

A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF CERTAIN SOCIAL FACETS OF  
PERSONALITY OF KHASI CHILDREN BETWEEN THE AGES  
OF 4 AND 10 YEARS IN FAMILIES OF WORKING AND  
NONWORKING MOTHERS

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DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION  
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A THESIS  
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IN

FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF  
**DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY**

To



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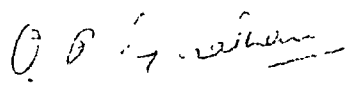
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I certify that the thesis entitled "A comparative study of certain social facets of personality of Khasi children between the ages of 4 and 10 years in families of working and nonworking mothers", submitted by K. Prafulla Reddy for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Education of the North-Eastern Hill University, Shillong, embodies the record of original investigation carried out by her under my supervision. She has been duly registered and the thesis presented is worthy of being considered for the award of Ph.D. degree. This work has not been submitted for any degree of any other University.

SHILLONG  
the 9 Dec '88

  
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Supervisor

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## C O N T E N T S

	<u>Page</u>
<i>Acknowledgement</i>	
<i>List of Tables</i>	<i>i-iii</i>
CHAPTER I <b>INTRODUCTION</b>	<b>1-17</b>
Context of the Study	1
Statement of the problem	8
Definition of the terms	9
Scope of the study	9
Importance of the study	16
Specific objectives	17
Hypotheses	18
Delimitations of the study	20
CHAPTER II <b>REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE</b>	<b>21-64</b>
CHAPTER III <b>METHOD OF STUDY</b>	<b>65-80</b>
Introduction	65
Design of the study	66
Description of the population	66
Rationale for sample selection	66
Actual sample	67
Tools of research	70
Pretesting of the tools of research	77
Procedure of data collection	78
Analysis of data	80
CHAPTER IV <b>COMPARISON OF SOCIAL FACETS OF PERSONALITY                   OF KHASI CHILDREN OF WORKING AND                   NONWORKING MOTHERS - ANALYSIS OF FINDINGS</b>	<b>81-97</b>
CHAPTER V <b>SECTION I - COMPARISON OF WORKING AND                   NONWORKING MOTHERS OF KHASI CHILDREN:                   COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF RESPONSES TO                   QUESTIONNAIRE</b>	<b>98-124</b>
<b>SECTION II - COMPARISON OF INDEPTH                   INTERVIEWS OF WORKING AND NONWORKING                   MOTHERS</b>	<b>124-132</b>

CHAPTER VI DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS 133-151

CHAPTER VII SUMMARY OF FINDINGS AND CONCLUSIONS  
OF RESEARCH 152-158

BIBLIOGRAPHY 159-173

#### APPENDICES

Ia. Interview Schedule For Working Mother i  
Ib. Ka Kot Jingtynjuh Na Ka Bynta Ki Longkmie iii  
Batreikam  
IIa. Interview Schedule for Nonworking Mothers v  
IIb. Ka Jingiakynduh Ban Tynjuh Ia Ka Jingtbit iv  
Ne Ka Prokram  
III. Socio-Economic Status Scale vii  
IV. Children's Behavior Checklist viii  
V. Interview Schedule for Mothers xiv

## LIST OF TABLES

<u>Table No</u>	<u>Title</u>	<u>Page</u>
1.01	Female literacy and participation rate in India and Methalaya - 1971-'81 Census	15
3.01	Number of working and nonworking mothers' children grouped according to sex	68
3.02	Number of working and nonworking mothers' children grouped according to family type	68
3.03	Number of working and nonworking mothers' children grouped according to mother's age	69
3.04	Number of working and nonworking mothers' children grouped according to child's age	69
3.05	Number of working and nonworking mothers' children grouped according to SES of the family	69
3.06	Number of working and nonworking mothers' children grouped according to the ordinal position of the child	70
3.07	Number of working and nonworking mothers' children grouped according to number of children in the family	70
4.01	Mean scores of working and nonworking mothers' children on eight personality factors	82
4.02	Mean scores of working and nonworking mothers' sons and daughters on eight personality factors	84
4.03	Mean scores of working and nonworking mothers' children belonging to two different family structures on eight personality factors.	86
4.04	Mean scores of the children of working and nonworking mothers belonging to three different age groups on eight personality factors	88
4.05	Mean scores of the three age groups of working and nonworking mothers' children on eight personality factors	90
4.06	Mean scores of the working and nonworking mothers' children from different socio-economic status families on eight personality factors	92

[ii]

<u>Table No</u>	<u>Title</u>	<u>Page</u>
4.07	Mean scores of the working and nonworking mothers' children grouped according to ordinal position on eight personality factors	94
4.08	Mean scores of the working and nonworking mothers' children grouped according to the number of children in the family on eight personality factors	96
5.01	Main reasons for employment by working mothers	100
5.02	Mothers' preference for work when the financial condition was comfortable	101
5.03	Awareness of the dual responsibility	102
5.04	Role preference of working and nonworking mothers	103
5.05	Enjoyment of work by mothers	105
5.06	Mothers' satisfaction with the time they spend with their children	107
5.07	The effect of mothers outside work on their children	108
5.08	The ways in which mother's work affected the children	110
5.09	Arrangements made for the care of children of working mothers	111
5.10	The percentages of satisfaction regarding arrangements made for children	112
5.11	The percentages of mothers' opinion regarding children's growth	114
5.12	The percentages of mothers leaving for and returning from work in relation to children's school schedule	115
5.13	The husband's satisfaction from wife's work outside the home	117
5.14	The husband's satisfaction from wife's work at home	118



<u>Table No</u>	<u>Title</u>	<u>Page</u>
5.15	The children's opinion towards their mothers' work outside the home	119
5.16	The children's opinion towards their mothers' work at home	121
5.17	The tiredness of the mother working outside or at home	122
5.18	The family's gain from mothers' employment	123

CHAPTER - I

## INTRODUCTION

### CONTEXT OF THE STUDY

Children occupy an important place in society. Their present conditions shape the future of their life. It is necessary to focus attention and care on this future generation.

"There is some evidence that characteristics identified in infants may be discerned when they are adolescents" [Watson, 1965, p.194].

"The style of life is developed in earliest childhood"  
[Adler, 1958, p.186].

Family is the cradle of future society. It has a keyrole to play in the life of the child who is born in it. It is in the family that the early development of personality takes place. It nurtures and helps him to develop as a suitable member of society. The importance of home environment and early experiences for the development of the child has been stressed in several studies by psychologists and educationists like Freud (1979, p.49), and Sears (1959, p.215). Bossard and Boll (1966, p.5), Sheldon Glueck (1953, p.25), and also Don C. Dinkmeyer (1967, p.154) stressed the role of the family.

Hurlock (1983, p.352) quoting the researches on the subject explains the importance of family and family constellation in a more elaborate way.

"At the time when the foundations of the personality pattern are being laid, the child's primary social experiences take place in the home. As Glazer (1961, pp.291-293) states, "personality is formed in the first instance within the womb of family relationships". Warnath (1955, pp.346-348) remarks that "the home thus appears indeed to be a seat of learning for the development of social skills, and perhaps of the desire to participate in activities with other individuals". Since the child's early social experiences are mainly with his parents, it is they who play the dominant role in moulding his personality pattern. Bishop (1951, p.65) also stresses the importance of parent-child interaction in the establishment of permanent motivational and personality attributes."

Witmer and Kotinsky (1952, p.174) also point out clearly the significance of the family in personality. The quality of parent-child relationship as well as socialization in the family exert such influence as have a lasting impact on personality development.

"Most personality theories place heavy stress on the role of childhood experiences in determining adult characteristics. Almost all psychologists agree that child-rearing practices are of paramount significance in shaping the developing personality". (Krech, 1976, p.348).

According to Groves and Groves (1947, p.261)

"It is universally recognized that the child cannot be brought up in a social vacuum. The family provides an artificial adultmade environment, which, under wholesome conditions, is as favourable to the personality requirements of the child as it is an advantage along physical lines in the child's struggle for survival."

Gordon (1965, p.48) states,

"Parent-child relationships affect physical growth as well as personality and intellectual development."

Child-development and socialization are inseparable. One major function of the family is to socialize the children. The children are totally dependent beings right from the birth. The

child requires human contact, otherwise the personality development is impaired and it is likely that the person is unsocialized. The family has the responsibility for teaching the child how to behave so that he will fit into the family and the larger culture of which the family is a part.

Hetherington and Morris said (1978, p.3)

"From the moment of birth when the child is wrapped in a pink or blue blanket, swaddled and placed on a cradleboard or nestled in a mobile, festooned bassinet, indulged by a tender mother or left to cry it out by a mother who fears spoiling the child, socialization begun."

John A. Clausen (1966, p.4), Hetherington & Parke (1975, p.415) and Khan (1980, p.23) also summarised their views on socialization and stressed the importance of the family. The most important single influence on the development of any child is the attitude of his parents towards him. Of the two parents the mother plays the more important part.

According to Rass Stagner (1974, p.462)

"The moulding of the child's personality is not limited to one particular biological function, but depends on the mother's attitudes in general".

Groves & Groves (1947), Schaefer & Bayley (1963) and also the Fels longitudinal study (Fels Research Institute in Yellow Springs, Ohio, under the leadership of Dr L.W. Sontag) suggested that early influences exerted by the mother do carry over to later age periods.

Premila V.Thackersey (1968, p.9) remarks in her article

"Unlighted Lamps of India",

"In the family, it is the women, in their roles as wife and mother, who will inculcate and stimulate adequate social goals in the rising generation. It is the educated mother who will urge the child to utilise its energy in proper channels and will soon sow the seeds of responsibility and rational action in the budding child."

The role of women as wife and mother has attained new dimension with the social transformation today. Some studies (Desai, 1957; Hare, 1969; Kapur, 1970 & 1973) point out that now the educated women of India are no more contented in carrying out only the traditional female role of a wife and mother. A silent social transformation is taking place today with women breaking away from accepted social traditions. It is the outcome of the various changes taking place in India for the last few decades and particularly after independence and also after the declaration and commemoration of the International Women's Year and Decade (1975-1985). Participation of women in the labour market is seen as a first step towards the emancipation of women. The trend for women to look beyond their homes for self expression is largely the outcome of progress in women's education.

"Raja Ram Mohan Roy and IshwarChandra Vidyasagar were the earliest to take concrete steps for improving the educational (& social) status of women. Till 1854, education of girls expanded only on account of non-official effort." (Usha Nayar, 1985, p.52).

After World War I, the movement for the emancipation of women, which was on a slow pace, was quickened in the 20th century. Mahatma Gandhi set the pace for the progress of Indian women in all spheres of life.

"Women who had been inspired by the call of Mahatma Gandhi for Satyagraha formed an all India organization called "All India Women's Conference". It has links with the nationalist movement. Eminent persons like Sarojini Naidu served it as President. Kamaladevi Chattopadhyay, Hansa Mehta, Vijayalakshmi Pandit, Mani Ben, Kara, Rama Subbamma and Durgabai of the nationalist movement played a prominent part in that organization. Later Aruna Asaf Ali, Hazra Begum, Renu Chakravarthy, Atchamamba joined the association and served the women's movement" (Subbamma, M, 1985, p.51).

In Asia a large proportion of women workers are employed in the agricultural sector, with a few exceptions. This proportion is highest in India and Thailand. In India the women in the lower classes always worked whether in fields or in factories to supplement the family income. Employment of middle and upper middle class women in urban areas is a recent phenomenon in India. Its emergence is the result of the socio-politico-economic changes that have been occurring in our country for the last eight decades or so and which have been accelerated particularly after independence. The constitution of Independent India declared that there should be no discrimination against the employment of women. This created further opportunity for employment of women and an increase in their employment rate was seen more particularly among educated and upper caste women.

According to Gordon and Kammeyer (1980, p.327) the best known typology of factors influencing the employment of women has developed by Sobol (1973).

"Sobol's typology identified 3 sets of factors that influenced the "future work plans of wives". The labeled these: enabling conditions, facilitating conditions and precipitating conditions. Enabling

conditions included number of children, age of children and other 'family status' variables. Facilitating conditions were factors that related to the ease of obtaining work, such as wife's education and previous work experience. Precipitating conditions included both financial need and some attitudinal factors such as a "need for accomplishment".

Discussing work in the lives of married women in a conference on Women Power held at Columbia University, Feldman states (1958, p.94).

"They represent more than a relatively new phenomenon. Now the middle class working wife is a potent economic, psychological, political and sociological force. Her newness, her numbers, her psycho-socio-economic impact upon her family, and upon her society of which it is part warrant examination".

According to Rao & Rao (1982, p.4) research reveals important trends in female work participation.

1. There is a positive relationship between educational levels and work participation,
2. Wives tend to have occupations either of the same prestige levels or of levels one step lower than that of their husbands,
3. Women from middle and upper income class have also started entering the labour force, and
4. a majority of women are still employed in traditional occupations such as teachers, nurses, typists, social welfare workers and librarians."

Sociologists and social psychologists in India are beginning to assess the trend in women's employment and cultural scene, specially its' impact on homelife.

The working women even while holding very responsible posts, continue to be over conscious of their duties and obligations at home. They still feel that their homes and children are their prime responsibilities.



The situation in Japan also agrees with this condition. Public Opinion Polls in Japan showed it. According to Long (1986, pp.81-90)

"Public Opinion Polls indicate that Japanese women in all age groups place their highest values on children and family".

Hirano et al (1980, pp.17-37) have argued that lack of congruence between home and labour force roles makes working outside the home more difficult for a Japanese woman. As the position is same in India also, the contradictory role expectations create tensions, confusion and problems while the working mother is at work and at home. According to Kapur (1986, p.292)

"On the one hand she is expected to be in employment and to be assertive, confident, independent, efficient and successful. On the other hand, she is expected to be non-assertive, submissive, dependent, obedient and very efficient in the traditional role of wife and daughter-in-law."

It was hypothesized by social scientists in the years following World War II that the mother's employment outside the home would adversely affect her children. In India studies by Pawar (1959), Ved (1960); Dasai and Okē (1957), reveal that children suffer from mother's outside work. Rajlakshmi (1961) and Jayalakshmi (1960) in South India found behaviour problems more in working mothers' children.

People like Dr. Benjamin Spock and Dr. Bruce Bettelheims advise mothers to foresake their employment during early years of the child, since the mothers with young children feel guilty about leaving the children.

On the other hand, 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.

The outcome for the children depends upon many factors other than the employment itself. As Hoffman (1980) has stated, it is necessary to understand the mediating role of attitudes surrounding maternal employment "to see in what ways and under what conditions it operates as a positive influence on child-development and in what ways and under what circumstances it operates as a negative influence".

Different researchers found different factors which interact in complex ways in the effect of mothers employment. The variables found were the age and sex of the child, mothers reason for work, her enjoyment and satisfaction of work, SES of the family, the mother's skill in childcare, mother's age, child's age, ordinal position of the child, substitute care and attitudes and practices of the community. Most of these variables were selected in the present study on Khasi children.

#### **STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM**

The problem covered in this study is to determine certain social facets of personality of Khasi children between the ages of 4 to 10 years in families of working and nonworking mothers in Shillong.

## DEFINITION OF THE TERMS

For this particular study the definitions of certain important concepts are given below:

**Working mother:** A working mother is a person who plays a double role as a housewife and as an employee or self employed person for full time outside the home.

**Nonworking mother:** A nonworking mother is a person who does not work full time or part-time outside the home.

**Personality:** Personality is a very wide-ranging term, covering the inherited and learned characteristics, the habits, interests, attitudes, ideals, beliefs, opinions and prejudices which mark out one person from another as distinct individuals. Personality is revealed by the way one behaves towards other people.

For the present study on social aspect of personality, 166 characteristics were grouped to 8 factors which reveal social behaviour of personality of children. They include social ascendance, personal responsibility, introvertive self-sufficiency, social effectiveness, personal attractiveness, personal security, stability, compulsive domination and dependability.

**Nuclear family:** A nuclear family is one which consists of two generations, i.e. father, mother and their children.

**Joint family:** A joint family is one which consists of three generations, i.e. with father, mother and their children, other members like grand-parents or aunts or uncles are present.

**Khasi children:** Khasi children are those whose father and mother are Khasis.

## SCOPE OF THE STUDY

The present study has been designed to compare the personality

development of Khasi children whose mothers are working outside with those children whose mothers are not working outside.

Family is the first unit in which the child has continuous contact with other human beings. It not only lays the foundation of the child's personality but also plays an important role in the creation of culture and social character. On the basis of the foundations laid at home the child acquires knowledge, develops a unique personality and becomes a member of society. The mother is the centre of the present day family, because she has assumed greater responsibility for its direction and support. It is the responsibility of the mother along with the father to provide opportunities for healthy and optimum development of the child to help him to make a happy well adjusted individual. In the initial years of life the child spends more time with his mother and here comes the role of the mother in moulding the future adult with skill, efficiency and knowledge and love.

In the beginning taking up gainful employment outside the home by middle and upper class women and mothers was considered derogatory. Gradually it was accepted by society only under dire economic conditions. Later on when they started taking up jobs routinely, they were supposed to take respectable jobs only. Many occupations where women work side by side with men were not considered respectable. With the rise in the cost of living middle class women were forced to take up employment outside their homes, in offices and shops, eventhough these occupations

were not considered respectable for women.

Since the women are relatively newcomers to the employment field, adjustments to the dual duties of the home and the job posed a problem due to the fact that their lives are more intricately linked with the family and the bringing up of the children than those of men. So at the beginning they had to choose between career and marriage. Researches done at that time by Desai, Narain and others show this attitude. Later on with experience, working women and mothers started combining the two roles effectively. Now the employed mother is becoming increasingly significant addition to the familial and economic structure of metropolitan society in India. Studies by Kapur (1960, 1970, 1973 and 1974), Arora, Bhattacharya and others (1963), Ramanamma (1968) and of Ramanujan (1972) showed that 55% to 64% of the educated women in their studies approved of women taking up employment. This may be due to the change in attitudes of the family members and on the whole by the society. These women are not only tolerated and accepted but are even more respected than before for their occupational and professional achievements and position.

But there can be little doubt that, such a serious change as the absence of the mother throughout the day, and her return in a fatigued condition in the evenings, will have a marked effect on the familial relationships and in the health of the family atmosphere. Strong arguments against maternal employment have become most pronounced in this century, possibly because more

middle class women work. Moreover, growing psychological knowledge about the mother-child relationship suggests that maternal employment harms the child's development. The working mothers have been charged with neglecting their husbands, children and home. It is hard to think of a social problem ranging from deficiency diseases to juvenile delinquency and world unrest.

Kapur quoting the researches says that the studies by Ranade and Ramachandran (1970), Barot (1972), Srivastava (1972) Dhingra (1972) and a few surveys conducted by the various magazines in India (Dharmayug and Eve's weekly) indicate that the mother's employment as such appears to be of no importance as an adverse influence on the lives and personality of her children. The researches carried out on the employed mothers in the United States (Nye and Hoffman, 1963) and in Europe (Ferguson and Cunnison, 1951; Sullerot, 1971; Scott, 1965) point towards similar assessment.

A mother's outside employment opportunity is not likely, in itself, to have unfavourable effects. When children of working mothers do have difficulties, these are likely to arise from factors which also have an adverse effect on the children of homebound mothers.

Elizabeth Herzog (1960) mentions that the impact on the child of his mother's working is likely to be influenced by the attitudes and practices of the community in which he lives,

especially as he grows older. If it is usual for mother to go to work, he is probably more likely to accept the daily absence as a fact of life than if his mother is the exception among those he knows.

In the traditional Khasi society, women had the roles of mothers, housekeepers, custodians of family property, helpers in the fields and betel-nut groves. At the naming of a baby girl, the symbols for the roles she will play are the "Khoh" (sling-basket) and "Star" (rope to carry the basket). Men were the warriors and protectors, the tillers of the soil and hunters, administrators, priests etc. This is symbolised by the bow and arrow placed on a white cloth at the naming ceremony of a baby boy.

According to Keith Kantlie (1934)

"descent is reckoned from the mother alone. The children belong to the clan of the mother, not to that of the father. The child is the heir of its mother whoever may be the father. In case of divorce the children always remain in the custody of the women. There is no obligation upon the mother to divide her property in equal shares among her daughters. Ka Khad-duh, (the youngest daughter) who is given the largest share on account of religious and family duties, takes as custodian. The son belongs to the mother, and the mother to her mother, back to the common ancestress of the clan. The mother and sisters of the male bring him up from childhood to manhood. He works in the family for his mother and his sisters. He has no earnings apart from them. The son has no status with regard to property apart from his own mother in the first place and apart from the mother of his children in the second place."

Majumdar & Ray (1984, pp. 20-22) summarize the position of Khasi women. Khasi community is matrilineal and the position of Khasi women in the family is different from other women in patriarchal families. Since women in Khasi society inherit property, it is natural that they enjoy an important status in the society. The home is in the hand of the women. In the family the mother is regarded as the custodian of family rites and religious performances and on her is devolved the task of keeping the family property which cannot be disposed without the consent of the senior male members. The mother's residential house is inherited by the youngest daughter. All property which has been acquired by a man before his marriage is considered to belong to his mother and the wife and children would inherit the post marriage acquired property, the youngest daughter obtaining the largest share of such property on the death of her mother. In a Khasi family a grandmother occupies a very high position as she is considered as the root of the family, which is composed of grandmother, her daughters and their children. The membership of the family (Ka iing) is determined through the mother. According to Chie Nakane (1967), the central core of the iing comprises two persons, one holding the authority and the other owning property, the rule of succession very strictly matrilineal. The authority goes from mother's brother to sister's son, while the property is handed down from mother to youngest daughter.





Helen Giri (1985, pp.163-167) points at the position of Khasi children and says that though the line of descent is taken from the mother, though she is expected to train and mould her children in accordance with Khasi norms and ways of life, yet the father is the pivot round which the whole family revolves. The father stands in two worlds, as father to his children and uncle to his nieces and nephews. In Khasi community the children are looked upon with love and respect right from the time when the mother conceives the child.

As the position of Khasi women and children is different from the women and children from patriarchal families, it is interesting to study the personality development of children of working and nonworking mothers. According to census of 1961, there are 59.4 million women in the labour force in India. As the Khasi women have no inhibition for any kind of occupation, their participation in the labour market is large.

**1.01: Female literacy and participation rate in India and Meghalaya - 1971-'81 census (Sethi, 1984)**

	% female literacy		% female participation	
	1971	1981	1971	1981
India	12.92	17.99	18.84	23.16
Meghalaya	18.59	23.64	40.22	44.98

Since most of the Khasi women work outside the home a major question has been the effect of the working wife/mother on her child's development.

#### IMPORTANCE OF THE STUDY

Scientific and technological progress all over the world has accelerated the progress of change in the position of women in India also. Women's educational levels and work skills increased during this period making women more valuable as employees. The growth of demand for all types of labour as the economy expanded and the particularly rapid growth of employment in many traditionally female occupations increased the labour force participation of women.

The need for extra income for the family, coupled with the demand for labour from the industry was the greatest incentive for the female worker. As the number of women in the labour force increased establishment of nuclear families also increased. This initiated corresponding changes in the interpersonal relations among its members and also women had more freedom than in the traditional family. The presence of increased educational opportunities enabled the mothers to keep their children away from the family at an earlier age than was hitherto possible and the availability of many gadgets which made household work light and less time consuming gave the mother more leisure which could be gainfully used.

As a result of outside work women were economically independent, derived more personal satisfaction, had a much fuller and meaningful life with wider area of social interaction which enabled them to develop a more balanced personality than that of the traditional housewife.

