scored significantly higher on the anxiety scale by Humphry (1985). Thus, the characteristics of the child and specific situation interact with the mother’s personality disposition in determining the anxiety scores.

The description of Maternal Separation Anxiety (Hock et. al. 1989) revealed that separation anxiety is experienced by mothers with a wide
range of individual differences in intensity. A mother’s basic personality structure, genetically determined bases, and role related dictates of her cultural background contribute to the way she feels about separation anxiety.

Multiple role have overloaded the working mother which consequently may be a cause of anxiety. Gove et. al. (1977) concluded that married working women have high rates of psychological distress— including anxiety, depression and worry. Barnett and Barch (1987) examined women’s involvement in multiple roles in relation to three stress indices: role overload, role conflict and anxiety. It was concluded that role conflict and role overload were strongly related to anxiety only among unemployed subjects.

Tingey et. al. (1996) examined the work and family factors that have been hypothesized in the research literature to influence the occurrence of stress among working mothers. 72 married or cohabiting working women (aged 19-58 years), in dual-career relationships, who have at least, child under 18 years living at home, participated in the study, subjects were asked to complete the “Modified perceived stress scale”, and to answer questions regarding their household emotional and domestic labor, their satisfaction with child care responsibilities and household tasks, their employment status and their partner’s and their own
work-family spillover. Results indicated that a partner’s work family spillover and dissatisfaction with child care arrangements in the family were associated with perceived stress. Sense of control was an important determinant of whether stress developed among the working mothers in the sample.

Repetti et al. (1997) concluded that job stressors may have their strongest impact on the daily parenting behaviour of mothers who generally experience higher levels of emotional distress (depressed or anxious mood). In her study thirty mother-preschooler dyads were studied for 5 consecutive weekdays. In addition to daily maternal reports of job stressors and parent-child interaction, a subsample of 13 dyads was videotaped during the parent child reunion at the end of each workday. Mothers were much more likely to respond to an increase in job stressors by withdrawing than by becoming more irritable. Both mothers and independent observers described mothers as more behaviourally and emotionally withdrawn (e.g. less speaking & fewer expressions of affection) on days when the mothers reported greater workloads or interpersonal stress at work.

Ostar & Scannell (1999) introduced a model of the interrelationship among change in role perception, role conflict and psychological health of working mothers. The model posits that change in
role perception after the birth of children influences psychological health directly or indirectly through role conflict. The model was tested with a sample of 192 employed mothers (aged 26-45 years) with at least one child under 11 years of age and who lived in either Melbourne or Canberra, Australia. As expected, scores on role conflict predicted all four measures of psychological health (anxiety, self-esteem, uptight & worn out). It is concluded that measuring experienced role conflict and change in role perception showed be taken into account in any consideration of women's psychological health.

**Indian Researches:**

Mukhopadhyay (1996) compared 2 groups of mothers, non-working and working as college teachers, living in Calcutta. There were 4 subsamples of 25 women each studied at 2 time points (1987 & 1992). Free-state anxiety level was measured for each subject. Results showed a general trend toward higher anxiety scores for the non-working subjects than for the working subjects at both time points. The lower mean anxiety scores found for the working subjects may have been due to the possible lack of role conflict among them.

Varma (1990) in her study revealed that "parent's anxiety should also be related to their child rearing attitudes. But no specific attempts have been made to study this relationship. Byrne & Murrell (1977) found
that anxious mothers over protected their children. Similarly Parker and Lipscompe (1979) reported that anxious parents give over-protection to their children. Parker (1982) found that parental characteristics of low care & over-protection have been linked with several grades of depression & anxiety in them."

Gupta, Pestonjee & Singh (1981) revealed in their study that most of the workers in the high efficiency group had a high sense of participation and felt less anxiety as compared to the low efficiency group. It stated that up to a certain level anxiety raises efficiency but after that higher level anxiety was detrimental to efficient functioning.