On the other hand, in communities in which maternal employment is uncommon, society's disapproval make working mothers feel guilty, tired and dissatisfied. To find out the possibilities, both benefits and difficulties that modern families face, is important to investigate the full range of potential effects of maternal employment on children's development. Most of the previous studies were based on the working women's problems with special reference to home life. Some of the experimenters found out physical or intellectual development of children of working mothers. It is important to study the social aspect of personality development of children of working mothers in this situation. Particularly such studies have not been conducted in India, though a few attempts have been made in the western countries. So this study might enable the working women and teachers to know the differences of personality development in children with reference to home environment.

#### **SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES**

The study has been undertaken with the following specific objectives:

1. To compare the social aspect of personality of the Khasi working mother's children with Khasi nonworking mothers' children.
2. To compare the responses of the Khasi working mothers with the Khasi nonworking mothers in relation to their family and children.
3. To compare the social aspect of personality of children and the responses of working and nonworking mothers in relation to sex of their children.
4. To compare the social aspect of personality of children and the responses of working and nonworking mothers in relation to their family type.
5. To compare the social aspect of personality of children and the responses of working and nonworking mothers in relation to their age and their children's age.
6. To compare the social aspect of personality of children and the responses of working and nonworking mothers in relation to their family SES.
7. To compare the social aspect of personality of children and the responses of working and nonworking mothers in relation to size of the family and their children's ordinal position.

#### **HYPOTHESES**

1. No significant differences would be identified with regard to the eight personality factors between the children of working and nonworking mothers.

2. No significant differences would be identified with regard to the eight personality factors between male and female children of working and nonworking mothers.
3. No significant differences would be identified with regard to the eight personality factors between the children of working and nonworking mothers belonging to two different family structures.
4. No significant differences would be identified with regard to the eight personality factors between the children of working and nonworking mothers belonging to three different age groups.
5. No significant differences would be identified with regard to the eight personality factors between the three age groups of children of working and nonworking mothers.
6. No significant differences would be identified with regard to the eight personality factors between the children of working and nonworking mothers belonging to different SES groups.
7. No significant differences would be identified with regard to the eight personality factors between the working and nonworking mothers' children grouped according to ordinal position.
8. No significant differences would be identified with regard to the eight personality factors between the working and nonworking mothers' children grouped according to number of children in the family.

**DELIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY**

1. The study is limited to mothers of only school going Khasi children from 4 to 10 years.
2. The study is limited to Khasis in and around Shillong.
3. It is also limited to only social aspect of personality development of the children.

## REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

The importance of the way parents care for their children has never been more thoroughly researched or more convincingly expounded than it is in the past two decades. It is certainly much harder to be a parent today, because the present day parents know more about the job than parents of the past, and therefore try self-consciously to do it well. ——— —

Family influence on personality is greatest when the major part of one's time is spent in the home and with members of the family. According to Groves and Groves (1947) "not only is the family's influence fundamental in contributing the growth of the individual personality, it is also inevitable, since the child's physical survival depends upon the protective function of the family. In the process of meeting, this responsibility of child nurture, the family also takes over to some degree what Bernard (1966, pp.421-448) has so carefully classified as the affectional and the socializing functions. "Even where no deliberate attempts have been made to give the child anything besides the care needed for his physical welfare, in the doing of this, the parental service becomes an influence which stimulates the development of the child's personality."

"In the small modern family aided by social provisions

of all kinds, children never before had such opportunities for enjoying physical and mental health, and for a full development of all their talents. Further more the evidence suggests that most parents are very concerned to see that their children enjoy these benefits to the full. The findings of Gorer(1954) and of Young and Willmott (1956 ) show that the duties of parenthood appear both to be enjoyed and to be taken very seriously and responsibly. The studies show that majority of the British people at the present time and many others share this view" (Maccoby, p.149, 1961). As Bowlby (quoted by Michael, Rutter, 1972) said that "..... mother's love in infancy and childhood is as important for mental health as are vitamins and proteins for physical health". According to Caldwell (1972, p.163) "the optimal environment for the young child is cared for in his own home in the context of a warm, continuous emotional relationship with his own mother under conditions of varied sensory input".

Children's development is enhanced by maternal behaviour that is both stimulating and accepting (Baldwin et al 1945, Bawmrind 1971 a, Baumrind and Black 1967, Bayley 1965, Bayley and Schaefer 1964, Bishop and Chace 1971, Bresnahan and Blum 1971, Bronfenbrenner 1974, Costello and Martin 1971, Costallo and Peyton 1973, Hess and Shipman 1967).

— . Studies such as those by Escalona—(1972) and B. White (1972) within the United States and those by Candill and Weinstein



(1969) in Japan and the United States are examples of a host of literature that supports the idea that the parent-child interaction pattern has measurable effects on the cognitive and social behaviour of the young child.

The Ministry of Labour, Government of India (1964) has pointed out that whatsoever the stage of economic or social development of a country, four factors prevail which lead women to join the labour force. They are (a) the inadequate income of the principal earner which forces a woman to work and supplement the income; (b) mishaps, such as incapacity of the bread winner; (c) death of the bread-winner; and (d) a woman's desire for economic independence or for securing higher standard of living. There is also the desire on the part of the women to give expression to their own talents and skills.

Yudkin and Holme (1969, p.106) quoting De Alcamí (1965, p.43) says that maternal employment has been seen in Spain as a possible way of increasing women's emotional and social maturity and to help to change the overtly matriarchal society in that country.

Increasingly, women are taking up jobs which take them away from their households for varying periods of the day. Many of them work only before marriage, or only during the first few years of marriage before children are born, withdrawing from the jobs during the period when their young children need

closest care and returning to work when their children are grown. But most of them continue their work during the child-rearing years also. The present research was undertaken with such group of mothers and their children to see the positive and negative effects.

#### **EFFECTS OF MOTHERS' WORK OUTSIDE ON THE DEVELOPMENT OF CHILDREN**

The results of studies on maternal employment suggest that it does not always have detrimental effects on children, infact, in many studies positive consequences have been found.

A psychologist, Lois W. Hoffman, and a sociologist F. Ivan Nye (1974), have made a survey of the research dealing with working mothers. They conclude that the working mother who obtains personal satisfaction from employment, who does not feel excessive guilt, and who has made adequate household arrangements is likely to perform as well as or better than the nonworking mother. Hoffman and Nye also find that the working mother provides a somewhat different role model for her children from that of the nonworking mother. Consequently, maternal employment tends to be associated with less traditional sex role concepts, more approval of working mothers and a higher evaluation of female competence (Zanden, 1978, p.359).

Research carried out in Great Britain, the United States and France has established that the performance of children, whose mothers work, is generally better at school than children

whose mothers stay at home (Sullerot, 1971, p.89). Even the findings of a seminar conducted by Dharmayug (1968) on the working mothers in India indicate that children of working mothers are more self-confident and self-reliant than those of non-working mothers.

Flora F. Cherry and Ethel L. Eaton (1977) conducted a study on physical and cognitive development in children of low income mothers working in the child's early years. Children of 200 low income families were studied as to possible deleterious outcomes due to maternal employment in the child's first 3 years of life. In an 8 year follow up, children of workers and nonworkers were compared as to weights and measures, IQ, reading, arithmetic and spelling achievement and ITPA. Children of workers performed as well as nonworkers. Association with maternal age, education, parity, subsequent fertility, per capita income, crowding index, household size, adult/child ratio and presence of the husband were also examined as to maternal work status and the outcome variables. When controlled for maternal variables, 30 differences in outcomes were found, 27 of which favoured children of workers. This study indicated there are certain advantages to children and families with limitation of procreation.

Changes in the partnership and family structure as a result of women in the work force were examined in a descriptive research project involving 200 women. Children were described

as more independent, self-assured, and capable of handling a variety of experiences as a consequence of their mothers' work. (Aswell, Kathleen M. Sancer, 1982, p.195).

The employment of the mother does not seem to hinder the child's school achievement, if the family is stable, it may even enhance it (Clarke, 1977, p.47).

Eagle (1964, p.57) conducted a study in four rural villages in Guatamala which examined the effects of maternal employment on child survival, controlling for the quality of alternative child care, the mothers level of education, the mothers overall fertility, and the family's income level. The results of her study showed an independent positive relationship between maternal employment and child survival, which suggests that the benefits of the work experience for child development outweigh its disadvantages.

Research on school age children of working mothers shows that, all other things being equal, there are two advantages when mothers work. In their case, the children are more likely to take responsibility for themselves and for household chores, and they are more likely to have a positive image of women and women's abilities, which can foster higher educational and vocational aspirations in these women's daughters. (Clarke-Stewart, Koch, 1983, p.345).

The Rapaports survey (quoted by Hann 1976, p.38) of dual-career families highlighted several advantages for children. The parents were forced by their heavy commitments to plan time with their children very carefully, so they used it well, and developed close relationships. Parents claimed that their children became independent and resourceful because helping with family work made them feel competent and useful. Some of the children definitely felt a sense of special merit because of their mothers work.

Occasional separation between mother and child are not necessarily harmful, and that, under certain conditions, they may be beneficial (Moore, 1964, quoted by Krech, Crutchfield, Livson and Krech, 1976, p.348).

Women who have been educated to expect a career can easily become depressed when they are at home all day with young children. In these cases it is better for children, if their mothers work and return home happy, because the quality of the care given to children is more important than the quantity. Although their lives become more complicated by having to deal with family and job, they seem younger in mind and body, and their children can benefit. Studies in Czechoslovakia show that children staying at home with frustrated mothers tend to have a more disturbed relationship with their parents than children who spend long days in nursery schools while their mothers work (Hann, 1976, p.34).

The official attitude in Eastern Europe is that women involved in satisfying work are better people and better mothers, who develop a deeper understanding of adolescent children (Hann, 1976, p.36).

The example of serious interest in outside work on the mother's part makes both her sons and her daughters value such work more highly. High achievement motivation in children is often associated with the early application of parental pressure for independence. If mothers who work take special pains to train their children to do things by themselves, instead of relying upon others to help them, then one may expect that the children of working mothers would be especially self-reliant and oriented toward achievement (Maccoby, 1961, p.526).

Roy's (1964, p.151) conclusions show beneficial effects in rural families owing to maternal employment. There is less delinquency, more affection, more fairness of discipline, more democracy and more cooperation in such families.

Goswami's results (1986) on the study of achievement related motivation in secondary school pupils of working and nonworking mothers in Shillong, were in favour of working mothers' children, especially the boys.

Not that all researches on the subject show that mothers' work outside the home is necessarily beneficial to childdevelopment in such families. For instance Anne Locksley mentioned Byrne

(1977) and Molinoff (1977) who have suggested that the rising divorce, illegitimacy and juvenile crime rates may be a function of wives increasing employment outside the home (Anne Locksley, 1980, p.337).

Bowlby's study (1952, p.46) on maternal care and mental health claims that "the prolonged deprivation of the young child of maternal care may have grave and far reaching effects on his character and so, on the whole, on his future life". One of the more specific hypothesis emerging from his general proposition is that one of the adverse effects of maternal deprivation is a delinquent character-development.

Pawar (1959) worked on "Problems of married women teachers in Baroda High Schools with special reference to family and child care." In this study major aspects of the lives of the teachers, in relation to the above subject were studied and classified. It involved information about personal, social, religious and family life. In the group studied 78.12% of the teachers came from unitary type of family, while only 21.88% came from joint families. Children experienced that their mothers hardly spared any time to hear about them or to hear from them. They face these frustrations and sometimes they show it off in their behaviour or activities. All the mothers expressed that when they educate the children of other people they are unable to educate their own and they feel very guilty about it. Pawar says that children till 5 years of age need the mother most.

Ved R.G. (1960) had carried out a research on home life of women workers of textile industry. Age of these mothers was between 25 and 45 years. Majority of women were literate. She found that child care and education suffer because of mother's job. She says that there are all possibilities of creating atmosphere for delinquent children.

Desai, A.S. & S.R. Oke undertook a study on the effects of employment on the children of married women in domestic service in 1957. They found that children of working mothers hardly ate any meals at all without their mothers. These children were uninterested in recreation, and planned recreation was not present in most areas. Sleep of these children was also much below the usual hours required and they were often ill. Majority of the children were either indifferent or just tolerate their mothers' employment.

Nanda P. Manocha, M.K. (1977) carried out a comparative study of the social behaviour of nine year old children of working and nonworking mothers. Social behaviour and seven other social traits viz: cooperation, competition, sympathy, aggression, negativism, ascendent behaviour and social approval were studied in case of nine year old children of working and nonworking mothers, studying in the schools of Chandigarh. Employment of the mothers influenced the children and they became less cooperative, sympathetic and showed indifferent social behaviour.



Jayalakshmi S. undertook a study in Madras in 1960, on working mothers and their children. The results of her study show that in withdrawing tendencies and aggressive symptoms there is no difference in the two groups. But the children of the working mothers showed a significantly higher degree of maladjustment symptoms, thus indicating a rather injurious influence of mothers going to work on the personality of the child.

Rajalakshmi also undertook a study in Madras in 1961, on the same lines. Her topic was behaviour problems of children — Pre school and early school age. She found behaviour problems more in working mothers children than in nonworking mothers children. In her opinion working mother in most cases cannot pay undivided attention to her children and she cannot be at home when the child comes back from school or perhaps even when he leaves in the morning. Often she was tired after the day's work and was perhaps not in a fit shape to listen to — her child's prattle. She got less time both to help and to supervise her children. This loss of direct control affects the training procedures and is likely to lead to deviant behaviour in their children.

According to Rajalakshmi, when role patterns were changed between husband and wife, confusion results and this confusion was usually accompanied by conflict and tension at home. This tense and unhealthy home atmosphere contributes to the development

of problem behaviour in children. Moreover, the mother herself may develop anxiety and guilt feelings since traditional role expectations are internalized to a degree. An anxious or guilty mother is no match for a growing child, it is likely that she either over indulges him to compensate for the guilt feelings or rejects or ignores him totally due to the feelings, that he is the source of all her troubles. Over indulgence or rejection on the parental side can often lead to behaviour difficulties in children.

Vasanth Kumar (1964, p.13) on "India's working women" says that a mother who must both work and run a home may be too emotionally enervated to give the child all the affection and attention they need and children may feel rejected if parental guidance is not available when it is needed. During the age period from 6 to 12 years the quantity and quality of the home's contribution to a child's education depends primarily on two things, what the home has to offer and how the members of the household deal with the growing child.

Hoffman and Nye (James W. Vander Zanden, 1978) also found that mothers who are not working and would like to, and working mothers whose lives are beset by harassment and strain, are the ones whose children are most likely to show maladjustment and behavioural problems.

Society and people are in general prejudiced against

the employment of a mother with young children. It is argued that the long absence of mother from home hampers the development of child's personality and can lead to juvenile delinquency. But Kapur (1974, p.113) quoting the following says that 25 separate studies of employed mothers in the United States compiled together by Nye and Hoffman (1963), the European study of children of working mothers by Ferguson and Cunnison (1951), Scott's study in Glasgow University (1965), Fraser's study in Aberdeen, and in India Kapur's study of married working women (1970), the findings of Ranade and Ramachandran (1970), Barot (1972), Srivastava (1972), Dhingra (1972), and a few surveys conducted by various magazines by asking the employed mothers what they felt about the influence of their working on their children (Dharmayug, 1968) and also by asking the children of various ages having mothers working in a variety of occupations and professions, as to what they felt about their mothers employment (Eve's Weekly, 1973, pp.34-51), they all go to prove that mother's employment as such appears to be of no importance as an influence on the lives of children and does not affect their personality development, adjustment and physical and mental health adversely. It has also been indicated by the studies mentioned above, that it is not the quantity of time spent by the mother with the children but the quality and manner of spending the available time that matters and is of importance to the children..

The research shows that there are no differences on the average between children of mothers who work outside the home and children of mothers who do not work outside the home. Thus, the percentage of well adjusted, 'normal' children among working mothers is the same as among mothers staying at home. This means that the mother's outside employment is not a factor that relates in most cases to the child's adjustment. The important point is that the chances of the mother's working having a negative effect are no greater than the chances of the mother's staying at home having a negative effect (Kimball, 1978, p.227).

No consistent differences between preschool children of working and nonworking mothers have been found, however, when potentially confounding variables (such as socio-economic status, mother's age, child's age, mother's attitude toward working, stability of the home, presence of the father, and alternate childcare arrangements) have been controlled. (Alison Clarke-Stewart, 1977, p.34).

Reviews of studies on the role of maternal employment on psychopathology of the child are available by Hoffman (1963), by Siegal and Haas (1963), and by Stolz (1960). The studies cited provide evidence that maternal employment by itself is not related to personality disturbances (Lazarus, 1961, p.459).

Milten Senn (quoted by John A. Rose, 1959, pp.213-215) in his recent survey of child rearing problems of working mothers

in Russia concluded that there need to be no intrinsic conflict in the roles of mothers and working women since he found no destructive effects among the children involved. Dr. Alice Stewart, Reader in Social Medicine, Oxford, told the Health conference at Harrogate that there was very little evidence to suggest that children who attended day nurseries and who went home in the evening came to any harm because of mother's absence, as day nurseries provided sufficient care.

Basing his conclusions on the evidence from research studies, Stoltz (1960, p.779) also observes that the fact of the mothers being employed or staying at home is not as important a factor in influencing the behaviour of the child as it was generally thought to be.

Sally Wendkos Olds in the Annual Editions of "Human Development" 84/85 refers the following studies:

"As social scientists delve more deeply into the effects on children of their mothers working, their findings are turning out to be quite different from long accepted beliefs....."

"In 1973, Harvard University pediatrician Dr. Mary C. Howell surveyed the voluminous literature on children of working mothers. After studying nearly 300 studies involving thousands of youngsters, she concluded: "almost every childhood behaviour characteristic, and its opposite, can be found among the children of employed mothers. Put another way, there are almost no con-

stant differences found between the children of employed and nonemployed mothers".

She also refers to a study by Harvard psychologist Jerome Kagan and two researchers from the Tufts New England Medical Center, Phillip Zelazo and Richard Kearsley, who zeroed in on the possible effects of day care on the emotional and developmental progress of infants whose mothers worked, as compared to children raised by their mothers at home. As the yardstick for his evaluation, Kagan used three characteristics considered "most desirable" by parents: intellectual growth, social development and ability to achieve a close relationship with the mother. Provided the center was well staffed and well equipped, Kagan and his colleagues were unable to find any significant differences between the two groups of children.

Yudkin and Holme (1969, p.99) quote Cartwright and Jeffereys study which showed no differences in general in matters such as self-confidence, cooperativeness, perseverance, sociability and conscientiousness though there were slight differences between certain groups, mostly in favour of the children of workers. Certain negative characteristics like nervousness, apathy, withdrawal, exhibitionism, resentfulness, spitefulness, were also not more frequent amongst the children of working mothers than amongst the children of those who were not working.

The literature on the results of maternal employment

- though- conflicting in its conclusions, frequently suggests that it is not so much the employment in itself that causes the damage but the other factors which are related to employment. It is still widely assumed that damage to child development is the inevitable result when the mother is employed. However, when scrutinized under research microscope shows that there is no simple cause effect relationship between the two factors of maternal employment and developmental damage. Class position, the type of work, the age and sex of children, ordinal position, number of children in the family, rural-urban residence, attitude of the parents, substitute care provided, type of family and other variables have been shown to interact in complex ways in the final result.

Kimball (1978, p.228) says "looking back, it seems that whether a mother took outside employment or not was too gross a variable to relate in any simple casual way to the development of the child. One must consider not only whether a mother takes outside employment or not, but also her reasons for working, the age and sex of her children and the social class of the family as well as many other aspects of the family and work situation which will influence the relationship between a mother's outside employment and her child's mental and social development.

Dr. Maccoby, (1961, pp. 521, 522) a social psychologist examined the effects upon children of their mothers' outside employment. Although she does not doubt that the fact of the

mother working outside the home has some impact upon the child's personality, Dr. Maccoby concludes that this characteristic of a family's adaptive patterns interacts with many other elements of family structure in the production of personality qualities. According to her a mother's working is only one of the very many factors bearing upon a child's development. It may even be a minor one, when viewed as part of a constellation which includes such other factors as the child's inherited intellectual and physical capacities, his parents emotional stability, the number and characteristics of other children in the family, whether he is being raised in a city or on a farm, and whether he grows up in an extended or isolated nuclear family.

Hoffman's (1970, pp.211-217) study illustrates the complexity of the problem and the need to get beyond "working" as the major variable to be analysed. The sample included 176 white, intact families with at least one child in the third through sixth grades of 3 elementary schools in Detroit. There were 88 working mother families and 88 nonworking mother families matched on occupation of father, sex of child and ordinal position, including the important status of being an only child. Except for sex of child, all matched variables were selected because they were known to be related to maternal employment, (Hoffman, 1960) and because it was believed they might be related to the dependent variables. Pairs of families were matched by sex of child so that it might be possible to examine the relationship between maternal employment and the dependent variables



separately for boys and girls. All statistical comparisons are between working and nonworking populations and with a few exceptions all comparisons are for matched pairs. The data reported here are based on questionnaires filled out by the children, interviews with the mother, teacher ratings and a classroom sociometric. The overall pattern of findings suggest that the working mother who likes working is relatively high on positive affect toward the child, uses mild discipline, and tends to avoid inconveniencing the child with household tasks; the child is relatively nonassertive and ineffective. The working mother who dislikes working, on the other hand, seems less involved with the child altogether and obtains the child's help with tasks, the child is assertive and hostile.

Shahane D.G. (1959) conducted a survey on married women teachers in municipal primary schools of Baroda as regards the effect of their profession on their family life. 40 teachers were taken in the study out of the total universe of 108. It has been found that the effects due to employment did not show the uniform results in all the cases. They showed fluctuations to a remarkable degree because of the factors such as religion, caste, number of children and their ages, number of elder members in the family, number of servants employed, the location of the school from home, the attitudes of teachers towards her own employment, the attitude of the husband and so on.

The different factors which were reviewed in this chapter are

sex of the child, substitute care, number of children in the family, ordinal position of the child, SES of the family, child's age, family type, and mother's age.

According to Hurlock (1983, p.354) "because girls and women spend more time in the home and with family than do boys and men, there is a sex difference in the effect family relationships have on personality." Most cultures expect males and females to exhibit different behaviours and to assume different roles in society.

According to Baughman (1971 , p.217), "most families, moreover, deliberately train a child in behaviour which they consider appropriate to his sex role. Harry Levin and Barbara Fleischmann, writing on childhood socialization, summarize this situation as follows — the child learns to behave in ways appropriate to his sex because he is encouraged to do so. Parents have different expectancies for boys and girls, they treat them differently and expect different behaviour from them."

Watson and Lindgren (1973, p.307) quoting the works on this subject say "American behavioural scientists for a number of years tended to explain sex differences in children's behaviour in terms of environmental variables..... Some data by the Early School Admissions Project in Baltimore shows how mothers of girls and mothers of boys not only have different

perceptions of the behaviour of their children, but also tend to become involved in different ways in the life of their community."

Parsons (1955) and D'Andrade, R.G. (1966) also had the same opinion. Depending on the expectancies of the parents, boys and girls showed different behaviours. Saran's (1973) results showed that girls are found to have better social adjustment and individual development than boys. According to Crandall and Rabson (1960) and Emmerich. W, (1966) "during early childhood, manifestations of dependency are more frequent and more intense among girls than among boys." Kagan & Moss (1960, 1962) also say that dependent behaviour is more stable for girls than for boys, in contrast to aggressive behaviour, from the age of 3 to the age of 14.

"During the preschool years boys express more aggression than girls both in play and fantasy" (Maccoby, E.E., 1966).

Bayley (1964) studied relationships between maternal behaviour patterns and childrens personal-social manifestations of Berkeley Growth study subjects (Institute\_of human\_development, University of California at Berkeley). He found that girls are more self-sufficient and somewhat less affected by maternal behaviour than boys are. Bayley's findings were also consistent with some research done by Kagan and Freeman (1963).

During the first 10 years of life, educational results

for boys are poorer, and they tend to have more emotional and behaviour problems than girls. Several reasons have been suggested, genetic and environmental. J.M. Tanner (1974) showed that girls are born with slightly more mature skeletal and nervous systems and gradually increase their developmental lead throughout childhood. (Judith Hann, 1976, p.22).

According to Alvarez, (1985, pp.350-360) "Recent reviews of the available evidence call attention to a recurrent pattern indicating that mothers' involvement outside the home tends to have a salutary effect on girls. For boys, the pattern suggests that mothers' working outside the home is associated with lower academic achievement for sons in middle class but not in low income families (Bronfenbrenner and Crouter, 1982, Hoffman, 1983). Fulltime maternal employment may compound the under-socialization of sons (Bronfenbrenner, 1961). It appears that maternal employment increases the independence training of daughters via the ideological stance of higher educated, career oriented mothers. Sons fared better than daughters when maternal employment was purely a matter of personal preference. Daughters are generally less susceptible to environmental disruption (Elder, 1974, Hetherington, 1979) than sons and benefit more from the ideological stance of more highly educated career-oriented mothers".

Dolores Gold and David Andres (1978) studied the develop-

mental comparisons between ten year old children with employed and nonemployed mothers. This study tested hypothesis specifying differential relations between maternal employment and children's development, dependent on the sex of the child and socio-economic class of the family. An examination was made of the sex role concepts, personality adjustment and academic achievement of 223, 10 year old girls and boys with either fulltime employed or nonemployed mothers from working class or middle class families. The data provided some support for the hypothesis, children with employed mothers had the most egalitarian sex role concepts. Maternal employment status was partly related to the adjustment of children. Middle class boys with employed mothers had lower scores on language and mathematics achievement tests than the other middle class children.

Gilroy Faith D, Talierco, Teresa. H. and Steinbacher, Roberta studied the impact of maternal employment on daughters' sex role orientation and fear of success. They hypothesized that daughters of working mothers would demonstrate greater endrogyny and less fear of success than the daughters of non-working mothers. Results support the hypothesis. It is suggested that the modeling of a broad spectrum of sex role behaviours by the employed mothers was positively reflected in the daughters' self concept and mothers who work were influencing their daughters to achieve greater personal satisfaction and productivity.

Rollins, Judy and White, Priscilla N. (1982, pp.1141-

1150) investigated whether significant relationships existed between 100 mothers and daughters (10-14 years old) regarding sex role attitudes and self-concepts. Three types of families were sampled, those where the mother was a fulltime homemaker, those where she was employed because of economic necessity and those where she was employed for personal and professional fulfilment. Results indicate significant relationships between mothers' and daughters' attitudes toward marriage, children and careers, but not self-concepts. Differences were also found between the three groups of mothers and daughters. Mothers who were involved in careers that were personally salient differed from mothers who were employed because of economic necessity and mothers who were fulltime homemakers.

Dr Maccoby (1961, p.526) writing on the effects upon children of their mothers' outside employment says that there is always a possibility of a mother's working having an opposite effect, especially upon boys. If a woman's working makes her dominant, then possibly her son will be in conflict about the acceptability of maleness and will find it difficult to succeed in the male world he must enter in adulthood. But quite evidently, there are many instances in which a husband approves and encourages his wife's working and does not feel that his masculinity is threatened by it. In such cases, the son's development should not be hampered.

But Douvan and Adelson (1966) report little relation between a mother's employment and her adolescent son's activities and psychological characteristics. Daughters of working mothers were more likely to share home responsibilities and participated in fewer leisure activities. Adolescent daughters of working mothers tend to admire and respect their mothers more than do the daughters of nonworking mothers.

According to Kimball (1978, p.226) daughters seemed to benefit more than boys from their mothers being employed. The girls admired their mothers and were more independent and aggressive. Boys were less self-reliant and less sociable. Kimball refers Hoffman (1963) in this context.-- Hoffman says that daughters of paid mothers seem most clearly to benefit from their mothers' outside employment. With younger children some interesting but very tentative sex differences appear. Hoffman warns that most of these differences are rather small. However they are consistent across several studies. If we compare girls of mothers who work outside the home with girls of mothers who are at home, the girls whose mothers are employed "appear to be more aggressive, dominant, disobedient, and independent". On the other hand, comparing boys of mothers who work outside the home with boys whose mothers are at home, we find the boys of working mothers "appear to be generally more dependent, they are more obedient, less self-reliant, less sociable and more likely to seek succourance from adults." These differences

have been interpreted to mean that the mother's working outside the home may have an advantageous effect on her daughter but a negative effect on her son. Perhaps the boy feels the mother's absence more, or perhaps the girl feels the absence as much but the more exciting role model her mother provides makes up for the absence.

Nanda P. Manocha, M.K. (1977) studied the social behaviour of nine year old children of working and nonworking mothers. Her results showed that the indifferent social behaviour exhibited by working mother's children was more drastic in case of the male children as compared to the change in girls.

According to the Modern Encyclopedia of Baby and Child care (1966), "Practically all studies of working mothers indicate that the ultimate effect of their work upon the development of their children depends to a large extent upon the arrangements made for the children's care during their absence. Some experts feel that it is advisable for small children to have the same 'mother substitute' over a long period. Others believe that a succession of people, or a group, can be just as beneficial for the child as long as they are not only competent and loving, but also able to impose limits on the child's behaviour that are congenial with the family's standards. Usually individual care is preferable before the age of 3 years. Later group care is generally better. When a child starts school, it is equally important that specific arrangements be made for his supervision



during the hours preceding the return of his parents."

Alison Clarke-Stewart (1977, p.34) says that stable, stimulating substitute care is minimally essential for the child's psychological well being. The supervision of the child while the mother is working is also relevant-particularly to the child's intellectual development. Unsupervised children tend to experience much greater cognitive impoverishment than those who are supervised, (Banducci, 1967; Etaugh, 1974; Hess, 1969; Hieronymus, 1951; Hoffman, 1961; Nye and Hoffman, 1963).

According to Yudkin and Holme (1957, p.68) "when the mother was a capable woman and able to make satisfactory arrangements for the care of her children when she was not at home the children did not appear to suffer".

According to Maccoby (1961, p.522) "one of the most interesting features of the Glueck's findings concerns the importance of the kind of supervision a mother arranges for her children in her absence if she does work. It can be seen from the Glueck's article 'working mothers and delinquency', the quality of the supervision her child receives is paramount. If the mother remains at home but does not keep track of where her child is and what he is doing, he is far more likely to become a delinquent than if he is closely watched".

She also discusses about the importance of substitute care saying that if nurturant caretaking is divided between

two people — the mother during the evenings, weekends and early mornings and a substitute during the day, for ex. then discipline should be similarly divided. It would appear to be unwise for the mother to try to 'make up' to the child for — her absence by being exclusively nurturant while she is with him, to the point of not exercising control and discipline. Equally unwise would be a policy of delegating to her substitute only caretaking but not disciplinary functions. In case of delinquency, as has been seen, it is often found that the mother has not arranged for such care, so that after school hours the child roams the neighbourhood unchecked until his mother comes home from work. It is obvious that under these conditions the risk is very great that the child will not learn the behaviour society demands of him. The adequacy of the substitute caretaker depends in part, not on the amount of control she exercises nor on how she does it, but on how similar her reactions are to those of the mother when she is at home.

Cynthia Epstein (1971) expresses the view that although grandparents may act as surrogate parents, this is only an informal pattern and not the normative one. The advantages of these cases is that the mother is not jealous of the child's love for its grandmother and the grandmother being an affectionate and loyal member of the family will usually take care of the child well and not expose it to bad manners.

Hann (1976, p.42), Jersild, Telford and Sawrey (1975, p.222)

also stress the importance of substitute care for the child.

According to Hurlock (1978, p.504) "If the mother starts working after strong attachments have been formed with the child, the child will suffer from maternal deprivation unless a satisfactory mother substitute is provided — a substitute whom the child likes and whose methods of child training will not cause confusion or resentment on the child's part."

Krech, Crutchfield, Livson and Krech (1976, p.348) also say that stable substitute care, whether by relatives or others, resulted in greater self-confidence. However, when the child's separation from the mother involved frequently changing arrangements made substitute care, insecurity, anxiety and dependence were common results.

According to Munsinger (1971, p.301) the type of substitute care provided for the child affects the results. In lower class homes this substitute care is often haphazard. Children may be left with a neighbour or someone who may be responsible for many children in the neighbourhood. Often older children are free to roam the streets by themselves. The success of any arrangement depends on the attitude of the caretaker. If the substitute mother provides security and comfort to the child, it may sometimes be desirable to separate mother and child.

A study was conducted by Shenoy (1973) on the aspects

of the changing structure of the family of the industrial working woman including her adjustment pattern to her household in Madras city. Her results show that unless suitable and satisfactory arrangements are made for taking care of children at home, the working women are found to be worried, even during their work, about possible lack of care and neglect of their children's needs. The smaller percentage of respondents feeling guilty about neglecting children show that satisfactory arrangements have been made in the majority of cases for the proper care of the children.

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Children's development seems to be related to the size and composition of the family and the individual child's development to his or her place in the family structure. Both direct influences of siblings on each other and indirect effects of number and order of children on parental behaviour have been suggested to account for the complex relations observed (Bosson and Boll, 1966; Brim, 1958; Clausen, 1966; Fauls and Smith, 1956; Freeberg and Payne, 1957). Clarke (1977, p.65) says that the effects of parents behaviour on children's development is complicated by the presence of number of siblings in the home.

According to Hurlock (1978, p.499 and 1983, p.365) the size of the family influences the personality pattern both directly and indirectly. She says that the lack of adequate supervision and guidance, especially when the mother must work

to help meet family needs, leads to undisciplined behaviour in school, antisocial behaviour outside of school and personality maladjustments. The problem is greater for children from large families than for those from smaller families. While discussing about the other studies she says that more recent studies agree that the only child develops a distinctive personality pattern. He shows maturity of behaviour especially control over the emotions. He has selfish and selfcentered personality characteristics that militate against good social adjustments outside the home. He tends to lack self confidence.

Hurlock gives the advantages of a small and medium sized family. She says that a child in a small family has self confidence and self assurance and eliminates the feelings of inadequacy. He competes as well as cooperates. The personality pattern moulded by a small family environment will favour better personal and social adjustments. The child from a medium sized family has also good social adjustments outside the home. He cooperates and develops a personality pattern that will lead to good social and personal adjustments. She concludes saying that it is generally agreed by sociologists who have made extensive studies of the effects of family size that, all things considered, the medium sized family — especially that with three or four children is probably the best from the point of view of healthy family relationships, and the large family is probably the worst.

Lieberman (1973, p.70) discussing on small families says that behavioural scientists have found that a child's emotional health is strongly affected by the number of brothers and sisters he has. Several studies of elementary and high school children have shown that the youngest in a small family gets along more happily with his brothers and sisters as well as with his parents than the youngster in a large family. Lieberman also says that scientists are also finding that the small family child is superior in a number of other ways to his large family counterpart. He is brighter, more creative, bigger and taller, more vigorous and independent.

According to Hetherington and Parke (1975, pp.446,447) "as family size increases, opportunities for extensive contact between the parents and the individual child decrease, but opportunities for a variety of interactions with siblings expand. A parents' attitude toward childrearing and the circumstances under which a child is reared will change as more children are added to the family. With a large number of children, particularly in families with over six children, family roles tend to become more precisely defined, chores are assigned and discipline is more authoritarian and severe (Bossard and Boll, 1960). There is little time for reasoning and extended explanations. More use of hostile, restrictive control by mothers, particularly in relation to daughters, occurs in large families. (Nuttall and Nuttall, 1971). In addition, as family size increases, the mother exhibits not only less attention but less warmth

towards individual children. Frequently older children are assigned the supervisory and disciplinary roles maintained by parents in smaller families. Because the parents in large families cannot interact as closely with their children as those in smaller families, there is less opportunity for over protection, infantilization, constant harassing, or close supervision of children. The results of this relationship are reflected in the greater independence, but lower academic achievement of children from large families.

Maynard (1970, p.170) also says that the child's relationships with other children with whom it shares the home are also of importance in shaping the child's personality. The nature of these relationships is largely determined by sex, age-rank and years between births.

According to Weinberg (1971, pp.126-127) "there is some evidence that suggests that children of large families have more personality problems (Glenn R. Hawkes and Dora Damrin), more school problems, less social mobility and greater participation in voluntary and non-family oriented activities". He also mentions that only children are forced to interact predominantly with adults since siblings do not exist. They are more socialized to the language and knowledge of the adult world than children with siblings.

But Dr. Maccoby (1961, p.533) says that in very large families when the child interacts more with brothers and sisters

than he does with parents, there is no reason to believe that such a relationship is harmful, although it probably produces a different kind of adult personality than an enduring, intense, and exclusive mother-child relationship does.

The child's position in the family is often thought to be important in shaping his personality. Every one has her own experience of being in the particular spot of eldest, middle or youngest, and in a special arrangement of boys and girls or all boys or all girls, or even in being an only child. Smart and Smart (1967 , pp.366.367) referred a cross cultural study of child behaviour who found that in their United States sample the eldest child differed from middle children. Among their subjects in Africa, India, Okinawa, the Philippines and Mexico, the youngest's personality was different. American eldest children were more anxious and sought attention more, non-American youngest children sought attention more.

Researchers like Hetherington and Parke (1975, p.450), Baughman (1965 , p.218), Mussen and Kagan (1974, p.150 ), Craig (1976, p.346), and Elkind, Irving B. Weiner (1978, p.311) said that the first-born children remain more adult-oriented, helpful, self-controlled, conforming, anxious, and less aggressive than their siblings. The parental demands and high standards imposed on firstborns result in eldest children being more studious, conscientious, and serious. These children excel in academic and professional achievement. Emotionally and socially first-borns



show less selfconfidence and social poise and greater fear of failure and guilt than later-borns. They are more apprehensive about pain and are more anxious than laterborns in stressful situations. Middle children have poor achievement and short attention spans and are readily distractible. They tend to be extroverts frequently seeking the companionship and affection of others and are more humorous and pleasure-oriented than their siblings. The last-born child is usually indulged by his parents and siblings and has a variety of sibling models available in addition to the parents. This state of security and sometimes benign neglect results in a set of characteristics which have many of the positive and few of the negative attributes of firstborns.

The study of Lasko (1954, pp.97-107) has revealed that the oldest child is in a position which makes successful adjustment very difficult. His rather high-pitched relationship with his mother steadily lessens in intensity especially when a second child arrives. The second born child is spared much of the parental anxiety, emotional tension and over-protectiveness experienced by the firstborns. As a result, the second born child is usually less dependent than the first.

Some studies suggested the older child to be more conservative and less aggressive and dominant. He is found to be more dependent and more excitable. Due to parental idealism, the older child often suffers from feeling of failure, being

worried and more anxious to escape blame (Aldous and Kill 1956, Bell 1958, Hodges and Balow 1961).

Desai (1975, pp.245-247) summarizing the characteristics of firstborns and secondborns says that the firstborns are less likely to express overtly aggressive feeling, less likely to be sociable, outgoing, highly rated individual, serious, sensitive and sympathetic. The second borns are less concerned with authority, responsibility and absolute power and competitive with peers.

According to Sewell (1964, p.138 ) there is an evidence which indicates a correlation between the position of the child in the stratification system and some aspects of personality. This evidence points that lower class children more commonly exhibit neurotic personality traits than do children of middle class origins. In her description of the child-rearing environments provided by lower-class families, Pavenstedt (1965, pp.89-98) has been described them as impulse determined with very little evidence of clear planfulness for activities that would benefit either parent or child. Similarly, Wortis and associates (1963, pp.298-307) have described the extent to which the problems of the low income mother so overwhelm her with reactions of depression and inadequacy that behaviour toward the child is largely determined by the needs of the moment rather than by any clear plan about how to bring up children and how to train them to engage in the kind of behaviour that the parents regard

as acceptable or desirable.

Stagner (1974 , p.538) quoting other researches says that there are various ways in which social and economic factors affect the personality development of the child. Drucker and Remmers (1952) found that children of lower economic status will experience more frustration and more personality problems. According to Sims (1954) the children from working class families showed substantial handicaps in social adjustment and some handicap in home adjustment. Gough (1946) found that low-status subjects in general receive unfavourable scores on MMPI. They were somewhat more rebellious, and they were inclined to depression and emotional disturbance more than the higher status subjects. Hoffeditz (1934) Mintzer and Sargent (1939) and Patterson (1943) were in agreement that lower class status was associated with the less desirable ends of the scales, poorer subjects had more worries, less self sufficiency, more — introversion and less dominance. Auld (1952b) compared a group of middle class boys studied by Hertz (1942) with nondelinquent working class boys studied by Glueck and Glueck (1950). The typical profiles suggested that the middle class boy is more imaginative and intelligent, is more mature, has better control of his emotions, is more responsive to his environment and has more emotional warmth.

Shapira and Madsen' (1975, p.451) quote the following studies on SES. Mckee Leader (1955) found pre-school children

of low socio-economic level to be more competitive than children of middle class families. Goodman (1952) found Negro children (age 4) to be more competitive than white children, while Sampson and Kardush (1965) found the opposite to be true with older children (age 7-11). In an experimental study of subcultural differences in competitive and cooperative behaviour, Madsen (1967) found that both rural and urban poor children in Mexico were dramatically more cooperative than Mexican urban middle class children.

Srivastava's study (1978, p.110) showed that within each group the upper class women are more liberal than the middle class and the middle class is more liberal as compared to the lower class. Her data confirms the findings of Maccoby and Gibbs (1954, pp.380-396) and Bronfenbrenner (1961, pp.400-425) which state that there are class differences in child rearing practices and that permissiveness and leniency decreases with the decline in the class position.

The age of the children is also an important factor in maternal employment. Ordinarily, children who are of school age experience less psychological shock when mothers leave home, although there are also cases in which a very small child is better off with a warm mother substitute than with an unwilling mother.

According to Hurlock (1978, pp.495,504) the younger the child, the more influence the family and the different

family members have. As children grow older, peers and other outsiders have increasingly more influence and family members increasingly less. The effect of the mother's working on the mother child relationship depends to a great extent on the child's age at the time the mother starts to work. If she begins working before the child becomes accustomed to spending most of the time with her — before any definite relationship has been established — the effect will be minimal. If strong attachments have been formed, however, the child will suffer from maternal deprivation. How older children feel about the mother's working depends partly upon how seriously her working interferes with the pattern of family life, partly upon what their friends' mothers do, partly upon the stereotype they have learned of 'mother', and many other factors.

\_\_\_\_\_ Kimball (1978, p.228) after examining the Canadian data says that across a large number of studies there are very few differences between young children of paid and non-paid mothers. This is true whether the mother works outside the home from the time the child is very young or whether she waits until her child is 3 or 4 years old to begin work outside. Although there are very few differences in the children, there are interesting and important differences in the attitudes and feelings of the mothers. It seems that mothers of very young children feel guilty about doing paid work, especially if they enjoy their work and do not see themselves doing it out of economic necessity. Because these mothers feel guilty there is a tendency

for them to overprotect their children.

Hann (1976, p.38) says that older children can gain materially and psychologically when both parents work because their mothers have more experience and maturity and are less tempted to be over protective and dominant.

According to Hoffman (quoted by Goode, 1964 , pp.76-77) young children (third to sixth graders) of working mothers show a lower performance level and are more likely to respond to a frustrating problem with non-adaptive behaviour.

Alison Clarke-Stewart (1977, p.34) also says that children who are under 3 years when their mothers begin work are more susceptible than older children to damaging effects of separation from mother.

According to Maccoby (1961, p.533) child's adjustment is made easier a) if the division of responsibility is a common, indeed, taken-for-granted thing in the society, b) if the mother's daily departure is begun in the child's infancy. So that there is no dramatic beginning of separation after the child has become accustomed to a single caretaker and c) if the substitute is a relative who presumably has very similar childcare techniques to those of the mother.

A.I. Rabin (1957) found that while Kibbutz children appeared to be somewhat behind a group of home-reared children at the age of one year, by the age of ten the Kibbutz children

were more mature in the features of personality development that were measured. Thus it can be seen that whatever negative effects there were in early childhood in the group care setting and the absence of constant close interaction with parents, these effects were not lasting.

The two family types give entirely two different kinds of social environment to the child — one in which the child has less freedom to develop his self identity and individuality by virtue of its authoritarian set up (the joint family) and the other which encourages independence and development of a distinctive self on account of its more permissive atmosphere (the nuclear family). Sinha (1982, p.277) quoting other researches on joint and nuclear families says that in a joint family, having a large number of relatives, the child had many adult figures for his identification. Not only his mother, but other members had a vital role in bringing him up. He passed through many hands and encountered many faces which provided multiple role models before him. This led to more diffused and less individuated conception of self (Clausen, 1966). He related himself to many adults who represented sources of the authority and gratification in varying degrees (Gore, 1978) preventing the development of a well-articulated and clear-cut image of himself. In a joint family, infant indulgence was high (Whiting, 1961), children were over protected and sheltered, and were dependent on the mother, and separation was discouraged..... The nuclear family is a two generation structure in which the

child encounters only his immediate relations. As the family universe is small and he has a limited set of adult models to emulate, he develops a strong sense of personal bond with the parents and there is greater concentration and intensity in parent-child interaction. There is consequently greater scope for developing clearcut self-identity.

According to Jayaswal (1976 , p.440) in nuclear family structure, intense emotional relationship between the parent and the child is established because there are no grandparents present. On the other hand there are certain disadvantages also. If the parent goes out for work, the child is left alone and experiences emotional deprivation. In extended families where the parent and grandparent are to look after children, personality development takes place in a harmonious manner. There is always some elder to look after the young. The related family structure is also helpful in providing healthy influences on child personality.

Thomas (1976) carried out a research on "academic achievement of the elementary school children of working and nonworking mothers". She found that children of mothers with college education and those coming from joint families were significantly better than others in academic achievement regardless of the mothers' employment and sex of the child.

Singh (1980, p.82) says that at the lower class level,



although it is common for female construction workers and domestic workers to carry at least their youngest children with them to work, joint family living may ease the domestic burdens of working women and increase the quality of child and household care.

According to Hurlock (1978, p.493 and 1983, p.370) young parents understand their children better than older parents because the smaller the age gap between parent and child, the less change there will have been in cultural values and patterns of living. Older parents tend to be stricter than younger parents. As a result, their children often develop personality problems due to parental inhibition of childish impulses.

The recent dramatic increases in employment among married women with children has been paralleled by a growth in research and commentary on this subject. Reviews show that studies on the effects of maternal employment on the child failed to give a clear answer to the value of these effects. Some evidence exists to support the contention that the working mother provides a different role model for the child than does the nonworking mother, but no apparent evidence exists to show whether this different role model is better or worse. A large sector still harbour the belief that a woman's employment interferes with her capacity to manage a family. In other studies it appears that the quality of mother-child interaction is a more significant determinant of the child's adjustment than the maternal employment

itself. If the mother remains at home but does not keep track of where her child is and what he is doing, he is far more likely to become a delinquent than if he is closely watched. Middleclass working mother who has gone into the work with a clear sense of the problem in carrying the double role may feel a greater responsibility for making up for their absence, by better organization, by consciously planning to be with their children, or anticipating and preventing difficulties in their children's life.