Most studies emphasized sex differences in anxiety levels, girls displaying more anxiety (Nijhawan, 1971). A study of 300 medical students found that girls were higher on both anxiety and amount of fear. This finding was further supported (Varma, 1970) by Sharma and Sud (1990) they revealed that females had higher test anxiety, worry and emotionality than their male counterparts. Greater role expectation conflict in females seem to be the major factor for such a consistent gender difference. Hence, sex-role stereotyping may be one of the reasons for increasing level of anxiety.

Sastry (1987) concluded in her study that women of 20 to 30 years age group had a significantly higher anxiety score compared to the 31 to
45 years age group. Moreover, she found that there was no difference in the anxiety level of working and non-working women. The anxiety level did not vary with age and occupational status. The anxiety level did not vary with age and number of children. She also concluded that type of family either joint or nuclear did not influence the anxiety level of women. Similarly no difference was observed between the anxiety level of women of high income and low income group.

The results of various researches on the possible relationship of anxiety and employment status of mothers are not conclusive. There are many factors or conditions associated with anxiety and therefore it would be difficult to infer from the available studies that working mothers would feel greater anxiety than non-working mothers. Moreover the role of anxiety is influencing the development of social maturity is also not so clearly understood. It is for these reasons that anxiety has included in the present study to throw some more light on its relation with status of working and its impact on social maturity.

5. **Sex of a child**:

**International Researches**:

Socialization for gender roles begins from the moment of birth parents treat male and female children differently and have expectations
based on the cultural definition of sex differences. Rubin et. al. (1974) reported that parents make sex-types judgements about their new born sons and daughters. The male and female children were differently trained. Female stereotypes tended to include such traits as gentleness, submission, dependency and nurturance. In contrast male stereotypes tended to include such traits as forcefulness, dominance, independence, ambition and competitiveness (Broverman et. al. 1972).

A Survey conducted by Herbert and Margret (1972) on certain aspects of socialization in 110 cultures showed that differentiation of the sexes was unimportant in infancy, but in childhood there was greater pressure toward nurturance, obedience and responsibility in girls and towards self reliance and achievement striving in boys. Results tended to confirm that personality differences between the sexes were cultural rather than biological.

Normally, children adopt only those personality characteristics and responses considered appropriate by their culture. Mussen et. al. (1979) pointed out that there was differential socialization of girls and boys with greater emphasis on achievement, competence, independence, and assumption of responsibilities in sons and interpersonal relations in daughters.
Hoffman (1960) found that the daughters of employed mothers were better off in most ways than the daughters of non-working mothers. They were more self-confident, more successful at school, and were more likely to pursue careers themselves.

**Indian Researches:**

Indian Society has always been a male dominated one. Parents prefer to have male child than female one, birth of male child becomes a matter of pride whereas female arrival does not evolve any happiness. Parents rear them in different ways. Boy is provided all types of facilities whereas girl is deprived. Being aware of this differential attitude of parents for their male & female children; it was felt that sex difference could be a factor affecting social maturity of children.

In Indian society the socialisation of a girl child is considerably different from that of boys. Girls are not only reinforced to be more dependent but also to be more conforming (Sinha, 1981). It has been observed that sex role are differentiated & shaped socialization from birth onwards (Anand Lakshmy, 1975).

Indian society, like other societies of the world, also distinguishes between behaviours considered appropriate for males and females. In a traditional family, the values of patriarchy and male supremacy largely
determine the differential socialization and reinforcement of a separate set of behaviours for boys and girls. The socialization of a girl is guided by traditional concepts of proper feminine behaviour and by the fact that her actions are inextricably linked to family honour and prestige (Jacobson, 1977). The norm of a girls' socialization is modesty, submissiveness, domestic and family skills, nurturance, interpersonal relations, dependence and adaptation are encouraged in girls while male children are taught to be aggressive, assertive, superior and independent.