There is a need to know more about working mothers and her children and the factors which influence the outcome through cross-cultural studies. The present study was undertaken in a matrilineal society and it covers most of the factors which were viewed as important by many researchers.

## CHAPTER - III

## METHOD OF STUDY

The present research was undertaken to study the social development of personality of working mothers' children and nonworking mothers' children. It also includes the different factors which are considered important in the development of the children. They are the sex of the child, the family type, age of the mother and the child, the SES of the family, the ordinal position and number of children in the family.

According to Stott (1978, p.306) the great bulk of personality research has been concerned with the identification and description of common traits and with the development of techniques and devices for the assessment of those traits. In recent years factor analysis is used with advantage in identifying and describing common personality traits. (Cattell, 1957, Eysenck, 1947). Statistically determined 'factors' are interpreted as traits of personality and tests and inventories are devised for the quantitative appraisal of those traits.

There are two general research approaches to the understanding of personality. They are generalistic or statistical and the individualistic or idiographic (Allport 1937, 1942, 1960). But methods for individual personality study are relatively few in number and they are difficult to apply. Therefore in this study generalised approach of personality was selected for children.

## DESIGN OF THE STUDY

The problem presented in this study is to compare the personality of pre-primary and primary school Khasi children (4 to 10 years of age) of working and nonworking mothers. Within this design, differences were checked between boys and girls, children of different age groups, between different socio-economic status levels, and between the different types of families like nuclear and extended families. The study also included comparisons based on the ordinal position of the child and the number of children in the family.

## DESCRIPTION OF THE POPULATION

All the pupils in the recognised pre-primary and primary schools with majority Khasi children formed the universe for this study. The schools covered included government, private, missionary and aided ones. For the sake of the present research all children between 4 to 10 years in such schools formed the population.

## RATIONALE FOR SAMPLE SELECTION

In the selection of the sample the following factors had to be considered.

- a) Schools to be included in the study must have a majority Khasi pupils;
- b) Schools managed by different bodies had to be represented in the sample;

- c) Schools located in different areas of Shillong had to be represented in the sample;
- d) Both boys and girls had to be included in the actual sample;
- e) All levels of socio-economic backgrounds had to be represented.

Keeping the above requirements it was decided to first select a representative sample of schools from the universe. Twenty eight schools were selected for the sample. Then from the selected schools, pupils were chosen by random sampling method for the study.

#### ACTUAL SAMPLE

As the age group 4 to 10 years were needed for the sample, nursery to class IV children were selected from the schools. From these classes all the names of the Khasi children whose mothers are working outside the home were collected. In the same way all the names of the Khasi children whose mothers are not working outside the home were also collected. Children above 10 years were excluded from the sample after verifying their age from the register maintained in the school. By random sampling method 252 working mothers' children and 252 nonworking mothers' children were selected. As six classes were selected from each school i.e. from nursery to class IV, from each selected class three children were taken in the sample. Total sample is 504 children taught by 168 tea-

chers. Out of 504 checklists and questionnaires given to teachers and parents respectively, the investigator was able to collect only 432 checklists and questionnaires with full details. Of this 216 working mothers children and 216 nonworking mothers children were taken in the actual sample.

The following tables give the actual number of working and nonworking mothers children in different groups, i.e. sex of the child, family type, age of the mother, age of the child, SES of the family, ordinal position and number of children in the family.

**3.01: Table showing the number of working and nonworking mothers children in the sample grouped according to sex**

Sex of the child	Working	Non-working
Boys	84	94
Girls	132	122

**3.02: Table showing the number of working and nonworking mothers children in the sample grouped according to family type**

Family type	Working	Non-working
Nuclear	146	131
Extended	70	85

3.03: Table showing the number of working and nonworking mothers children in the sample grouped according to mother's age

Mother's age in years	Working	Non-working
20 - 29	67	74
30 - 39	85	83
40 & above	64	59

3.04: Table showing the number of working and nonworking mothers children in the sample grouped according to child's age

Child's age in years	Working	Non-working
4 - 5	50	44
6, 7, 8	100	98
9 - 10	66	74

3.05: Table showing the number of working and nonworking mothers children in the sample grouped according to SES of the family

SES Group	Working	Non-working
I	82	11
II	107	145
III	27	60



3.06: Table showing the number of working and nonworking mothers children in the sample grouped according to ordinal position of the child

Ordinal position of the child	Working	Non-working
First	63	52
Middle	87	114
Last	66	50

3.07: Table showing the number of working and nonworking mothers children in the sample grouped according to number of children in the family

No. of children	Working	Non-working
Only child	10	5
2 - 3	125	109
More than 3	81	102

#### TOOLS OF RESEARCH

There are different tools suitable for each situation.

The questionnaire method was introduced by Stanley Hall (1891). The questionnaire which contains a series of verbal questions has been widely used as an instrument to solicit the opinions and attitudes of children or parents.

In a checklist large number of behaviour patterns are mentioned. A checklist is prepared before doing the observation. The target behaviours are also mentioned in the list ahead of time to note the presence or absence of the charac-

teristic. The checklist is logically organised and it is based on the objectives set for observation. Checklists are useful for classroom teachers and other service personnel because they are easy to use. The teacher can identify behavioural objectives, translate them into specifics, and check off their behaviours against the list. It allows recording of behaviours very quickly and very efficiently with minimum of strain. (Panda 1983, p. 16).

As tools play an important part in the research, in this study they have been selected with careful consideration after scrutinising all the available tools.

The following tools were selected for collecting data in the present research:

1. Children's behaviour checklist - Leland H. Stott, 1978;
- 2a. Questionnaire for working mothers in English and Khasi - prepared by the investigator;
- 2b. Questionnaire for nonworking mothers in Khasi - prepared by the investigator;
3. Questionnaire for working and nonworking mothers in English (for indepth study - prepared by the investigator).
4. Socio-Economic Status Scale - Kuppuswamy B. 1981.

### 1. Children's behaviour checklist by Leland H. Stott, 1978

Stott in analysing children's behaviour identified 13 variables comparable to those on Cattell's list. These behaviour dispositions were considered to illustrate individual differences in early personality pattern.

Cattell described the behaviour dispositions as "source traits" of personality (R.B. Cattell, 1957). They are presumed to be the "substantial and enduring dispositions of which personality is composed (G.W. Allport, 1960). A behaviour disposition is further described as a highly generalized and pervasive personal quality which is made manifest in a variety of different behaviour patterns made in a variety of different situations. These source traits or behaviour dispositions become established early in life. As early as age 4, the differences become pronounced. (Stott, 1978, p. 315).

As it is not possible to do individual personality study because of time factor, it was selected for group study.

The Children's Behaviour Checklist consists of 166 selected items for analysis of social behaviour of children in schools. These 166 specific behaviour descriptions finally become segregated and grouped, in terms of mutual affinity and meaning into eight factors. Each factor is interpreted in terms of the generalised meaning of its constituent items, and an identifying label is attached. These factors are tenta-

tively regarded as representing common and pervasive child's "behaviour dispositions". Each has its positive and its negative aspects. Children differ over a wide range in strength of each tendency from strong positive (high score) to strong negative (low score). The eight dispositions are listed as follows:

- Factor A: Social Ascendance - lack of leadership.
- Factor B: Personal responsibility - irresponsible impulsiveness.
- Factor C: Introvertive self-sufficiency - need for the presence and support of others.
- Factor D: Social effectiveness - social ineptitude.
- Factor E: Personal attractiveness - lack of personal appeal.
- Factor F: Personal security, stability - emotional instability.
- Factor G: Compulsive domination - complaint, retiring (adaptability).
- Factor H: Dependability - nondependability.

These names were attached to the factors in an effort to convey as clearly as possible the interpreted meaning in each case. As the names suggest, there are some rather close relations among them. For example, factor A, "social ascendance", would seem to be similar in meaning to factor D, "social effectiveness". They also proved to be statistically correlated to the extent of  $+0.65$ . However, even though some factors do have meaning in common, when their constituent

items are examined side by side each is seen to have quite a different aura. There is justification for regarding them as two rather distinct behaviour dispositions (Scott, 1978, p.444).

The checklists were carefully checked according to instructions with a particular child in mind. Then by using the scoring key, a numerical score on each of the eight traits were obtained.

### **Scoring**

The letter A-H on the scoring key designate the factor, or factors, for which each item was scored. The X or its absence, in the case of each item was the key to its scoring. Items on a given child's checklist were counted for the factors indicated when they were checked or not checked, according to the key. The total factor score in each case was the simple count of the items designated for that factor that agree with the key. These raw scores were converted to modified standard scores with the help of a table provided with the tool.

### **2(a). Questionnaire for working mothers in English and Khasi:**

A questionnaire was prepared by the investigator to collect information about the child and the family. It consists of two parts, (1) personal data and (2) opinion and reaction of the family regarding mother's work outside.

The personal data includes particulars regarding the family like occupation, income and educational qualifications of the father and mother, family structure, number of children and ordinal position of the child.

Part two consists of reactions of the mother, the father and the child regarding her employment outside and the childcare arrangements.

As some working mothers were not able to follow English version of this questionnaire, it was translated to Khasi with the help of a Khasi lecturer.

**2(b). Questionnaire for nonworking mothers in Khasi:**

This also consists of two parts, (1) Personal data and (2) opinion and reaction of the family regarding mothers stay at home.

Personal data includes particulars of the family like educational qualifications of mother and father, occupation and income of the father, family structure, number of children and ordinal position of the child.

Part two consists of reactions of the mother, the father and the child regarding her stay at home. The questionnaire copies in English and Khasi are given in appendices Ia, Ib, 11a and 11b.

### 3. Interview Schedule for working and nonworking mothers for indepth study:

The above questionnaire for working and nonworking mothers was modified for indepth study. The detailed interview schedule is given in the appendix V.

### 4. Socio-Economic Status Scale:

This Socio-Economic Status Scale was developed by Kuppuswamy (1961). The revised version of the scale (Kuppuswamy, 1981) for urban population was utilised in this study.

Socio-Economic Status (SES) refers to broad groupings of people defined essentially in terms of amount of income a family makes. Subsumed under mode of acquisition is the general esteem in which particular occupations are held. Related to occupation and also related independently to SES is the amount of formal education the family's main bread winner has acquired (Deutsch, p. 234).

As Sorokin (1947, p. 88) indicates, most theories of social class "finally reduce themselves to a compound of occupational and economic bonds plus the bond of stratification".

This scale also includes education, occupation and income of the family. But in the present study for working and nonworking mothers, educational qualification income and occupation of the mother and father were taken into account.

After calculating the total scores with the help of

scoring key of SES scale, mean and standard deviation was found. Then they were divided into 3 income groups by using Mean  $\pm$  1 standard deviation as cut off points.

Scoring key of the Socio-Economic Status Scale is given in the appendix III.

### PRETESTING OF THE TOOLS OF RESEARCH

In the development of any test, pretesting is useful in helping to eliminate unclear and inappropriate questions.

As the tool "children's behaviour checklist" was prepared for American children, it was considered necessary to pretest the checklist with local children.

Twelve working mothers' children and twelve nonworking mothers' children were selected from one school. Six teachers from six classes were chosen and each teacher was asked to mark the checklists for two children from their classes. They were asked to consider each item carefully and observe the child's overall behaviour for sometime and then to check for him the items which most truly characterize him. The checklists were collected after two weeks: All the six teachers had the opinion that the items in the checklist can be marked without any difficulty. With the help of the scoring key the raw scores were calculated for all the children. Then raw scores were converted to modified scores with the help of a table provided with the tool. The results were found satis-



factory on the basis of discussion with the teachers who were put questions by the investigator regarding social aspects of the children's behaviour and personality. The questionnaires for working and nonworking mothers were also pretested with the same sample.

#### PROCEDURE OF DATA COLLECTION

After selecting, preparing and pretesting the tools for research, the investigator visited the schools and took permission for research from the headmistresses of the concerned schools. In most of the schools, investigator met the teachers, from nursery to class IV, in the staff room and gave a briefing regarding the purpose of the study, its aims and objectives. In some schools the investigator met the teachers one by one in their own classes and explained the purpose of the study. After briefing them, the checklists were given to 168 teachers from 28 schools to rate the children in social behaviour aspect of personality. They were asked to consider carefully the child's overall behaviour over a period of time and to check for him only those items which most truly characterized him. Each selected teacher was given 3 checklists to mark 3 children from their own classes. They were given 3 weeks time, roughly a week for each child.

After giving the checklists to teachers, the investigator met the children who are in the sample. After a brief casual talk with each child, class I to class IV children

were asked to take working mother's and nonworking mother's questionnaire to their homes and to get them filled by their mothers. In the case of nursery and K.G. class children the investigator sent questionnaires through parents or relatives of the children, where possible, when they came to take their children in the afternoons. After explaining the procedure and details briefly, the questionnaires were given to them. They were requested to fill in their particulars and to give frank opinions. A weeks time was given to them to fill in the questionnaire at home in their free time, after which they were requested to submit the questionnaires to the concerned teacher. The questionnaires and checklists were collected by the investigator, after an interval of 3 weeks. The questions pertaining to SES was also included in the questionnaire itself in Part I under personal data.

Investigator was not able to collect some of the questionnaires and checklists which were given to parents and teachers respectively. The total number of questionnaires and checklists collected back were 432, out of which 216 were for working mothers children and 216 for nonworking mothers children.

For the indepth study, 3 working and 3 nonworking mothers with children of the three specified age groups, i.e. 4-5, 6-8 and 9-10 years were selected by random method. The responses of working and nonworking mothers were recorded by the investigator herself.

## ANALYSIS OF DATA

After getting modified standard scores for all the 8 factors, children were grouped into 7 variables according to the sex of the child, type of the family, age of the child, age of the mother, SES of the family, ordinal position of the child and number of children in the family.

A programme was made to analyse the data by computer. Mean and standard deviation were calculated for all the variables. To compare the different groups 't' was calculated and the significance of mean differences were compared.

After collecting the responses of working and nonworking mothers of Khasi children to the items in the questionnaire the percentages were calculated under 18 main headings. Working and nonworking mothers' responses were compared with the percentages obtained. A similar procedure was adopted to analyse data collected with the help of the interview schedule.

## COMPARISON OF SOCIAL FACETS OF PERSONALITY OF KHASI CHILDREN OF WORKING AND NONWORKING MOTHERS—ANALYSIS OF FINDINGS

There is a substantial body of research literature suggesting that the most crucial single factor in personality development is the interaction, largely emotional in nature, between the child, with his pattern of temperamental predispositions, and the more intimate, human aspects of his environment. (Stott, 1974).

In most homes, mothers spend more time with their children, have more control over them, and express their affection more overtly than fathers. As a result, mothers exert more influence over the child's developing personality.

In the present study the social behaviour aspect of personality was obtained for Khasi children of working and nonworking mothers with the help of a checklist. As the teachers are well acquainted with the children and observe their play behaviour in relation to other children over a period of time, they were asked to check the statements in the checklist on overall behaviour of the children.

After collecting the checklists from the teachers, the raw scores and then the modified standard scores were calculated for all the 8 factors separately. The significance of differences of the working and non-working mothers' children as a whole was compared for all the factors and also according to sex of

the children, the family type, age of the mother, age of the child, the SES of the family, ordinal position of the child and the number of children in the family.

#### 4:01: Comparison of working and nonworking mothers' children on eight personality factors

The working and nonworking mothers' children were rated on all the eight personality factors, namely social ascendance, personal responsibility, introvertive self sufficiency, social effectiveness, personal attractiveness, personal security and stability, compulsive domination and dependability and their mean scores were compared to test the hypothesis of no difference.

The following table gives the results of the eight personality factors.

TABLE 4.01

Table showing the comparative mean scores of working and nonworking mothers' children on eight personality factors\*

Personality factor	Working mothers' children		Non-working mothers' children		t	p
	M	SD	M	SD		
A	6.21	1.52	6.09	1.60	0.8	--
B	7.01	1.33	6.88	1.24	1.08	--
C	6.27	1.52	6.30	1.54	0.2	--
D	6.34	1.82	6.02	1.75	1.88	--
E	6.46	1.83	6.36	1.84	0.56	--
F	6.06	1.22	6.01	1.12	0.45	--
G	5.51	1.17	5.54	1.25	0.25	--
H	7.16	1.70	7.07	1.58	0.56	--

\* Number of children in each case is 216.

The above table on eight personality factors show no significant differences between children of working and non-working mothers.

The results support the hypothesis I, that there was no significant differences between the working and nonworking mothers' children in all the eight personality factors. Mothers' work outside the home didn't seem to show any significant effect on their children's personality.

The results of the present study support the findings from the studies of employed mothers in the United States compiled together by Nye & Hoffman (1963), study by Ferguson and Cunnison (1951), Scott's study (1965), Kapur's study (1970), the findings of Ranade & Ramachandran (1970), Barot (1972), Srivastava (1972), Dhingra (1972), study by Dharmayug (1968), and Eve's Weekly (1973), who found that mothers' employment as such appears to be of no importance as an influence on the lives of children and does not affect their personality development.

#### **4:02: Comparison of working and nonworking mothers' sons and daughters on eight personality factors**

The working mothers' sons and daughters were compared with nonworking mothers' sons and daughters on the eight personality factors to test the hypotheses of no differences.

The following table shows the results of the eight personality factors.

TABLE 4.02

Table showing the comparative mean scores of working and nonworking mothers' sons and daughters on eight personality factors\*

Personality factor	Sex of the child	Working mothers' children		Nonworking mothers' children		t	p
		M	SD	M	SD		
A	Boys	6.29	1.51	6.18	1.50	0.48	-
	Girls	6.17	1.52	6.02	1.67	0.75	-
B	Boys	7.05	1.40	6.95	1.22	0.5	-
	Girls	6.98	1.29	6.82	1.25	1.0	-
C	Boys	6.35	1.38	6.30	1.69	0.22	-
	Girls	6.23	1.60	6.30	1.41	0.36	-
D	Boys	6.48	1.86	6.06	1.78	1.56	-
	Girls	6.25	1.78	5.98	1.73	1.23	-
E	Boys	6.42	1.84	6.41	1.72	0.04	-
	Girls	6.48	1.83	6.32	1.92	0.67	-
F	Boys	6.15	1.20	6.04	1.06	0.65	-
	Girls	6.01	1.22	5.99	1.16	0.13	-
G	Boys	5.43	1.18	5.54	1.16	0.61	-
	Girls	5.56	1.17	5.53	1.31	0.19	-
H	Boys	7.29	1.69	7.06	1.58	0.96	-
	Girls	7.08	1.70	7.07	1.58	0.05	-

\* Number of working mothers' boys - 84 and girls - 132  
Number of nonworking mothers' boys - 94 and girls - 122

The above data show no significant differences between working and nonworking mothers' sons and daughters. These results support the hypothesis II.

There was no significant difference between working and non-working mothers' sons and daughters covered in the study on all the personality factors.

But studies done by Alvarez (1985), Bronfenbrenner and Crouter (1982), Hoffman (1983), Bronfenbrenner (1961), Elder (1974), Hetherington (1979), Dolores Gold & David Andres (1978), Kimball (1978) and Maccoby (1966) showed differences between working and nonworking mothers' boys and girls.

**4:03: Comparison of working and nonworking mothers' children from different family structures on eight personality factors**

The working mothers' children from nuclear and joint families were compared with nonworking mothers' children from the same families on the eight personality factors.

The hypothesis framed was that of no difference between working and nonworking mothers' children from nuclear and joint families.

The following table gives the data of the eight personality factors.



TABLE 4.03

Table showing the comparative mean scores of working and nonworking mothers' children belonging to two different family structures on 8 personality factors\*

Personality factor	Family Structure	Working mothers' children		Nonworking mothers' children		t	p
		M	SD	M	SD		
A	Nuclear	6.25	1.54	6.27	1.52	0.11	-
	Joint	6.14	1.47	5.82	1.69	0.01	-
B	Nuclear	7.12	1.25	7.01	1.21	0.73	-
	Joint	6.77	1.46	6.67	1.26	0.45	-
C	Nuclear	6.10	1.47	6.27	1.51	0.94	-
	Joint	6.63	1.58	6.33	1.57	1.20	-
D	Nuclear	6.36	1.75	6.19	1.64	0.85	-
	Joint	6.30	1.94	5.75	1.89	1.77	-
E	Nuclear	6.48	1.88	6.37	1.86	0.50	-
	Joint	6.41	1.72	6.34	1.80	0.25	-
F	Nuclear	6.12	1.16	6.00	1.07	0.92	-
	Joint	5.94	1.31	6.04	1.18	0.50	-
G	Nuclear	5.49	1.15	5.59	1.20	0.71	-
	Joint	5.56	1.23	5.46	1.32	0.50	-
H	Nuclear	7.29	1.68	7.24	1.57	0.25	-
	Joint	6.87	1.71	6.80	1.57	0.27	-

\* Number of working mothers' children from nuclear families - 146 and joint families - 70  
Number of nonworking mothers' children from nuclear families - 131 and joint families - 85.

The above table shows no significant differences between working and nonworking mothers' children belonging to two different family structures, nuclear and joint families, on all the personality factors.

The data provide support to the hypothesis III. This shows that there was no significant difference between the working and nonworking mothers' children from nuclear and joint families in all the eight personality factors. The finding here is different from the studies conducted by Whiting (1961), Clausen (1966), Jayaswal (1976), Thomas (1976), Singh (1980) and Sinha (1982) which showed differences between the working and non-working mothers' children from nuclear and joint families.

#### **4.04: Comparison of the children of working and non-working mothers belonging to three different age groups**

All the eight personality factors were taken for comparison of working and nonworking mothers' children.

The hypothesis was that no differences would be found between the children of working and nonworking mothers belonging to three different age groups i.e. 20-29 years, 30-39 years and 40 and above age group.

The following table shows the findings in respect of all the eight factors.

TABLE 4.04

Table showing the comparative mean scores of the children of working and nonworking mothers belonging to three different age groups on 8 personality factors\*

Personality factor	Range of Mothers' age in years	Working mothers' children		Nonworking mothers' children		t	p
		M	SD	M	SD		
A	20 - 29	5.97	1.62	6.34	1.54	1.37	-
	30 - 39	6.28	1.34	5.89	1.62	1.69	-
	40 & above	6.38	1.60	6.07	1.61	1.57	-
B	20 - 29	7.10	1.29	6.96	1.16	0.66	-
	30 - 39	7.02	1.31	6.87	1.25	0.75	-
	40 & above	6.89	1.38	6.78	1.32	0.46	-
C	20 - 29	6.25	1.59	6.47	1.49	0.85	-
	30 - 39	6.20	1.42	6.24	1.61	0.17	-
	40 & above	6.39	1.58	6.15	1.47	0.89	-
D	20 - 29	6.54	1.93	6.24	1.63	1.00	-
	30 - 39	6.04	1.77	5.80	1.82	0.86	-
	40 & above	6.53	1.70	6.05	1.78	1.55	-
E	20 - 29	6.39	1.85	6.61	1.95	0.69	-
	30 - 39	6.29	1.72	6.08	1.72	0.81	-
	40 & above	6.75	1.92	6.44	1.79	0.94	-
F	20 - 29	6.33	1.11	6.04	1.12	1.5	-
	30 - 39	5.80	1.17	6.00	1.26	1.1	-
	40 & above	6.14	1.31	6.00	0.86	0.7	-
G	20 - 29	5.45	1.20	5.73	1.26	1.4	-
	30 - 39	5.55	1.19	5.41	1.32	0.74	-
	40 & above	5.52	1.12	5.47	1.11	0.25	-
H	20 - 29	7.16	1.65	7.26	1.63	0.36	-
	30 - 39	7.12	1.75	6.98	1.53	0.56	-
	40 & above	7.20	1.68	6.97	1.58	0.79	-

\* Number of children of working mothers aged 20-29 years - 67; 30-39 years - 85 and 40 & above years - 64. Number of children of nonworking mothers aged 20-29 years - 74, 30-39 years - 83; and 40 & above years - 59.