In a study of 290 pre-school boys and girls and their parents, Bhogle (1991) found the boys to be more aggressive than the girls.

Graves (1978) compared a group of nineteen boys and twenty girls from West Bengal (aged 7-18 months) were observed, together with their mothers, in twenty minutes of free activity in a standard setting. The boys' exploratory and attachment behaviours showed developmental trends parallel to trends found among American children of the same age. Girls showed less exploratory behaviour and a heightened need for physical closeness with the mother during the second year of life. Mothers of the boys interacted with their sons across a distance, initiated interaction and were responsive to him significantly more than were mothers towards a daughter. They also evidenced a distinct pattern of reciprocity with the son, in contrast to a poorly established pattern of
reciprocity between mothers and daughters. The different maternal attitudes towards boys and girls became marked during the second year of life. It had been suggested that this culturally determined change in maternal attitudes led to an insecure attachment among girls, which in turn contributed to children's behavioural sex differences.

The sex of a child also determines the mother's concern especially in the Indian setting where the two sexes have different status. In all patriarchal societies female whether as a kid, adolescent or adult are believed to be and treated as being inferior to males. Even parents discriminate between daughters and sons. In this reference the gist of researches reviewed by Bhogle (1991) is as under:

"There are a number of research studies which pointed out that boys and girls are different in their physical strength, abilities, interests, temperaments, attitudes and values. Beene (1980) found that females had a more positive self concept, but Bharathi (1984) reported that girls had a low self concept. Some interpret these differences as being due to differing grooming and socialization by the parents, the community, the schools, the peers and also other modern agents of socialization such as radio, television, films and advertisements."

Pandey (1987), observed that family, society and culture play a major role in socialization and development of sex roles.
The study conducted by Shalini Bhogle (1991) on 290 preschoolers found that there was a significant discrimination in feeding, weaning and toilet training practices, as well as in the parental attitudes towards the girl child. But the major discrimination was in the areas of age of sending to school, choice of school and future aspirations of the girl child. The girls were not to be dependent while the boys were aggressive and dependent.

Phatak (1993) tried to explore the development of social maturity and sex differences. SQ (Social maturity Quotient) of 86 infants, 47 boys & 39 girls longitudinally recorded and studied for sex differences at 3, 6, 9, 12, 18, 24 & 30 months. She found no significant sex differences.

When the relationship between sex and altruism examined by Srivastava & Gupta (1981) among 7-8 years of children. He found no significant sex difference between boys & girls in their helping and sharing behaviour.

International researches as well as Indian researches have indicated that sex differences are observed during the socialization process of a child. In the foreign countries it becomes conspicuous in the childhood stage. But in India it is practiced even during the infancy stage. This kind of attitudinal variation may account for sex difference in social maturity of children. In the present investigation sex difference is studied not only by considering sex as a variable but it is also studied in relation to mothers’ anxiety and their occupational status.
(6) **Age of a child:**

**Indian Researches:**

Phatak (1993), undertook an exploratory study to find out age related changes in the environmental components influencing social maturity. She pointed out that during the first 9 months the mean SQ increases as the age increases. It is very low at 3 months onwards it fluctuates. Mean SQs (Social Maturity Quotient) of the total group indicated rapid growth from 3-9 months in the direction of reaching normalcy. From 18 months onwards various environmental components started to play direct or indirect link with social maturity (SQ).

Tripathi & Misra (1979) concluded that with advancement of age capacity of moral development increases. Almost same had been revealed by Saraswati et. al. (1980), that with advancement of age (between 10-15 years) child shifts from moral stage 2 to stage 3. She found no sex difference for shifting but social class difference were marked.

On the overall basis it is felt that there are very few studies comprehensively carried out on social maturity of children as it is influenced by some of the prevailing conditions in the society. The present investigation represents one more effort in this direction so as to bring some clarity and definiteness in the findings reported so far in this chapter.