The above data show no significant differences between the three groups of children of working and nonworking mothers belonging to different age groups.

This data also support the hypothesis IV. There was no significant difference between the children of working and nonworking mothers aged 20-29 years, 30-39 years and 40 and above age group on any of the eight personality factors compared.

This finding is somewhat different from the findings of Hurlock (1978, 1983) who found differences between the children with mothers of different age groups.

#### **4.05: Comparison of working and nonworking mothers' children grouped into three different age groups**

The working and nonworking mothers' children belonging to three different age groups were compared on the eight personality factors, ABCDEFG and H.

The relevant hypothesis stated that no difference would be found between the three age groups of children of working and nonworking mothers in all the eight factors of personality.

The following table shows the data of the three age groups of children i.e., 4-5 years, 6-8 years and 9-10 years of working and nonworking mothers.

TABLE 4.05

Table showing the comparative mean scores of the three age groups of working and nonworking mothers' children on 8 personality factors\*

Personality factor	Child's age (years)	Working mothers' children		Nonworking mothers' children		t	p
		M	SD	M	SD		
A	4, 5	6.10	1.47	6.00	1.55	0.32	-
	6, 7, 8	6.14	1.47	6.11	1.52	0.15	-
	9, 10	6.42	1.61	6.12	1.73	1.07	-
B	4, 5	6.92	1.13	6.86	1.06	0.27	-
	6, 7, 8	6.95	1.40	6.92	1.23	0.16	-
	9, 10	7.17	1.34	6.83	1.34	1.48	-
C	4, 5	6.20	1.47	6.20	1.39	0.00	-
	6, 7, 8	6.30	1.51	6.33	1.59	0.14	-
	9, 10	6.29	1.59	6.31	1.55	0.07	-
D	4, 5	6.29	1.92	6.05	1.72	1.65	-
	6, 7, 8	6.21	1.75	6.04	1.78	0.68	-
	9, 10	6.57	1.81	5.97	1.74	1.33	-
E	4, 5	6.45	1.92	6.36	2.00	0.23	-
	6, 7, 8	6.29	1.78	6.33	1.81	0.16	-
	9, 10	6.72	1.81	6.40	1.76	1.06	-
F	4, 5	6.20	1.16	6.05	1.24	0.62	-
	6, 7, 8	6.05	1.24	6.05	1.08	0.00	-
	9, 10	5.98	1.22	5.95	1.08	0.16	-
G	4, 5	5.67	1.15	5.75	1.26	0.32	-
	6, 7, 8	5.48	1.18	5.49	1.23	0.06	-
	9, 10	5.43	1.18	5.47	1.26	0.20	-
H	4, 5	7.08	1.58	7.11	1.61	0.1	-
	6, 7, 8	7.05	1.72	7.01	1.55	0.2	-
	9, 10	7.38	1.73	7.12	1.61	0.93	-

\* Number of working mothers' children aged 4-5 years - 50; 6-8 years - 100, and 9-10 years - 66.

Number of nonworking mothers' children aged 4-5 years - 44; 6-8 years - 98, and 9-10 years - 74.

The above data shows no significant differences between the three age groups of working and nonworking mothers' children. These results support the hypothesis V. ——— ——— ———

There was no significant difference between the working and nonworking mothers' children from 3 different age groups 4-5 years, 6, 7, 8 years and 9-10 years on any of the eight personality factors.

Kimball's study (1978) somewhat supports the present study. But studies conducted by Hurlock (1978), Maccoby (1961), Hoffman (1964), Hann (1976) and Clarke-Stewart (1977) showed differences on personality between the different age groups of children.

#### 4.06: Comparison of working and nonworking mothers' children belonging to three different socio-economic status families

Comparison of working mothers' children with nonworking mothers' children from different SES groups were made on each of the eight personality factors.

The hypothesis framed stated no differences between the working and nonworking mothers' children from three SES groups, i.e. Class I, Class II and Class III on each of the eight personality factors.

The following table shows the findings of the data for all the eight factors.

TABLE 4.06

Table showing the comparative mean scores of working and nonworking mothers' children from different socio-economic status families on eight personality factors\*

Personality factors	Socio-economic status of the family	Working mothers' children		Nonworking mothers' children		t	p
		M	SD	M	SD		
A	I	6.20	1.59	6.39	1.58	0.38	-
	II	6.48	1.88	6.41	1.72	0.30	-
	III	6.05	1.17	6.00	1.23	0.19	-
B	I	5.39	1.23	5.69	1.03	0.88	-
	II	5.55	1.15	5.35	1.08	1.4	-
	III	6.98	1.53	7.12	1.75	0.38	-
C	I	7.11	1.21	6.68	1.26	1.1	-
	II	7.18	1.67	6.87	1.56	1.47	-
	III	6.88	1.71	7.24	1.57	0.92	-
D	I	6.84	1.14	6.81	1.27	0.08	-
	II	6.55	1.36	6.23	1.12	2.0	.05
	III	7.25	1.25	6.89	1.58	1.16	-
E	I	5.20	1.25	5.48	1.27	0.68	-
	II	5.54	1.13	5.67	1.16	0.87	-
	III	5.58	1.20	5.74	1.21	0.57	-
F	I	6.50	1.45	6.14	0.94	1.09	-
	II	5.92	1.12	5.81	1.05	0.78	-
	III	6.20	1.16	6.05	1.24	0.56	-
G	I	5.95	1.08	6.14	1.31	0.46	-
	II	6.00	1.26	5.80	1.17	1.3	-
	III	5.94	1.31	6.12	1.16	0.62	-
H	I	7.00	1.64	7.34	1.29	0.79	-
	II	7.06	1.61	7.20	1.73	0.67	-
	III	7.48	1.47	6.98	1.70	1.38	-

\* No. of working mothers' children from Class I - 82, Class II - 107 and Class III - 27.

No. of nonworking mothers' children from Class I - 11, Class II - 145, Class III - 60.

The above findings show no significant differences between the children of working and nonworking mothers from different SES groups in 7 of the personality factors. On Factor D was seen significant difference at .05 level, between the working and nonworking mothers' children from Class II.

This data rejects the null hypothesis VI. There was no significant difference between the children of working and non-working mothers from Class I, II and III in personality factors A,B,C,E,F,G and H. Only in factor D there was significant difference at .05 level between the children of working and nonworking mothers belonging to Class II family. The results are in favour of working mothers' children. This shows that working mothers children had positive characters like social ease, friendly behaviour and social sensitivity, which are included in this factor D.

Hoffeditz (1934), Mintzer & Sargent (1939), Patterson (1943), Auld (1952b), Drucker & Remmers (1952), Sims (1954), Madsen (1967), Sewell (1964) and Stagner (1974) found some differences on personality aspects between the children of different SES groups.

#### **4.07: Comparison of the working and nonworking mothers' children grouped according to ordinal position**

All the eight personality factors were taken for comparison of working and nonworking mothers' children.

The hypothesis framed stated no differences between the first, middle and last children of working and nonworking mothers on all the eight personality factors.

The following table shows the findings of the data for the different groups on all the eight factors of personality.



TABLE 4.07

Table showing the comparative mean scores of the working and nonworking mothers' children grouped according to ordinal position on 8 personality factors\*

Personality factor	Ordinal position of the child	Working mothers' children		Nonworking mothers' children		t	p
		M	SD	M	SD		
A	First	6.11	1.48	6.10	1.50	0.03	-
	Middle	6.26	1.53	6.05	1.65	0.95	-
	Last	6.24	1.54	6.18	1.60	0.21	-
B	First	7.06	1.42	6.63	1.13	1.79	-
	Middle	7.08	1.35	6.98	1.20	0.56	-
	Last	6.86	1.19	6.88	1.39	0.08	-
C	First	6.37	1.54	6.58	1.56	0.72	-
	Middle	6.21	1.49	6.11	1.51	0.48	-
	Last	6.27	1.55	6.42	1.51	0.52	-
D	First	6.46	1.93	6.00	1.57	1.39	-
	Middle	6.41	1.83	5.96	1.76	1.73	-
	Last	6.12	1.66	6.18	1.90	0.18	-
E	First	6.35	1.97	6.52	1.90	0.47	-
	Middle	6.54	1.70	6.18	1.73	1.5	-
	Last	6.45	1.86	6.60	1.95	0.42	-
F	First	6.22	1.29	5.96	1.04	1.24	-
	Middle	6.05	1.17	6.04	1.10	0.06	-
	Last	5.94	1.18	6.00	1.23	0.27	-
G	First	5.30	1.22	5.58	1.20	1.4	-
	Middle	5.54	1.13	5.43	1.28	0.65	-
	Last	5.67	1.16	5.74	1.21	0.35	-
H	First	7.00	1.64	6.87	1.59	0.43	-
	Middle	7.34	1.79	7.11	1.50	1.00	-
	Last	7.06	1.61	7.20	1.73	0.47	-

\* Number of working mothers' first children -63, middle children - 87, and last children -66. Number of nonworking mothers' first children - 52, middle children - 114, and last children - 50.

The above table on eight personality factors show no significant differences between working and nonworking mothers' children representing three different ordinal positions.

These results support the hypothesis VII. They showed no significant differences between working and nonworking mothers' first, middle and last children on all the personality factors.

Smart & Smart (1967), Baughman (1965), Parke (1975), Mussen & Kagan (1974), Desai (1975) and Craig's study (1976) showed some differences between the children with different ordinal positions.

#### **4.08: Comparison of working and nonworking mothers' children grouped according to the number of children in the family**

Comparison of working mothers' children with nonworking mothers' children were made on the eight personality factors.

The hypothesis stated no difference between the working mothers' children from only child, 2 to 3 children and more than 3 children families and nonworking mothers' children from similar comparable families.

The following table shows the data of the different groups of children for all the eight factors of personality.

TABLE 4.08

Table showing the comparative mean scores of the working and nonworking mothers' children grouped according to the number of children in the family on 8 personality factors\*

Personality factor	Number of children	Working mothers' children		Nonworking mothers' children		t	p
		M	SD	M	SD		
A	Only child	6.50	1.28	5.40	1.36	1.57	-
	2,3 children	6.10	1.54	6.18	1.58	0.4	-
	More than 3 children	6.35	1.50	6.03	1.62	1.39	-
B	Only child	7.30	1.35	6.40	1.02	1.45	-
	2,3 children	6.96	1.35	6.96	1.18	0.00	-
	More than 3 children	7.05	1.29	6.80	1.30	1.30	-
C	Only child	5.80	1.94	5.80	0.98	0.00	-
	2,3 children	6.31	1.46	6.52	1.46	1.11	-
	More than 3 children	6.27	1.55	6.08	1.60	0.83	-
D	Only child	7.30	2.00	5.60	1.62	1.8	-
	2,3 children	6.18	1.89	6.08	1.76	0.48	-
	More than 3 children	6.47	1.61	5.97	1.75	2.0	.05
E	Only child	6.60	2.24	5.80	0.75	1.03	-
	2,3 children	6.23	1.73	6.41	1.83	0.78	-
	More than 3 children	6.79	1.87	6.33	1.87	1.64	-
F	Only child	7.20	1.47	6.00	1.10	1.76	-
	2,3 children	5.94	1.15	6.08	1.02	1.0	-
	More than 3 children	6.11	1.20	5.94	1.20	0.94	-
G	Only child	5.20	1.25	5.40	0.49	0.44	-
	2,3 children	5.48	1.27	5.48	1.22	0.00	-
	More than 3 children	5.59	0.99	5.61	1.30	0.12	-
H	Only child	7.80	1.47	7.00	1.79	0.87	-
	2,3 children	6.98	1.70	7.20	1.58	1.05	-
	More than 3 children	7.35	1.69	6.93	1.57	1.75	-

\* Number of working mothers' children from only child families - 10, 2-3 children families - 125, and more than 3 children families - 81.  
 Number of nonworking mothers' children from only child families - 5, 2-3 children families - 109, and more than 3 children families - 102.

The above table on seven personality factors show no significant differences between working and nonworking mothers' children. In only factor D there was significant difference at .05 level.

This data somewhat rejects the hypothesis VIII. There were no significant differences between the children of working and nonworking mothers from only child, 2-3 children and more than 3 children families, in personality factors, A,B,C,E,F,G and H. In personality factor D there was significant difference at .05 level between the children of working and nonworking mothers from more than 3 children families, the higher mean score being that of the former group of children. This shows that working mothers' children from large families possess the characteristics like social ease, friendly behaviour and social sensitivity which are included in factor D.

But studies conducted by Maccoby (1961), Maynard (1970), Weinberg (1971), Lieberman (1973), Hetherington & Parke (1975) and Hurlock (1978) showed some differences in some personality factors between the children from small and large families.

## SECTION - I

### COMPARISON OF WORKING AND NON-WORKING MOTHERS OF KHASI CHILDREN: COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF RESPONSES TO QUESTIONNAIRE

A working mother presents a multitude of different circumstances each with its own possible consequences for the family. All these different factors cannot stand in isolation but are closely dependent. Thus the reasons which prompt her to go out for work, the type of work she does, the arrangements made for her children, the attitudes of her husband and children towards her work and the mothers' satisfaction of her work may determine whether a mother can take a full time job outside or stay at home. All these factors which influence her work were taken into consideration in the present study and information was collected from working mothers through a questionnaire.

Nonworking mothers were also contacted and their attitudes and their families' attitudes about their nonwork status by staying at home were also collected by questionnaire. The factors like mothers' satisfaction with her role at home, the attitudes of the family towards her work at home and the amount and quality of time she spends with her children may also determine whether a mother should stay at home or take a part-time or full-time employment outside. All these factors were included in the questionnaire and information was collected from nonworking mothers.

In this chapter all the factors included in the questionnaire were grouped under 18 main headings. The broad areas covered included the main reasons for working, mother's responses towards work, effects of mother's work on the children and on the family and its members. The number and the percentages of the responses of the mothers are given in the tables which follow with proper explanation. Wherever possible the percentages of responses of working mothers were compared with the percentages of nonworking mothers. In some cases where the questions pertained to working mothers alone, the percentages of their responses have been indicated in the relevant tables.

The sample was then divided according to sex of their children, the family type, age of the mother, age of the child, the SES of the family, ordinal position of the child and the number of children in the family. The number and percentages of all the factors were calculated. Under each heading after comparing the responses of working and nonworking mothers in a broad way, they were again compared according to the divisions mentioned above.

#### **5.01 Main reasons for employment**

The following multi-response table gives the number and percentage of working mothers indicating different reasons for working.

**TABLE 5.01**  
**Table showing the main reasons for employment by**  
**working mothers**

Reasons for working	No. of mothers	% of mothers
a) Financial	211	98
b) To utilise education and training	12	6
c) To keep busy	4	2
d) Any other	0	0

98% of the mothers in this study gave the main reason as financial need and 2% said that work was taken because it kept them busy. Only 6% of the mothers gave the reason that work provided them an opportunity for utilising their education and training.

When the sample was grouped according to sex of the children, family type, age of the mother and child, ordinal position of the child, SES of the family and number of children in the family, majority of the mothers i.e. 90% to 99% gave the main reason for working as financial. 4 to 10% mothers said that work helped them to utilise their education and training and only 2 to 3% of the mothers said that they took up work to keep themselves busy.

#### **5.02 Mothers' preference for work when the financial condition was comfortable**

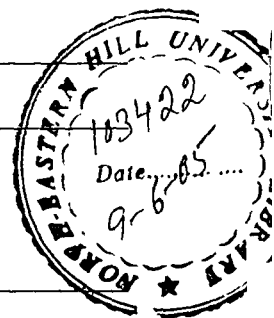
Mother's opinion was sought whether she would take up

work if the family's financial condition was comfortable. The following table provides the number and percentages of the responses.

TABLE 5.02

Table showing the mothers' preference for work when the financial condition was comfortable

Response form	No. of mothers	% of mothers
Yes	121	56
No	95	44



56% of the mothers wanted to continue their work even though they had a comfortable financial condition. Only 44% preferred to stay at home.

When the comparison was made between the different groups of mothers grouped according to sex of the children, family type, age of the mother and the child, SES of the family, ordinal position of the child and number of children in the family, 50 to 65% of the mothers in the study wanted to continue their work even with a comfortable financial condition. 35 to 50% preferred to stay at home if they had the means.

It was also noted that with the increase in the age of the mothers, there was an increase in the percentage of work preference even with a comfortable financial condition. (51, 56 and 61%). More mothers of the last born children also pre-



ferred to continue their work even with a comfortable financial condition. (53, 54, 62%). With the increase in the number of children, there was also an increase in the percentage of work preference by working mothers (50, 56 & 57%). It was also evident from the results that with the increase in the age of children, there was an increase in the percentage of work preference by working mothers (48, 54 & 65%).

### 5.03 Awareness of the dual responsibility

The working mothers were asked whether they were aware of the dual responsibility, they would be required to shoulder before undertaking the job. The number and percentages of the responses are given in the following table.

**TABLE 5.03**  
Table showing the working mothers awareness  
of the dual responsibility

Response form	No. of mothers	% of mothers
Yes	192	89
No	24	11

89% of the working mothers in the study were aware of the dual responsibility as housewife and career woman. Only 11% were not aware of the dual responsibility before undertaking the job.

When the sample was grouped according to different variables like sex of the children, family type, age of the child

and the mother, SES of the family, ordinal position of the child and number of children in the family, the percentages of mothers' awareness of the dual responsibility before undertaking the job was between 83 and 94%.

It was also noted that with the increase in the age of the children, there was an increase in the percentage of working mothers' awareness of the dual responsibility (84, 90 and 94%). More mothers from middle class were aware of the dual responsibility (93%). It was also evident from the percentages that few mothers of the lastborn children were aware of the dual responsibility (93, 92, and 83%). With the increase in the number of children, there was a decrease in the percentage of awareness of the dual responsibility (100, 92 and 84%).

#### 5.04 Role preference of working and nonworking mothers

Working and nonworking mothers were asked to mark the role, career woman or housewife, which is preferred by them. The following table gives the number and percentages of the responses.

TABLE 5.04

Table showing the role preference of working and nonworking mothers

Respondent category	Working mothers		Nonworking mothers	
	No. of mothers	% of mothers	No. of mothers	% of mothers
Housewife	161	75	135	63
Career woman	55	25	81	37

75% of the working mothers considered housewife role important and only 25% preferred career woman role. Among non-working mothers 63% preferred housewife role while 37% considered career woman role important.

When the comparison was made between the different groups of mothers grouped according to sex of the children, family type, age of the mother and the child, SES of the family, ordinal position of the child and number of children in the family, the percentages of the role preference as housewife of working and nonworking mothers ranged between 60 to 86% and 52 to 73% respectively.

Most of the working and nonworking mothers preferred the housewife role. It was noted from the data that with the increase in the age of the working mothers there was an increase in the percentage of preference for career woman (19, 27 and 30%). But in the case of nonworking mothers the preference for career woman role decreased with age (48, 32 and 31%). In the preference of career woman role the SES class II group from working and nonworking mothers scored higher percentages when compared with class I and III groups (25, 33 and 14% for working mothers and 36, 42 and 36% for nonworking mothers). It was also noted that working mothers from 2-3 children families preferred housewife role most (50, 76 and 74%) and nonworking mothers from 2-3 children families preferred career woman role most (40, 46 and 29%).

### 5.05 Enjoyment of work by mothers

Working mothers were asked to mark whether they are enjoying work outside and nonworking mothers were asked to mark whether they are enjoying work at home. The results are given in the following table.

**TABLE 5.05**  
**Table showing the enjoyment of work by working and nonworking mothers**

Response form	Working mothers		Nonworking mothers	
	No. of mothers	% of mothers	No. of mothers	% of mothers
Yes	129	60	186	86
No	87	40	30	14

60% of the working mothers and 86% of the nonworking mothers in this study expressed positive enjoyment in their respective fields of work, 40% of the working mothers and only 14% of the nonworking mothers gave negative answer.

When the sample was grouped according to different variables like sex of the children, family type, age of the child and the mother, SES of the family, ordinal position of the child and number of children in the family, the percentages of positive enjoyment of work by working and nonworking mothers ranged between 53 to 73% and 80 to 100% respectively.

It was noted from the data that with the increase in the age of the working and nonworking mothers, there was an increase in the percentage of positive enjoyment in their work (58, 59 and 61% of working mothers and 80, 86 and 95% of nonworking mothers). In the enjoyment of work, working and nonworking mothers from class II group scored higher percentages (59, 73 and 53% of working mothers and 79, 93 and 85% of nonworking mothers). Most of the working and nonworking mothers of the lastborn children said that they enjoyed their work in their present role (56, 59 and 65% of working mothers and 87, 84 and 90% of nonworking mothers). The working and nonworking mothers from the only child families scored higher percentages in their enjoyment of work (70, 59 and 63% of working mothers and 100, 83 and 90% of nonworking mothers).

#### **5.06 Mothers' satisfaction with the time they spend with their children**

Mothers who are working were asked to mark whether they were satisfied with the time they got to be with their children. As it was not appropriate to ask the same question to nonworking mothers they were asked the corresponding relevant question whether they spent enough time with their children in helping in their studies and in play. The following table shows the percentages of responses of working and nonworking mothers.

TABLE 5.06

Table showing the mothers' satisfaction with the time they spend with their children

Response form	Working mothers		Nonworking mothers	
	No. of mothers	% of mothers	No. of mothers	% of mothers
Yes	118	55	193	89
No	98	45	23	11

55% of the working mothers were satisfied with the time they got to be with their children. But 45% thought that the time they spent with their children was not adequate. Among nonworking mothers, 89% reported that they spent sometime with their children. Only 11% of such mothers did not spend enough time with their children. It is clear from the above table that most of the nonworking mothers were satisfied with the time they spent with their children, but about half of the working mothers were not satisfied.

When the comparison was made between the different groups based on sex of the children, family type, age of the mother and the child, SES of the family, ordinal position of the child and number of children in the family, the percentages of mothers' satisfaction with the time they spent with their children are 40 to 65% for working mothers and 80 to 100% for nonworking mothers.

It was also evident from the data that the working and nonworking mothers from nuclear families were more satisfied

than mothers from joint families with the time they stayed with their children (58 and 49% of working mothers and 92 and 85% of nonworking mothers from nuclear and joint families respectively).

With the increase in the age of the working mothers there was an increase in the percentages of satisfaction with the time they stayed with their children (40, 58 & 63%). But in the case of nonworking mothers, with the increase in the age of the mothers there was a decrease in the percentage of satisfaction with the time they stayed with their children (96, 86 & 86%). It was also clear from the data that working and nonworking mothers of 4-5 years age children had maximum satisfaction with the time they stayed with their children (60, 55 & 51% of working mothers and 95, 87 & 89% of nonworking mothers).

#### 5.07 Effect of outside work on the children

Working mother respondents were asked if there was any effect of outside work on their children. The percentages of responses are given in the following table.

TABLE 5.07

Table showing the effect of mothers' outside work on their children

Response form	No. of mothers	% of mothers
Yes	178	82
No	38	18

According to 82% of the mothers in the study, their work outside affected the bringing up of children. Only 18% gave a negative answer, saying that work did not affect the bringing up of children.

When the sample was grouped according to different variables, like sex of the children, family type, age of the child and the mother, SES of the family, ordinal position of the child and number of children in the family, the percentages of the effect of mothers' outside work on their children are between 78-92%.

It was also noted that more mothers from SES class III families said that their children are suffering from their outside work (81, 78 & 92%). Mothers with firstborn children and only children also said that the effect of their outside work on their children was more (90, 80 & 79% and 90, 81 & 84% respectively).

#### 5.08 The ways in which mother's work affected the children

The respondents were asked if their outside work affected their children and if so, how it did. The percentages of responses are given below.



TABLE 5.08

Table showing the different ways in which mothers' work affects their children

The different ways	No. of mothers	% of mothers
1. Less time to spend with them	98	45
2. Less time to help them in education	123	57
3. Methods of discipline are different and hence problems in the area of discipline	97	45
4. No time to take care when children are sick	89	41

Regarding the ways in which work of the mother outside affected their children, 45% of the mothers said that they had less time to spend with their children and they also had problems in the area of discipline. 57% of the mothers thought that they had less time to help their children in their studies and 41% said that they got no time to take care of children when they were sick.

When the comparison was made between the different groups like family type, age of child and the mother, SES of the family, ordinal position of the child and number of children in the family, and sex of the children, the percentages of the different ways in which mothers' work affects their children were the following. Less time to spend with them in case of 32 to 58%, less time to help them in education was true of 50 to 67% mothers, methods of discipline are different and

hence problem in the area of discipline was reported by 40 to 52% respondents and no time to take care when the children are sick in case of 32 to 60% cases.

#### 5.09 Arrangements made for the care of children of working mothers

Most of the mothers who are working outside made arrangements for their children when they were away from home. The different arrangements thus made have been analysed and the percentages are given below.

TABLE 5.09

Table showing the different arrangements made for the care of the children of working mothers

Substitute care	No. of mothers	% of mothers
a) Servant	72	33
b) Grandparent	42	19
c) Aunt	6	3
d) Older children	28	13
e) Neighbour	16	7
f) No one	52	24

The type and quality of substitute care which the working mother provide for her child is one of the most important factors affecting his well being and future development. In this study, when the mothers were away from home 33% of children were looked after by servants and 19% by grandparents. 13% of the children were looked after by older children in

the family and only 7% by neighbours. A considerable number, 24% of the children were left to look after themselves and only 3% by their aunts.

When the sample was grouped according to different variables, like sex of the children, family type, age of the child and the mother, SES of the family, ordinal position of the child and number of children in the family, the percentages of mothers reporting different arrangements made for the care of the children of working mothers ranged between as follows: by servant 14-44%, grandparent 13-40%, aunt 1-20%, older children 2-17%, neighbour 4-17% and by no one 20-33%.

The results also showed that the children from SES Class II families were cared mostly by grandparent and by servants in families from Class I families.

#### 5.10 Reported satisfaction regarding arrangements made for children

The mothers were asked whether the arrangements made for their children were satisfactory or not. The percentages of responses are given below.

TABLE 5.10

Table showing the percentages of satisfaction regarding arrangements made for children

Response form	No. of mothers	% of mothers
Yes	131	61
No	85	39

61% of the mothers in the study were satisfied with the arrangements made for their children. But 39% showed dissatisfaction with the arrangements.

When the sample was grouped according to different variables like sex of the children, family type, age of the child and the mother, SES of the family, ordinal position of the child and number of children in the family, the percentages of satisfaction regarding arrangements made for children was between 53 and 71%.

The results also show that with the increase in the mothers' age, the percentages of satisfaction regarding arrangements made for their children also increased (57, 61 and 64%). It was also seen from the data that with the increase in the child's age the mothers' satisfaction regarding arrangements also increased (58, 66 and 71%).

The percentage of satisfaction regarding arrangements made for children increased with increased SES class of the family (66, 56 and 53%).

#### **5.11 Mothers' opinion regarding children's growth**

Working and nonworking mothers were asked whether their children were growing as they should be. The following table gives the percentages of their opinion.

TABLE 5.11  
Table showing the percentages of mothers's opinon  
regarding children's growth

Response form	Working mothers		Nonworking mothers	
	No.of mothers	% of mothers	No.of mothers	% of mothers
Yes	147	68	213	99
No	69	32	3	1

68% of the working mothers thought that their children were growing normally while 32% of them gave negative answer, saying that their children were not growing up as they should be. Among the nonworking respondents, 99% of the mothers said that their children were growing normally. Only 1% of the non-working mothers said that their children were not growing up as they should be. The working status of the mother seem to have been perceived as a factor affecting negatively the development of children.

When the comparison was made between the different variables, like, sex of the children, family type, age of the child, and the mother, SES of the family, ordinal position of the child and number of children in the family, the percentages of mothers' opinion regarding childrens' growth was 61 to 90% for working mothers and 96 to 100% for nonworking mothers.

It was clear from the results that most of the nonworking mothers had positive opinion regarding their children's growth.

Working and nonworking mothers positive opinion on their children's growth also increased with increase in the SES class of the family-(70, 69 and 61% of working mothers and 100, 98 and 98% of nonworking mothers).

### 5.12 Timings of mothers' leaving for and returning from work

Mothers were asked whether they left before the children left for school and also whether their children returned before the mother. The following table gives the percentages of the mothers responses.

**TABLE 5.12**  
**Table showing the percentages of mothers' leaving for and returning from work in relation to children's school schedule**

Response form	No. of mothers	% of mothers
Mother leaves before the children leave for schools;		
Yes	67	31
No	149	69
Mother at home when children return:		
a) Always	39	18
b) Usually	25	12
c) Sometimes	106	49
d) Never	46	21

69% of the mothers left home after sending their children to schools. But 31% of the mothers in the study left home earlier. Approximately half of the sample of mothers in the

study, i.e. 49% reached home only sometimes before the arrival of their children. 18% of mothers reached home always before the children and 12% said that they reached home usually before the children. 21% of the mothers never reached home before the children.

When the comparison was made between the different groups, like sex of the children, family type, age of the child and the mother, SES of the family, ordinal position of the child, number of children in the family, the percentage of — girls mothers leaving home before their children was less (36% of boys mothers and 28% of girls mothers). The percentages of mothers leaving for work before the children increased in joint families (nuclear families 34% and joint families 84%). The percentage also increased with the mothers' age and child's age (33, 35 and 37% in different mothers' ages, 34, 34 and 42% in different child's ages).

It was also evident from the data that SES has some effect on the percentages of mothers' leaving for work (23, 36 and 67% of Class I, II and III respectively). Number of children in the family also had some effect on mothers' leaving home (50, 35 and 32% for only child families, 2-3 children families and more than 3 children families respectively).

The percentages of mothers returning home 'sometimes' before the children are more than in any other group. The per-

centages of mothers always at home when children returned from school was between 11 to 30%.

### 5.13 Husband's reaction in relation to wife's work

Working mothers were asked about their husband's opinion regarding their work outside. The following table gives the percentages of responses of working mothers.

**TABLE 5.13**  
Table showing the husband's satisfaction from wife's work outside the home as indicated by the working mothers

Response form	No. of mothers	% of mothers
Satisfied	133	62
Indifferent	66	30
Objects	17	8

62% of the working mothers in the study reported that their husbands were satisfied with their going out to work. Whereas 30% of them said that their husbands were indifferent, 8% objected to their wife's working outside.

When the sample was grouped according to different variables, like sex of the children, family type, age of the child and the mother, SES of the family, ordinal position of the child and number of children in the family, the percentages of the husband's satisfaction from wife's work outside the home showed that the majority of the husbands are satisfied



(51 to 90%), 10-43% of the husbands are indifferent and only 2-13% of the husbands are objecting to mothers' work outside the home.

With the increase in family's SES condition the husband's satisfaction towards wife's work outside the home also increased (51, 56 and 67%).

With the increase in number of children in the family the percentages of the husband's satisfaction towards wife's work outside the home decreased (90, 63 and 55%).

#### 5.14 Husband's satisfaction from wife's role as housewife as indicated by nonworking mothers

Nonworking mothers were asked about their husband's opinion regarding their work at home. The following table gives the percentages of responses of nonworking mothers.

TABLE 5.14

Table showing the husband's satisfaction from wife's work at home

Response form	No. of mothers	% of mothers
Satisfied	148	69
Indifferent	57	26
Objects	11	5

69% of the nonworking mothers in the study reported that their husbands were satisfied with their work. But 26% of them said that their husbands were indifferent and only 5% objected to their being only housewives.

When the comparison was made between the different groups based on sex of the children, family type, age of the child and mother, SES of the family, ordinal position of the child and number of children in the family, the percentages of husband's satisfaction from wife's work at home showed that the majority of the husbands are satisfied (62 to 81%), 14-34% of the husbands are indifferent and only 1 to 7% of the husbands are objecting to wife's work only at home.

The percentages of the husband's satisfaction was more from only child families, when compared with 2-3 children families and more than 3 children families.

With the increase in child's age the husband's satisfaction from wife's work at home decreased (73, 67 and 65%).

As mother's age increased the percentages of the husband's satisfaction from wife's work at home also increased (62, 72 and 75% of 20-29 years, 30-39 years and 40 and above years age group respectively).

#### 5.15 Children's opinion towards their mothers' work outside the home

Working mothers were asked to indicate their opinion whether their children object to their role as career women. The percentages of responses are given in the following table.

Table showing the children's opinion towards their mothers' work outside the home

Response form	No. of mothers	% of mothers
Objects to work outside		
Yes	53	25
No	163	75

When the working mothers were asked whether their children objected to their outside work 75% of the mothers answered negatively and only 25% of the mothers gave a positive answer. It can be noted that one-fourth of the respondents children objected to their mothers' employment.

When the sample was grouped according to different variables like sex of the child, family type, age of the child and mother, SES of the family, ordinal position of the child and number of children in the family, the percentages show that the majority of the children didn't object their mothers' work outside the home (65 to 90%).

The results also show that more children from nuclear families objected mothers' work outside than children from joint families (31% and 11%).

With the increase in number of children in the family the percentages of children objecting mothers' work outside also increased (10, 23 and 29%).

#### **5.16 Children's responses towards their mother's work at home**

Nonworking mothers were asked to indicate their opinion whether their children object to their role as housewives only. The following table gives the percentages of responses of mothers.

TABLE 5.16

Table showing the children's opinion towards their mothers' work at home

Response form	No. of mothers	% of mothers
Objects to role as housewife only:		
Yes	6	3
No	210	97

When the nonworking mothers were asked whether their children said anything about their staying at home 97% of them answered negatively. Only 3% of the mothers gave a positive answer. It can be noted that a very few of the respondents children objected to their mothers work at home.

When the sample was grouped according to different variables like sex of the children, family type, age of the child and the mother, SES of the family, ordinal position of the child and number of children in the family, the percentages show that the majority of the children didn't object their mothers remaining at home (94 to 100%) and playing the role of housewives only.

#### 5.17 Tiredness of mother working outside or at home

Working and nonworking mothers were asked whether they felt excessively tired by working outside or at home respectively. The following table gives the percentages of responses given by working and nonworking mothers.

**TABLE 5.17**  
**Table showing the tiredness of the mother working**  
**outside or at home**

Response form	Working mothers		Nonworking mothers	
	No. of mothers	% of mothers	No. of mothers	% of mothers
Tired from work:				
Yes	148	69	148	22
No	68	31	168	78

Most of the working mothers, i.e. 69% feel excessively tired by outside work and 31% were not tired with outside work. 78% of the nonworking mothers were not tired with housework and 22% reported to be feeling tired with housework.

When the comparison was made between the different groups, based on sex of the children, family type, age of the mother and child, SES of the family, ordinal position of the child and number of children in the family, the percentages of tiredness of mothers working outside or at home was 59-82% and 0-42% respectively.

The results also show that the working mothers and non-working mothers with firstborn children were more tired with work than the other two groups of mothers with middleborn and lastborn children (75, 69 and 61% of working mothers and 27, 22 and 20% of nonworking mothers).

More of working and nonworking mothers from 20-29 years age group were excessively tired with outside or housework

than the other two groups of mothers (76, 68 and 59% of working mothers and 30, 21 and 17% of nonworking mothers). Age appears to influence the feeling of tiredness from one's work.

### 5.18 Family's gain from mothers employment

In this group mothers' opinion was sought to find out the advantage of their employment for the family. The percentages of responses are given in the following table.

**TABLE 5.18**  
**Table showing the family's gain from mothers' employment**

Response form	No. of mothers	% of mothers
Advantage from work:		
Yes	181	84
No	35	16

84% of the mothers in the study said that their families gained from their work outside. Only 16% of the mothers in the study thought that there was no gain for the family.

When the sample was grouped according to different variables like sex of the children, family type, age of the child and mother, SES of the family, ordinal position of the child and number of children in the family, the percentages of the family's gain from mothers' employment was between 67 and 91%.

The results also show that with the increase in the family's socio-economic status the percentage of mothers reporting a gain from employment increased (90, 78 and 76%). Mothers of 30-39 years age group reported maximum gain from their work outside (76, 91 and 83%).

## SECTION - II

### INDEPTH INTERVIEWS OF WORKING AND NONWORKING MOTHERS

3 working mothers and 3 nonworking mothers with children of the 3 different age groups were selected by random method. They were contacted at home working mothers on a holiday and nonworking mothers on a working day. They were interviewed by the investigator around midday using a schedule. The responses of the mothers were noted down by the investigator on the spot. The data were codified and analysed. In the following sections are given the information given by 3 working mothers and 3 nonworking mothers separately.

#### Working Mothers

Personal data	Mother I	II	III
1. Age	37 years	35	45
2. Educational Qualification			
Mother	B.A.	Matric	III
Father	B.A.	IX	IX

Personal data	Mother I	II	III	
3. Occupation	Mother Father	Teacher Teacher	Clerk Peon	Cleaner Watchman
3. Income	Mother Father	Rs.1600/- Rs.1800/-	Rs.1300/- Rs.1000/-	Rs. 700/- Rs. 900/-
5. Family Structure	Nuclear	Nuclear	Nuclear	
6. No. of children	3 children	8 children	4 children	
	Boys Girls	10y, 6y, 4y	18y, 14, 8, 4 17, 12, 10, 6	18y, 13, 9 17 years
7. Ordinal Position	3rd	7th	4th (last)	
8. Age of the child	4 years	6 years	9 years	
11. Years of Service	15 years	7 years 10 months	8 years	
12. Age of this child when mother started work	not born	not born	one year	

### 13. Reason for Continuing Work

Two mothers who are not highly educated gave the reason for taking up employment. as financial, to help the family, to be independent, for saving for future and because most of the Khasi women work outside. The one who is a graduate gave the reason as not to waste her education by remaining at home and also because most of the Khasi women work outside.



#### 14. Working with Comfortable Financial Condition

Two mothers wanted to work outside even though they had comfortable financial condition. One of them wanted to work because of her degree. But the other one with less education also wanted to go out for work because she likes going out and mixing with people. Only one mother wanted to stay at home and see to the family's needs if the family's financial condition is comfortable.

#### 15. Mother's Awareness of Dual Responsibility

All the three mothers were aware of the dual responsibility as a housewife and a career woman before undertaking the present job.

#### 16. Time of Leaving for Work and Returning from Work

Two mothers leave home at 9.30 a.m. and return back at 4.30 p.m. One mother who is a teacher goes out at 8.30 a.m. and returns back at 3.30 p.m.

#### 17. Leaving Home Before the Child Goes to School

All the three mothers go to work after sending their children to school.

#### 18. Returning Home Before the Children

Two mothers didn't reach home before the children returned from School. One mother's child manages on his own with the help of older children until his mother comes home. The mother finds this arrangement satisfactory and she does not

want to have any other arrangement. The second mother's child was cared by elder brother who stays at home after returning from his morning school. The mother arranged for him morning shift school because of the circumstances. She finds this arrangement satisfactory, but if money permits she wants to keep a servant to look after the housework and children. The third mother comes home with her child.

#### 19. Looking after Children on School Holidays if Mother cannot be at Home

This problem does not arise for one mother as she is a teacher who gets the same holidays. The other two mothers' children manage on their own.

#### 20. Child's Spending of Time on Holidays

Two mothers' children spend the time on their own. They do their duties at home and then play with their friends. The third mother is at home with the children.

#### 21. Taking Care of the Child when he is sick

One mother is able to take leave and look after the child when he is sick. The other two mothers also, usually take leave, but if not possible, father takes leave and looks after the child.

#### 22. Affect of Work on Children

Two mothers thought that their work affect the bringing up of their children. Their studies were neglected because

of some responsibilities at home and disciplining is difficult as there are too many children. One mother thought that her work doesn't affect the children except that sometimes she is unable to spend more time with her children.

### **23. Children's Opinion About Mother's Work**

One mother expressed positive opinion of her child towards her work outside. She says that her children express sometimes the advantages of her working. The other two mothers said that their children never said anything about their work outside.

### **24. Mother's Enjoyment of Work Outside**

All the three mothers expressed that they enjoyed the work outside.

### **25. Husband's Opinion About her Work Outside**

All the three mothers had the opinion that their husbands are satisfied with their work outside. Two mothers said that their husbands never complained about their work, but one mother said that her husband sometimes grumbled as he had to shoulder more responsibilities at home.

### **26. Family's Gain from Mother's Employment**

All the three mothers thought that their families gained by their work. Financially all the three families are better off because of their work, as there are no debts and they can buy the necessities of life. Two mothers said that they are

able to save some money for the future. One family even built a small house with her earnings. They feel that their children -- are independent and are able to take responsibilities. -

### **27. Helping the Child in Studies**

Two mothers help their children in their studies after their cooking work. One mother who studied upto Class III only cannot help them in studies, but forces them to sit and study on their own. Sometimes the father also helps in children's studies.

### **28. Playing with the Child**

All the three mothers gave positive answer. But two mothers spend sometime only. Usually the children play together and also with neighbour's children. One mother only spends sometime telling them stories and jokes.

### **29. Child Talking About his School and Friends**

All the three mothers said that their children talk about their school and friends. Usually they sit and talk in the evening or at dinner time.

### **30. Child Helping in Housework**

Two mothers said that their children help in the house work. But one mother whose child is only 4 years said that her son never helps in housework as he is too young.

### **31. Difficulty in Controlling the Child**

Two mothers had no difficulty in controlling their

children. But one mother said she could not control them. One father controls them and sometimes even beat them.

### 32. Settling of Quarrels Between the Children

The two mothers who control the children, even settle their quarrels. The other mother never settles their quarrels. Usually the father settles it.

#### Nonworking Mothers

Personal data	Mother I	II	III	
1. Age	25 years	28	35	
2. Educational Qualification	Mother Father	Matric P.U.	Class II Matric	Illiterate Illiterate
3. Occupation	Father	Clerk	Blacksmith	Driver
4. Income	Rs.1800/-	Rs. 500/-	Rs.2000/-	
5. Family Structure	Nuclear	Nuclear	Nuclear	
6. No. of Children	2 children	3 children	7 children	
	Boys	1. 7 years	1 - 2 years	6-15,12,10, 9,6,1 years
	Girls	1. 3 years	2 - 8 years 5 years	1-16 years
7. Ordinal Position	First	Second	Fifth	
8. Age of the child	7 years	5 years	9 years	

### **9. Satisfaction of Mother Staying at Home**

Two mothers who are not educated are satisfied to be at home as housewives only, but one mother who is matriculate thinks that she is wasting her education. She wants to work outside as many mothers are working outside.

### **10. Whether Likes to Work Outside**

One mother who is illiterate does not like to work outside. Other two mothers are willing to work outside. One mother wanted to work for financial reason and she is willing to take any part time work as she had no education. The other mother, who is a matriculate wants to use her knowledge and enjoy life outside while working. She prefers work in any office, but if not possible, wants to settle with a shop.

### **27. Helping the Child in Studies**

Two mothers who had no education cannot teach their children. Usually they force them to sit and study, and sometimes their fathers teach them. One mother helps them in homework.

### **28. Playing With the Children**

All the three mothers said that they sit together and talk and have fun.

### **29. Child Talking about his School and Friends**

All the three mothers answered positively. One mother said that her child even tells her about what he saw on the way to school.

### 30. Child Helping in Housework

Two mothers said that their children help in the house work. One mother, whose child is only 5 years said that her daughter never helps in housework as she is too young.

### 31. Difficulty in Controlling the Child

All the three mothers had no difficulty in controlling their children. Children obey their mothers in all the three families.

### 32. Settling of Quarrels Between the Children

Usually the mother settled the quarrels of the children. Only at times the father had to intervene.

## CHAPTER - VI



## DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

This chapter attempts to discuss the possible effects of the employment of mothers on the children. The differences of working and nonworking mothers' children on the eight personality factors under different variables have been reported in an earlier chapter.

The results of this study showed no significant differences between working mothers' children and nonworking mothers' children on each of the eight personality factors, social ascendance, personal responsibility, social effectiveness, introvertive self-sufficiency, personal attractiveness, personal security and stability, compulsive domination and dependability. Mothers' outside employment as such didn't show any significant effect on their children's personality. This may be due to the accepted tradition of Khasi mothers going to work, many of the problems may be lightened. The children may be finding their own position to be the same as many of their fellows and may not likely to feel that they are missing something.

The earlier studies of employed mothers in the United States compiled together by Nye and Hoffman (1963), Study by Feguson & Cunnison (1951), Scott's study (1965), Kimball (1978), Alison Clarke-Stewart (1977), Lazarus (1961) and Stoltz (1960) show that there were no differences on the average in personality factors between children of mothers who work outside

the home and children of mothers who do not work outside the home. Yudkin & Holme (1969) quote Cartwright & Jeffereys' study which also showed no differences in general in matters such as self-confidence, cooperativeness, sociability etc., between working and nonworking mothers' children. Howell (1973) after surveying 300 studies says that there were almost no constant differences found between the children of employed and non-employed mothers.

In India, Kapur's study (1970), the findings of Ranade & Ramachandran (1970), Barot (1972), Srivastava (1972), Dhingra (1972) and some surveys conducted by various magazines (Dharma-yug, 1968 and Eve's Weekly, 1973) all prove that mothers' employment as such does not influence the lives of children and does not affect their personality development.

The studies cited provide evidences that maternal employment by itself is not related to personality development.

But in their researches Flora F. Cherry & Ethel L. Eaton (1977), Aswell, Kathleen M. Saner (1982), Clarke (1977), Eagle (1964), Clarke-Stewart, Koch (1983), Maccoby (1961) and Moore (1964) quoted by Krech, Crutchfield, Livson & Krech (1976), highlighted several advantages like independence, self assuredness, competence etc., in working mothers' children.

Rapaport's Survey (quoted by Hann 1976) also had the same result. In India Roy's (1964) and Goswami's (1986) studies also indicated certain advantages like less delinquency, more affection, more cooperativeness etc. in working mothers' children.

There are some other studies which showed negative effect on children whose mothers work outside. They include Locksley (1980), Bowlby (1952), Pawar (1959), Ved (1960), Desai & Oke (1957), Manocha (1977), Jayalakshmi (1980), Rajalakshmi (1961) and Vasantha Kumar's (1964) studies which indicated rather injurious influence of mothers going to work on the personality of their children.

When comparison was made between the two sexes of children, there was no significant difference between working and nonworking mothers' children on any of the eight personality factors. This shows that there was no difference between working mothers' boys and girls when compared with non-working mothers' boys and girls.

The results, however, are different from the findings of Parsons (1955), D'Andrade (1966), Crandall & Rabson (1960), Emmerich (1966), Kagan & Moss (1960), Maccoby (1961, 1966), Bayley (1964), Kagan & Freeman (1963), Hann (1976), Alvarez (1985), Bronfenbrenner (1961), Bronfenbrenner & Crouter (1982), Douvan & Adelson (1966), Elder (1974), Hoffman (1983), Kimball (1978), Hetherington (1979), Gold & Andres (1978), Saran (1973)

and Manocha (1977) which reported differences in boys and girls of working and nonworking mothers. Most of these researchers found that mothers' work had an advantageous effect on daughters but a negative effect on her sons. This dissimilarity in results may be due to the differences in the social system from which the sample of children were drawn. In the present study the children belonged to the matrilineal system. As the families in most other parts are patriarchal, the majority of the studies conducted earlier were on children from such families. In these families it is probable that the facts like special privileges of boys and disadvantages suffered by girls are continually fed on to the growing child, and hence their entire upbringing and personality development are influenced by such value orientation. The socio-psychological facts of matrilineal societies are different from the above pattern.

When comparison was made between working and nonworking mothers' children belonging to different family structures, there was no significant difference on any of the eight personality factors. This shows that there was no significant difference between the working and nonworking mothers' children from nuclear and joint families.

This finding did not support the findings of Clausen (1966), Sinha (1982), Whiting (1961) and Gore (1978) who found that nuclear family atmosphere encourages independence and individuality in a child on account of its more permissive atmosphere. The research results found in this study also did

not agree with Jayaswal (1976), Thomas (1976) and Singh's (1980) studies reporting advantages for personality development in children from joint families.

When comparison was made between the children with working and nonworking mothers of different age groups there was no significant difference between the children of working and nonworking mothers aged 20-29 years, 30-39 years and 40 and above age group on any of the eight personality factors compared.

This finding is somewhat different from the findings of Hurlock (1978, 1983) indicating differences between the children with mothers of different age groups.

Clarke (1977), Goode (1964), Hoffman (1974), Freud and Burlingham (1961), Bossard & Boll (1966) and Rabin's (1957) study with Kibbutz versus home-reared children report that young children are more susceptible than older children to damaging effects of separation from mothers. So also the findings of Hann (1976), which indicate that older children as compared to younger children gain materially and psychologically when both parents work. This tendency was also found by Woods (1972), and Jersild, Telford and Sawrey (1975) who found that working mothers older children achieved better social adjustment. But in the present study there was no significant difference between working and nonworking mothers' children from three different age groups, i.e. 4-5 years, 6-8

years and 9-10 years, on any of the eight personality factors studied. The finding is somewhat similar to the results obtained by Kimball (1978) who compared adjustment problems of young children of paid and nonpaid mothers and found no differences.

According to Sewell (1964) there is a growing body of evidence from empirical studies of several types indicating difference between the position of the child in the stratification system and some aspects of personality, including measured personality adjustment. The attitudes and values that are associated with various social-class levels generate parental behaviour that affects children's development in several ways (Watson & Lindgren, 1973). Melvin L. Kohn's Study and the Study by Kagan & Freeman (1963) yielded some data that throw light on this problem.

The present study showed significant difference on factor D between working and nonworking mothers' children from only the SES Class II families representing broadly the middle class. The working mothers' children showed a more positive oriented personality disposition. They had favourable qualities like social ease, friendly behaviour and social sensitivity which shows spontaneous, natural and unaffected behaviour with cooperative and leadership qualities. Probably when middle class mothers take up work, they may be feeling a greater responsibility for making up for their absence, by better organization, by consciously planning to be with their children,

or anticipating and preventing difficulties in their children's life. In depth interviews also indicated this. When middle class mothers work, they usually are in a position to arrange reliable care best for their children. The advantage of working mothers' children may be because of a much wider area of social interaction of their mothers which provides them with different kinds of situations and people. Studies by Goode (1964), Macoby (1961), Essig and Morgan (1961), Pavenstedt (1965) and Wortis and Associates (1963) also support these conclusions.

However, the findings of Sewell & Haller (1959), Drucker & Remmers (1952), Sims (1954), Stott (1945a, 1945b), Gough (1946), Hoffeditz (1934), Mintzer & Sargent (1939), Patterson (1943), and Auld (1952b) showed that children of lower economic status experiences more frustration and more personality problems. As an explanation they say that mothers from low class families react by the needs of the moment rather than by any clear long term plan about how to bring up children and how to train them to engage in the kind of behaviour that the parents regard as acceptable or desirable.

The child's ordinal position in the family is also often thought to be important in shaping his personality (Hurlock, 1983; Mussen & Kagan, 1974; & Helen Koch, 1955). The quality as well as the quantity of parent-child interaction varies with birth order. Considerable evidence has been accumulated showing that firstborn children differ in significant ways from laterborn children.

But the present study showed no significant differences between the working and nonworking mothers' first, middle and -- last children on all the personality factors. This is different from the findings of Watson & Lindgren (1973), McDonald (1969a, b), McArthur (1956), Rothbart (1967), Altus (1971), Clarke (1977), Mavis & Ross (1975), Koch (1955), Craig (1976), Elkind, Irving B. Weiner (1978), Hetherington & Parke (1975), Baughman (1965) and Mussen & Kagan (1974) who found favourable results with firstborn children. Their argument is that parents with firstborn children having smaller families may be spending more time with their children, taking them out and meeting other people which makes them favourable on personality factors than the other children. But Adler (1930), Rank (1929), Hurlock (1983), Lasko (1984), Dean (1947)- and Desai (1975) indicated favourable results in the case of middle and lastborn children. According to them parents of the firstborns indulge the children too much that it takes more time for them to adjust to the different role models and they tend to become dependent.

The size of the family influences the personality pattern both directly and indirectly (Hurlock, 1983; Simms and Simms, 1969; Clarke, 1977; Bossard & Boll, 1966; Brim, 1958; Clausen, 1966; Fauls & Smith, 1956; Freeberg & Payne, 1957; and Maynard, 1970).

In the present study in personality factor D, there was significant difference between the children of working



and nonworking mothers from more than 3 children families. Mothers' responses also show that with the increase in the number of children there was an increase in the percentage of work preference outside the home by mothers. But there were no significant differences between the other groups of children from working and nonworking mothers. This study seems to support the conclusions of Maccoby (1961) and Mavis & Ross (1975). But it is contrary to the studies of Hurlock (1983), Simms & Simms (1969), Hetherington & Parke (1975), Nuttall & Nuttall (1971), Weinberg (1971) and Lieberman (1973) who found that children from small families are independent and had better personal and social adjustments.

In large families' the child gets chance to interact more with brothers and sisters, the affectional relationship between mother and child will be less intense and so the child may not be suffering due to his mother's work outside. In large families when the mother is away, the older children in the family take care of younger children and as a result the younger children may not probably so much miss their mother. Mothers' responses also indicate that less percentage of mothers left home before the children left for school from more than three children families. These may explain the results found among children of working mothers from large families.

A number of questions on mothers going out to work or staying at home as the case may be, were answered in response

to questions put in the questionnaire and during the interview of a small sample of mothers. The percentage distribution of responses given by the working mothers in this study stating reasons of employment shows that mothers, essentially worked for financial benefits. In a similar study Kapur (1972) also concluded that 34% of the working women in his sample took to jobs to raise the standard of living or to supplement their husbands' insufficient income. Klein's study (1965, pp.36-37) also found that seventy-three per cent women worked for money. The Bombay (Ramachandran, 1964) and Jodhpur (Talwar, 1984) studies also mentioned that a large proportion of working women took up jobs for economic reasons (69%, 65% and 77.5% respectively). Carl Rosenfeld and Perrella (1965) present data saying that 42% in their study gave financial need as their reason for joining some work. In the case of women whose husbands' incomes were relatively low, need for more money was stated as an important reason for taking up work (Baker et al, 1980, p.129).

More than half the sample of mothers in this study preferred to continue their work even with comfortable financial condition. In Blumberg & Dwaraki's study in Bangalore (1980, p. 94) where it was asked whether or not the working woman would prefer to work if there was no financial need, 85% responded affirmatively. It is noteworthy that even among those who give financial need as their reason for working, most said

that they would not stop working (Farree, 1976; Rosenfeld and Perrella, 1965). According to Viola Klein (1960) and also in the study in Bermondsey (1960), for most women the aim was a higher standard of living for their families than for the necessities of life. Kapur (1970, p. 395) reported that educated women take up jobs not only out of sheer economic necessity but also out of various other socio-psycho situational reasons. According to Yudkin and Holme (1969, p. 51) "a mother who had been trained for a profession or some other highly skilled occupation often wants to continue in or seek outside employment because of a liking for the job itself or by a sense of vocation". The more education and training a woman has, the more likely she is to give personal satisfaction rather than need as her reason for being employed (Baker et al, 1980, p.130). In the present study preference of work may also be related to the matrilineal social system in which majority of Khasi women work outside.

In this study working and nonworking mothers from nuclear families were more tired of work outside and at home respectively than mothers from joint families. This may be because of sharing of housework in joint families than in nuclear families. More mothers from joint families wanted to continue their work even though they preferred housewife role. Working mothers of 20-29 years age group preferred housewife role as they were more tired than the other groups and 40 and

above age group mothers preferred career woman role and wanted to continue their work. This shows a relation between mothers' age and preference of work outside the home. In the case of nonworking mothers those from 40 and above age group preferred the housewife role. This can be inferred from their responses that they enjoyed the work. Most of the mothers from 40 and above age group enjoyed their work whether outside or at home.

Working mothers with older children wanted to continue their work because they enjoyed their work outside and were more aware of the dual responsibility. But they were the most tired mothers with outside work when compared with mothers from other groups. This may be because of many other children at home. In Talwar's study (1984, p.172) also a little more than three-fourths of the working women felt over tired with outside work. But when the responses were divided according to children's age, the results were different to the present study which shows working mothers with small children were more tired. Blumberg and Dwaraki's study (1980, p. 95) agrees with this study on working women. 67% of the working women in their study felt outside work very tiring, while 33% of them expressed opposite opinion.

Mothers' preference for work decreased in the case of SES Class I families with comfortable financial position. More mothers from Class II families preferred career woman role as more mothers were aware of the dual responsibility and also

they enjoyed their outside work. In depth interviews with working mothers also showed that they were aware of the dual responsibilities at home and outside. Usually by better organisation of the work at home, by allotting duties to the children and husband, they were able to manage the work at home. Working mothers from class III families were the most tired when compared with other groups of mothers. These results also support the earlier findings of Talwar (1984) which indicated that among those who felt tired, the unskilled workers constituted the largest section. In this study the nonworking mothers from class I families were the most tired, which seems to support the conclusions of Blumberg and Dwaraki (1980) which showed over 70% of the mothers at home expressed dissatisfaction with their current status and stated that they would prefer to work.

Working mothers with firstborn children and nonworking mothers with middleborn children were the most tired ones with work outside or at home. But working and nonworking mothers with lastborn children enjoyed their work more. Working and nonworking mothers with more children preferred housewife role. But working mothers wanted to continue their work even with comfortable financial condition. Working and nonworking mothers from only child families enjoyed more as they were not tired with work at home or outside.

Most of the working mothers thought that their outside work affected their children. But the personality checklist

results were different showing no significant difference between the working and nonworking mothers' children. This indicates that on the whole mothers' work has no effect on their children. More mothers from 20-29 years age group, mothers with 4-5 and 9-10 years old children and mothers of firstborn and only children indicated negative effects of their work on their children. Mothers from class III families also said that their work affected their children. It was thus, found that a sizable section of working mothers were of the view that employment of women had negative effects on children. It may be inferred that lower the income of the working mothers, the more would they report adverse effect on their children. In depth interviews with working mothers also indicated that as such mothers work has no direct effect on children. But indirectly, when children were given more responsibilities due to their mothers' work, sometimes these duties made them neglect their studies which affected their education. About half of the working mothers and most of the nonworking mothers in the sample were satisfied with the time they got to be with their children. Working and nonworking mothers from nuclear families and with younger children were more satisfied with the time they got to be with their children. But working mothers from class I families were less satisfied with the time they got to be with their children when compared with nonworking mothers from class I families. When asked about the typical negative effects on children, most of the mothers in the sample indicated that

they had less time to spend with their children, less time to help them in education, no time to take care when children became sick and had problems in the area of discipline. But mothers' responses and indepth interviews with mothers showed no dissatisfaction of children with their mothers' work outside. This only shows mothers' guilty feelings. More working mothers from joint families with older children and from class III families left home before their children left for school and never reached home before their children returned. More mothers from 20-29 years age group and class I families left after sending their children and reached home before the children. In this study majority of the working mothers made some arrangements for their children. Most of them arranged servants and some children were looked after by grandparents. In Talwar's study (1984, p. 133) only 3.8% of the employed mothers left their children under the care of domestic servants. The importance of grandmother either in the home or nearby is also indicated in Yudkin and Holme's study (1969, p.68). One-fourth of the mothers in the sample didn't arrange anybody for their children as they thought that they can manage on their own. The Government Social Survey from Britain (1968) and the report from United States (1967) showed some differences in the percentage of mothers who left their children to look after themselves. The Government Social Survey Study found that 30.7% of the mothers of school age children, working full-time made no arrangements for their 5-15 years old children on return

from school and the report from the United States showed only 8% of children under 14 were left to look after themselves. Talwar's study (1984, p. 135) indicated that out of those employed mothers who had children of the age ranging from 6-17 years, slightly more than one-third of them reported that they did not need to make arrangements for their children. When the sample was divided for the two sexes separately, more of the boys' mothers said that they didn't arrange anybody and more of the girls' mothers reported to have arranged servants. But in Yudkin and Holme's study (1969, p.67) there was no difference between the two sexes. More mothers from class I, nuclear and only child families arranged servants whereas more mothers from class III families and with more children arranged no one for their children. 13% of the mothers in this study left their children under the care of older siblings. In Talwar's study (1984, p. 132) 20.4% of the working mothers stated that the elder siblings looked after the younger ones. In Klein's study (1965, p.56) 15% of the working mothers held the same view. Nolan (1959) reported that only 8% of the working mothers left their children in the care of elder sibling. Yudkin and Holme (1969, p. 67) found a considerable number, about two-thirds, had older brothers or sisters. More than 50% of the mothers were satisfied with the arrangements made for their children. Mothers aged 40 and above, from joint families with older children and also from class I families with only children were more satisfied with their arrangements than



the other groups of mothers. More than 50% of the working mothers and almost all the nonworking mothers indicated that their children were growing normally. The working mothers belonging to joint families reported less negative effects and more positive effects on children in comparison to the working mothers belonging to nuclear families. It was possible because their children were taken care of by others in the family when the working mothers were out to work but this opportunity was not available to the children of working mothers who belonged to nuclear families. These results seem to support the conclusions of Talwar's study (1984, p.121). Working and nonworking mothers from class I families reported positive effects on their children. Working mothers with younger children reported negative effects. More mothers from nuclear families, class I families and with only children thought that their husbands were satisfied with their outside work. More mothers from joint families, 20-29 years age group and from class III families reported that their husbands objected to their work outside. It is of significance that in Kapur's study (1974) 86% of the husbands did not mind their wives being in job, whereas only 10% of them did not want their wives being employed. In Klein's study (1965) 60% of the working women reported that their husbands approved of it, 6% approved conditionally and 5% were indifferent. Kapadia (1954) found that 44.2% of the teachers interviewed favoured the idea of women's employment. Ross (1961) also found in her study that two-thirds of the men inter-

viewed favoured the idea of women planning careers. Nye (1963) also found that husbands of working women generally approved women's employment. Yudkin and Holme (1969, p. 55) say "that although a majority of husbands apparently do not actively object to their wives going out to work, there is still a long way to go before one can talk of a really full liking for such arrangement. There is a general tendency for the husbands to -- accept their wives going out to work as a necessity". In Detroit sample (Hoffman, 1949) 16% of working mothers reported that their husbands gave unqualified approval to their working and 19% reported that their husbands were opposed to the idea. In Gore's study (1968) of Delhi Aggarwal families, 43% of them totally rejected the idea, 24% accepted it and 33% said that women might work under special circumstances.

In case of children's satisfaction about their mothers going for work, more working mothers said that their children didn't mind their work outside. But children from nuclear families, from class III families, and with large families objected their outside employment. This may be due to shouldering of more responsibilities at home. Majority of nonworking mothers said that their husbands were satisfied with their role as housewives. More mothers of 40 and above age group from nuclear families, with younger children reported positive answer. Mothers from class III families, with more children and last-born children' said that their husbands objected their staying

at home without any outside work. But most of the nonworking mothers reported their children's positive satisfaction towards their work at home. Talwar's study (1984, p.203) indicated the family members' satisfaction on working women. She reported that less than 10% objected to their employment and almost 75% of them accepted the idea. Most of the working mothers said that their families gained from their work outside. Girls' mothers, mothers from nuclear families, mothers from class I families and with more children gave a positive response.

Mothers from indepth study also indicated their families better position due to their work outside. Working mothers gave a positive opinion of their children saying that they are independent and can shoulder responsibilities in their absence.

Indepth interviews with working mothers showed that to make up their absence in the day time, the mothers usually spent sometime with their children in the evening, playing, helping them in studies and listening about their day's activities. The mothers were able to control and settle their children's quarrells like the mothers from nonworking group.

## SUMMARY OF FINDINGS AND CONCLUSIONS

The objective of the present study was to find out differences in the social aspects of personality of Khasi children of working and nonworking mothers. This also included the different factors which were considered affecting the development of the children. They were sex of the child, family type, age of the mother and the child, SES of the family, ordinal position of the child and number of children in the family. The study was conducted in Shillong, capital of Meghalaya state, because it includes majority of Khasi working mothers. In the sample 4-10 years old children were selected because reviews showed that young children were more susceptible than older children to damaging effects of separation from mother. In the analysis of data, comparisons were made between children of working and nonworking mothers and also the different variables selected. The factors included in the social aspect of personality are social ascendance, personal responsibility, introvertive self-sufficiency, social effectiveness, personal attractiveness, personal security, stability, compulsive domination and dependability.

1. The results of testing the hypotheses showed no significant differences between the working and nonworking mothers' children in all the eight personality factors, social ascendance, personal responsibility, introvertive self-sufficiency, social effectiveness, personal attractiveness, personal security,

stability, compulsive domination and dependability. Mothers' employment as such appeared to be of no importance as an influence on the lives of children, and it perhaps does not affect their personality development.

2. This study found no influences attributable to the sex type of the child in comparing the personality of the working and nonworking mothers' children. Hence the hypothesis II framed earlier is supported by the data available.

3. The data provide support to the null hypothesis III which showed that there was no significant difference between the working and nonworking mothers' children from nuclear and joint families in all the eight personality factors studied.

4. No significant differences were found between the children of working and nonworking mothers aged 20-29 years, 30-39 years and 40 and above age group, in any of the eight personality factors. This supports the null hypothesis IV framed earlier.

5. There was no significant difference between working and nonworking mothers' children aged 4-5, 6-8 and 9-10 years old on any of the eight personality factors compared. These results also support the null hypothesis V.

6. The results showed no significant differences between working and nonworking mothers' first, middle and last children

on the eight personality factors compared. This supports the null hypothesis VII framed earlier.

All the null hypotheses I, II, III, IV, V and VII framed earlier were supported with the data available, indicating that child's personality would not be associated with mothers' work status.

7. On factor D significant difference at .05 level was noticeable between working and nonworking mothers' children from class II families and also from more than 3 children families. This shows that the null hypotheses VI and VIII framed earlier were rejected in respect of this one factor. Thus this implies that there was an influence of class structure and number of children in the family on the personality of working and nonworking mothers' children. This shows that working mothers' children from class II and more than three children families had favourable qualities like social ease, friendly behaviour and social sensitivity which shows spontaneous, natural and unaffected behaviour, makes friends easily and secures cooperation from other children while making suggestions and contributing to the ideas of the group.

8. The other SES group comparisons did not show any significant differences on all the eight personality factors. There were also no significant differences between the children of working and nonworking mothers from only child, 2-3 children

and more than 3 children families in all the other seven personality factors, A,B,C,E,F,G and H.

9. The results of the responses of the mothers and indepth study of the mothers showed similar findings. 40 and above age mothers preferred whatever role they had and they enjoyed work at home or outside. Working mothers of this group were aware of the dual responsibilities and responded positively to the effects of their work on their children. Middle class mothers, i.e., class II, preferred career women role as they enjoyed their work outside and also aware of the dual responsibilities of the career women. Whereas working mothers from class III families were the most tired with long hours of outside work and responded negatively regarding the effects of their work on their children. Young mothers, aged 20-29 years and mothers with 4-5 age group children, were also the most tired mothers who gave negative answer. Working mothers from nuclear families and from class I were satisfied with the time they got to be with their children in contrast to mothers from joint families of class III status who had less time to devote to their children. Mothers from joint families, mothers with older children, mothers from only child families and class I were the most satisfied with the arrangements made for their children in their absence. Husbands' and childrens' views about their wives and mothers' outside work respectively as recorded by the working mothers showed that they were satisfied in the

case of class I families and in only child families, but it was not favourable in the case of class III families and in large families. Husbands from nuclear families were satisfied with their wives' work outside in contrast to children, who were satisfied from joint families.

10. Indepth study on a small sample of mothers showed working mothers families in a better position financially and their children were more independent and responsible. Mothers were able to help and control their children easily.

### Conclusions

In this study attempt has been made to see the differences of working and nonworking mothers' children on different personality factors. The results showed no significant differences between working and nonworking mothers' children on all the eight personality factors studied. When the sample was grouped according to different variables like sex of the children, family type, age of the mothers and children, SES of the family, ordinal position of the children and number of children in the families, which were considered affecting the development of the children, the results were in favour of working mothers' children from class II families and more than three children families on factor D when compared with nonworking mothers' children.

The responses of the mothers also showed that middle class i.e., class II mothers and mothers from more than 3 chil-



dren families preferred career women role as they enjoyed their work outside and also aware of the dual responsibility of the career women. They were also satisfied with the arrangements made for their children in their absence. In depth study results on mothers also showed the same trend in the results.

**Suggestions for further study:**

1. A comparative study of personality development of children of fulltime working mothers and part-time working mothers can be done.
2. A comparative study of personality development of working mothers' children from rural and urban setting can be taken for the study.
3. As this study is on one aspect of personality, other aspects of personality can be taken for the study.
4. A comparative study of working mothers' children from matrilineal and patriarchal societies can be undertaken.
5. There is a need to study and compare personality development of children of working mothers with and without pre-school attendance and experience.
6. A longitudinal study can be undertaken to see the progress of children of working mothers after the pre-school age upto adolescent age in research centres.

7. A study on the adjustment of adolescent daughters of employed and unemployed mothers can be undertaken.
8. Developmental comparisons of working and nonworking mothers' elementary school Khasi children may be taken for the study.
9. Effects of maternal employment on the academic achievement and performance of school aged Khasi children may be undertaken.
10. Comparison of dependence and independence in the children of working and nonworking mothers may be an interesting study.
11. The problems of Khasi working mothers at home and at work outside can be studied and compared with other working mothers in Shillong or other states.

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## APPENDICES

## APPENDIX Ia

### INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR WORKING MOTHERS

Name of the Child:

#### A. Personal data:

1. Mother's age:
2. Educational qualification: Mother:  
Father:
3. Occupation : Mother:  
Father:
4. Income per month: Mother: Rs.  
Father: Rs.
5. Family structure: i. Nuclear ii. Joint  
(Nuclear: mother, father and children  
Joint: mother, father, children and any others)
6. Number of children: Boys (age) girls (age)  
1. 1. 1.  
2. 2. 2.  
3. 3. 3.
7. Ordinal position of this child:

#### B. Attitudes of the family:

1. What is your main reason for working?  
a) financial b) to utilise education/training  
c) just to keep busy d) any other.
2. If the financial condition of your family is comfortable would you work all the same? Yes/No.
3. Before undertaking the job were you aware of your dual responsibility as a housewife and a career woman? Yes/No.
4. Which role you consider important? Housewife/Career woman.
5. Are you satisfied that the time you get to be with your children is adequate? Yes/No.
6. Do you think that your working outside affects the bringing up of your children in any way? Yes/No.

7. If it affects in what ways?
  - a) less time to spend with children
  - b) less time to help them in education
  - c) Methods of discipline by other caretakers differs and hence problems in the area of discipline.
  - d) No time to take care when children are sick.
8. Who looks after your children when you are away from home?
  - a) servant
  - b) grand parent
  - c) older children
  - d) aunt
  - e) neighbour
  - f) no one.
9. Do you think that the arrangement made is satisfactory? Yes/No.
10. Do you think that your child is growing up as he/she should be? Yes/No.
11. Do you feel excessively tired by working outside? Yes/No.
12. How does your husband feel about your work?
  - a) he is quite satisfied
  - b) he is indifferent
  - c) he objects.
13. Do you leave home before the children go to school? Yes/No.
14. On your working days, are you at home when the children return from school?
  - a) always
  - b) usually
  - c) sometimes
  - d) never.
15. How does your child feel about your going out to work?
  - a) he is quite satisfied
  - b) he is indifferent
  - c) he objects.
16. Do you on the whole enjoy going out to work? Yes/No.
17. Do you think your family gained by your going out to work? Yes/No.

APPENDIX Ib

KA KOT JINGTYNJUI NA KA BYNTA KI LONGKMIÉ BAITREIKAM

Ka kyrteng jong ka khun:

**Ka Jinglong Bashisha Jong U Briew**

1. Ka rta jong ka kmie:
2. Ka jingtbit (kyrdan) ha ka thoh ka p ule  
(haduh katno ki la leit skul) (kmie)  
(Kpa.)
3. Ka jingtrei ba thikna Kmie  
Kpa.
4. Ka tulop ne jingioh shi bnat. Kmie  
Kpa.
5. Ka rukom shonging shong sem (i) shi ung shi sem:  
(ii) shi ing shi sem bad kiwei de:
6. Katno ngut ki khun: Shynrang (snem) Kynthei (snem)  
(i) (i)  
(ii) (ii)  
(iii) (iii)
7. Ine i dei i khun iba katno?
  1. Ka ei ka daw ba kongsan jong phi ban trei?
    - (a) Ka pisa tngka?
    - (b) namar baioh jingstad/jinghikai/jingp yntbit?
    - (c) Tang ban shu myllen ialade ban ym pynlehnthei ia la ka por?
    - (d) kiwei de (tang kawei).
  2. Lada phi la biang ka pisa tyngka ha ing ha sem jong phi phin trei kumjuh hi? Hoid/em.
  3. Shwa ban shimti ia ka kam phi la sngewthuh ia ka jingkitkhiieh ba ar-ban jongphi kum ka kmie bad kum ka nongtrei kam? Hoid/em.
  4. -Ka ei phi khein kaba khan kongsan-ka jingkong-kmie? - -  
Ka jingtrei jong phi?
  5. Phi sngewhun sngewbiang ba ka por ba phi ioh ban pynlut bad la ki khun ki kti ka bang ne kam biang? Hoid/em.
  6. Phi tharai ba ka jingtrei kam shabar ka ktah ia ka jingpynheh pynsan ia la ki khun ha kano kano ka rukom? Hoid/em.

7. Lada ka ktah, ka ktah ha kano ka rukom?
  - (a) khyndiat eh ka por ban don bad la ki khun ki kti?
  - (b) Duna eh ka por ban iarap ia ki ha ka jingnang jingstad?
  - (c) 'Ka rukom ai jinghikai da ki nongsumar ka pher natmar kata ki mih ki jingeh ha ki katto katne ki liang?
8. Bym don por ban sumar haba ki khun ki pang?
8. Mano ba peit ba sumar ia ki khun jong phi haba phim don ha ing?
  - (a) Ki shakri (b) Mei leit-paiteite Ka kmie? (d) ka kiaw kurim?
  - (e) ki para marjan-marpa (f) kiwei kiwei?
9. Phi tharai ba kata ka jingpynbeit ka biang? Hoid/em.
10. Phi tharai ba i khun jong phi in heh in san kumba ka dei ban long? Hoid/Em.
11. Phi sngewthait palat da kaba phi trei shabar? Hoid/em.
12. Kuno u lok jongphi u sngew ia ka jingleit trei kam jong phi?
  - (a) U hun bha? (b) um sngew ei (c) u pyrshah?
13. Phi ju mih na ing ha shwa ban leit skul ki khun? Hoid/em.
14. Ha ki sngi trei jong phi, phi la don ha ing haba ki khun ki la wan phai na skul?
  - Barabor (b) man ka teng (c) teng teng (d) Ym ju don.
15. Ki khun jongp hi ki ju ong ei ei shaphang ka jingmih jongphi na ing ban leit trei?
  - Lada hoid, sngewbha iathuh ia kata.
16. Na ka liang jong phi phi sngewtynnad ban leit trei? Hoid/em.
17. Phi tharai ka ing ka sem jong phi ka loh jingmyntoi da ka jing leit trei kam jong phi? Hoid/em.

APPENDIX IIa

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR NONWORKING MOTHERS

Name of the child:

**A. Personal data:**

1. Mothers' age:
2. Educational qualification: Mother:  
Father:
3. Occupation of father:
4. Income per month: Rs.
5. Family structure i. Nuclear ii. Joint  
(Nuclear: mother, father and children  
Joint : mother, father, children and any others)
6. Number of children: Boys (age) girls (age)  
1. 1.   
2. 2.   
3. 3.
7. Ordinal position of this child:

**B. Attitudes of the family:**

1. Apart from looking after your own home, have you got any other work? at home/outside.
2. Are you satisfied being at home as a housewife? Yes/No.
3. Given a choice, which role you will prefer? Career woman/housewife.
4. Do you spend sometime in helping your children in their studies? Yes/No.
5. Do you think that your child is growing up as he/she should be? Yes/No.
6. Do you feel tired by working at home? Yes/No.
7. How does your husband feel about your staying at home?  
a) he is quite satisfied b) he is indifferent c) he objects.
8. How does your child feel about your staying at home?  
a) he is quite satisfied b) he is indifferent c) he objects.



APPENDIX IIb

KA JINGIAKYNDUII BAN TYNJUI IA KA JINGTBIT NE KA PROKRAM  
NA KA BYNTA KI LONG KMIE KIBA KHIEM TREI KAM.

Ka kytteng u / ka khun:

**Ka Jingshisha Ne Jinglong Ka Briew Shimet**

1. Ka rta ne snem ka kmie:
2. Haduh klas aiu la pass? Kmie  
Kpa
3. Ka kam ba trei u kpa:
4. Ka jingioh shi bnai shi bnai:
5. Ka rukom longing long sem (i) shi ing shi sem. Kmie, kpa bad ki khun.  
(ii) Ba shong lang: Kmie/kpa/khun bad kiwei de.
6. Ka jingbun ne don khun. Shynran (rta) Kynthei. (rta ne snem)  
(i) (i)  
(ii) (ii)  
(iii) (iii)

**7. Ine i dei i hun iba katno?**

1. Nalor ka jingpeit kyrpang ia la ka ing, phi dang don shuh kiwei kiwei de ki kam ha ing. Ha ing shabar.
2. Phi hun ban don ha ing kum ka long kmie?
3. Haba ka ai jied, kano ka bynta kaba phi kham sngewbha Kum ka briew batrei kam/ka jinglong kmie.
4. Phi ju pynlut por ban iarap ia ki khun ha ki jingpule kot? Hoid/Em.
5. Phi ju pyrkhath u/ka khun jong phi u/ka heh-san kumba dei ban long? hoid/em.
6. Phi ju sngewthait ban trei kam ing? Hoid/em.
7. Kumno u lok (tnga) jong phi u sngew haba phi shu shong ha ing? (a) u shu hun? (b) u leh bym salia (c) u kren pyrshah?
8. Kumno ki khun jomg phi ki sngew haba phi shu shong ha ing? (a) ki shu hun hi (b) Ki leh bym salia (c) Ki kren pyrshah.

## APPENDIX III

## SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS SCALE (Kuppuswamy, 1981)

## Scoring Key of the Socio-Economic Status Scale

	<u>Score</u>
<b>A. Education</b>	
1. Professional degree or Hons., M.A. and above	7
2. B.A./B.Sc. degree	6
3. Inter or P.U.	5
4. H.S.L.C. examination/High school certificate	4
5. Middle School completion	3
6. Primary school or literate	2
7. Illiterate	1
<b>B. Occupation</b>	
1. Profession	10
2. Semi-profession	6
3. Clerical, shop owners, farm owners, etc.	5
4. Skilled worker	4
5. Semi skilled worker	3
6. Unskilled worker	2
7. Unemployed	1
<b>C. Income</b>	
1. Above Rs.2,000/- per month	12
2. Between Rs.1000/- and Rs.1,999/- per month	10
3. Between Rs.750/- and Rs.999/- per month	6
4. Between Rs.500/- and Rs.749/- per month	4
5. Between Rs.300/- and Rs.499/- per month	3
6. Between Rs.101/- and Rs.299/- per month	2
7. Below Rs.100/-	1
<b>Total of A + B + C = Total SES.</b>	

APPENDIX IV

CHILDREN'S BEHAVIOR CHECKLIST

Name \_\_\_\_\_ School \_\_\_\_\_

Age \_\_\_\_\_ Sex \_\_\_\_\_

Directions: Check only those statements which you feel are really true of the child. Do not guess if you are not reasonably sure.

1. Vigorous and energetic in his attack on a project
2. Overcautious, not venturesome, afraid to attempt the untried
3. Nearly always accomplishes task in spite of difficulties
4. Voice animated, alive
5. Does not become fatigued easily
6. Poor in concentration
7. Merely copies other children's reactions, not original
8. Concentrates well at his task
9. Original and inventive reactions
10. Curious and questioning
11. Expresses himself well for his age
12. Resourceful in dealing with difficult situations
13. Poor use of language for his age
14. Patient
15. Absorbed; self-sufficient in his activity
16. Restless; a certain dissatisfaction with his own activity
17. Retiring; wishes to be in the background
18. Even-tempered
19. Frequently disturbed; easily upset by the disagreeable or exciting
20. Seldom disturbed; sudden changes in mood infrequent
21. Slow to adjust to a novel experience
22. Original in play
23. Is easily distracted from task at hand
24. Gives up easily, lacks persistence
25. Submits to any child who takes the initiative
26. Dominates children of his own age (either sex)
27. Will submit to a specific child only
28. Submits to a leader only after a struggle to dominate
29. Is a follower in one specific group only
30. Occasionally dominates a group
31. Usually leads a small group
32. Decides who shall participate in the group activities
33. Can organize the activities of a group to carry out a definite purpose
34. Leads or follows as the occasion demands
35. Neither leads nor follows; play alone
36. Dominates other children through his ability to talk effectively
37. Dominates other children through their love or admiration for him
38. Dominates other children through his wealth of ideas
39. Definitely schemes to get others to carry out his plans
40. Gives commands with an air of finality

41. Helpless unless someone organizes activity for him
42. Hesitates to initiate activity
43. Usually follows the ideas of others for activity
44. Usually has his own ideas for activity
45. Usually takes the initiative
46. Does not push the issue in case of opposition
47. Fights for his place as leader
48. Insists that other children do as he wishes
49. Does not defend his own rights with other children
50. Easily led into mischief by others
51. Fails to secure cooperation when he tries to direct activities
52. Gets willing cooperation easily
53. Almost never laughs or smiles
54. Has an unusually good sense of humor
55. Has a way of making an appeal with his eyes
56. Has a pleasing manner of speech
57. Thoughtful of others
58. Moderately selfish
59. Sympathetic nature
60. Inconsiderate of others
61. Polite
62. Mischievous
63. Brave when hurt
64. Truthful
65. Seldom cries
66. A good sport
67. Rough and ready
68. Forgiving nature
69. Wanders around aimlessly
70. Self-conscious
71. Intelligently cooperative
72. Often shows off or acts silly
73. Makes pleasant conversation with adults
74. Unaffected, spontaneous, natural
75. Imaginative
76. Lacks imagination
77. Eager to try new things
78. Seems to have a plan for every minute
79. Brimming over with ideas for activity
80. Plays or works vigorously
81. Haphazard methods of work or play
82. Lacks self-confidence
83. Adjusts immediately to the daily routine
84. Always goes through the daily procedure willingly
85. Has to be constantly urged to carry out routine activities
86. Takes a long time to adjust to the daily routine
87. Responds readily to direction in the day's routine
88. Proceeds as usual with routine in the presence of visitors
89. Is businesslike and systematic in endeavoring to carry out routine activities
90. Dawdles over routine activities
91. Always cooperates in trying to keep the schoolrooms neat and clean

92. Perfectly natural in the presence of adults
93. Matter of fact in his relations with adults
94. Independent of adult in overcoming difficulties
95. Dependent upon adult to solve difficulties
96. Independent of adult in having ideas about or planning work or play activities
97. Resents aid from adults
98. Pays no attention to visitors
99. Bids for attention from adults
100. Craves affection from adults but is afraid to show it
101. Beautiful features
102. Usually pleasant facial expression
103. Expressive eyes
104. Stands erect
105. Walks with ease and grace
106. Does not take possessions of other children without permission
107. Takes good care of school property while using it
108. Wants to keep a particular piece of equipment even if not using it himself
109. Gives up equipment to other children as soon as finished with it
110. Extreme sense of property rights and keen desire to see this enforced
111. Shows extreme consideration for school property
112. Shows extreme consideration for possessions of others
113. Takes good care of his own possessions
114. Takes good care of the possessions of other children
115. Adds cooperatively to suggestions
116. Lags in following suggestion
117. Responds without undue delay to authority
118. So absorbed in his own thoughts that does not comprehend
119. Cooperative and responsible
120. Makes friends with other children easily
121. Finds it difficult to approach other children and make friends
122. Makes friends with any child who happens to be around him
123. Resents interest shown by other children; wants to be left alone
124. Does not respond to friendly advances ———
125. Tries to make entry into group of children but fails
126. Unhappy if he is not playing with other children
127. So absorbed in his own ideas that he pays no attention to other children
128. Contributes to the ideas of the group though not a leader (cooperative companion)
129. <sup>1</sup>Hesitant in making suggestions to other children
130. Assumes a protective attitude towards other children
131. Usually pleasant with other children
132. Often abrupt and surly with other children
133. Has a pleasant manner of securing cooperation from other children
134. Has strong likes and dislikes for other children
135. Rather placid attitude toward other children; neither likes or dislikes them to any degree
136. Quarrels with other children, often over trivial things
137. Seldom quarrels with other children over trivial matters
138. Rough and mean with other children
139. Hurts other children often due to carelessness

140. Impatient with other children
141. Very critical of other children
142. Is a good sport when he loses to some other child
143. Is sympathetic toward other children
144. Affectionate toward other children
145. Tries to help the smaller children
146. Resents aid from other children
147. Forgiving of other children who have hurt him, taken his belongings
148. Tries to get even with a child with whom he is angry
149. Talks to other children a great deal
150. Seldom talks to other children
151. Cries easily in playing with other children
152. Generous in letting other children share activities and possessions
153. Attention from other children leads him to "show off" or act silly
154. Not jealous if other children play with his particular friends
155. Faces the issue squarely
156. Concentrates his energy to accomplish a difficult task
157. Meets situations in a quiet matter-of-fact manner
158. Dawdles to avoid a difficult task
159. Accepts necessary facts as a matter of course
160. Does the best he can with what he has
161. Recognizes and accepts the superiority of another child
162. Accepts just criticism willingly
163. Finds it difficult to accept just blame for his faults
164. Regresses to babyish behavior in the face of difficulty
165. Quietly accepts success
166. Knows when he has done a task well

SCORING KEYS

- 
- |                 |           |            |
|-----------------|-----------|------------|
| 1. [x] A        | 21. [ ] A | 41. [ ] A  |
| 2. [ ] ADG      | 22. [x] A | 42. [ ] G  |
| 3. [x] A        | 23. [ ] B | 43. [ ] G  |
| 4. [x] D        | 24. [ ] A | 44. [x] A  |
| 5. [x] A        | 25. [ ] G | 45. [x] A  |
| 6. [ ] B        | 26. [x] G | 46. [ ] G  |
| 7. [ ] A        | 27. [x] G | 47. [x] G  |
| 8. [x] AB       | 28. [x] G | 48. [x] G  |
| 9. [x] A        | 29. [x] A | 49. [ ] AG |
| 10. [x] D       | 30. [ ] A | 50. [ ] B  |
| 11. [x] D       | 31. [x] A | 51. [x] G  |
| 12. [x] C       | 32. [x] G | 52. [x] A  |
| 13. [ ] D       | 33. [x] A | 53. [ ] D  |
| 14. [x] B       | 34. [x] D | 54. [x] E  |
| 15. [x] B       | 35. [x] C | 55. [x] DE |
| 16. [ ] B       | 36. [x] A | 56. [x] D  |
| 17. [ ] ADG     | 37. [x] A | 57. [x] B  |
| 18. [x] F [ ] G | 38. [x] A |            |
| 19. [ ] F [x] G | 39. [x] A | 59. [x] B  |
| 20. [x] F [x] G | 40. [x] G | 60. [ ] B  |

---

61.	[x]	B	96.	[x]	AC	131.	[x]	DH
62.	[ ]	B	98.	[x]	F	132.	[ ]	F [x] G
63.	[x]	C	99.	[ ]	F	133.	[x]	D
64.	[x]	B	100.	[ ]	F	134.	[x]	H
65.	[x]	F [ ] G	101.	[x]	DE	135.	[ ]	H
66.	[x]	B	102.	[x]	D	136.	[ ]	F [x] G
67.	[ ]	D [x] G	103.	[x]	DE	137.	[x]	F [ ] G
68.	[x]	B	104.	[x]	E	138.	[ ]	D
69.	[ ]	A	105.	[x]	E	139.	[ ]	B
70.	[ ]	F	106.	[x]	B	140.	[x]	G
71.	[x]	D	107.	[x]	B	141.	[ ]	D
72.	[ ]	B	108.	[ ]	B	142.	[x]	B
73.	[x]	D	109.	[x]	B	143.	[x]	D
74.	[x]	D	110.	[x]	BH	144.	[x]	D
75.	[x]	A	111.	[x]	B	145.	[x]	DH
76.	[ ]	A	112.	[x]	B	146.	[ ]	D
77.	[x]	A	113.	[x]	BH	147.	[x]	DH
78.	[x]	A	114.	[x]	BH	148.	[ ]	DH
79.	[x]	A	115.	[x]	A	149.	[x]	AD
81.	[ ]	C	116.	[ ]	H	150.	[ ]	AD
82.	[ ]	D	117.	[x]	B	151.	[ ]	F [x] G
83.	[x]	B	118.	[x]	C	152.	[x]	F
84.	[x]	B	119.	[x]	B	153.	[ ]	B
85.	[ ]	B	120.	[x]	D	154.	[x]	F
86.	[ ]	B	121.	[ ]	D	155.	[x]	H
87.	[x]	B	122.	[x]	D	156.	[x]	H
88.	[x]	F	123.	[ ]	D	157.	[x]	B
89.	[x]	B	124.	[x]	C	158.	[ ]	C
91.	[x]	B	125.	[ ]	D	159.	[x]	B
92.	[x]	F	126.	[ ]	C	160.	[x]	B
93.	[x]	F	127.	[x]	C	161.	[x]	B
94.	[x]	AC	128.	[x]	D	162.	[x]	F
95.	[ ]	AC	129.	[ ]	D	163.	[ ]	F
			130.	[x]	DH	164.	[ ]	H
						165.	[x]	B
						166.	[x]	B

---

## FOR CONVERTING RAW SCORES INTO MODIFIED STANDARD SCORES

Modified Standard Score Equiva- lent	Raw Factor-Score Range							
	A(1)	B(2)	C(3)	D(4)	E(5)	F(6)	G(7)	H(8)
1	0-1	0	-	0-7	-	0	0	0
2	2	1	0	8	-	1	1	1
3	3-6	2-5	1	9-11	-	2-3	2-3	2
4	7-9	6-10	2	12-15	0	4-6	4-6	3
5	10-13	11-16	3	16-19	1	7-8	7-9	4-5
6	14-17	17-21	4	20-23	2	9-11	10-11	6
7	18-21	22-26	5	24-26	3	12-13	12-14	7
8	22-25	27-32	6	27-30	4	14-15	15-17	8-9
9	26-29	33-37	7	31-34	5	16-18	18-19	10
10	above 29	above 37	above 7	above 34	above 5	above 18	above 19	above 10



INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR MOTHERS

Name of the Child

Personal Data (to all the respondents)

1. Mother's age
2. Educational Qualification - Mother:  
Father:
3. Occupation - Mother (only for working mother)  
Father:
4. Income per month - Mother:  
Father:
5. Family Structure - Nuclear:  
Joint:
6. Number of children:    Boys (age)    Girls (age)  
                                  1.                    1.  
                                  2.                    2.  
                                  3.                    3.
7. Ordinal position of this child:
8. Age of this child:

To those mothers who do not do paid work outside the home

9. Are you satisfied being at home as a housewife? Yes/No.  
Give reason for your answer.
10. Would you like to have a job outside the home?  
If yes, (i) Why?  
          (ii) What kind of job would you like to take  
              up?

To those mothers in paid employment outside the home

11. How long have you been in your present job?
12. How old was this child when you started work?
13. Why did you decide to keep on working after your child  
was born? Give reasons.

14. If the financial condition of your family is comfortable would you work all the same? Yes/No.
15. Before undertaking the job were you aware of your dual responsibility as a housewife and a career woman? Yes/No.
16. What time do you leave for work and what time do you return home?  
- -----
17. Do you leave home before the child goes to school? If yes, who gives them food and sees them off to school?
18. On your working days are you home when the children return from school?  
If no,
  - a) How do they manage until you return from work?
  - b) Do you find the present arrangement satisfactory?
  - c) would you prefer some other arrangement if it were possible?
  - d) If yes, what arrangements and why do you prefer it?
19. Who looks after your children on school holidays if you cannot be at home?
20. How does the child spend the time on such days?
21. Are you able to look after your child when he is sick? If not, who takes care of the child?
22. Do you think that your working outside affects the bringing up of your children in any way?  
If yes, what ways? Give reason for your answer.
23. Have the children ever said anything about your going out to work? Yes/No.  
If yes, what was said?
24. Do you on the whole enjoy going out to work?
25. What does your husband think about your working?
26. Do you think your family has regained by your going out to work? If yes, in what ways?

**To all the respondents**

27. Do you spend sometime everyday in helping your child in studies?
28. Do you spend sometime playing with your child?
29. Does he talk with you about his school and friends?
30. Does he helps you in housework?
31. Do you have any difficulty in controlling the child?
32. Who settles quarrels between the children?

North Eastern Hill University  
Department of Education  
Mizoram Campus  
Aizawl

C R E A T I V I T Y   T E S T

Name \_\_\_\_\_ Sex \_\_\_\_\_  
Age \_\_\_\_\_ Class \_\_\_\_\_  
Name of the School \_\_\_\_\_  
Rural/Urban \_\_\_\_\_ Date \_\_\_\_\_

	Educational Qualification	Occupation	Monthly Income	Age
Father's				
Mother's				
Guardian's				

INSTRUCTIONS

1. The activities in this booklet have been given with the purpose to see how quickly and imaginatively you can think.
2. Answer each question carefully.
3. There are no right or wrong responses to any of the questions.
4. Each question will have an instruction.
5. Do not turn to the next question until you are told to do so.

I. SEEING PROBLEMS TEST

Study carefully the instructions given below :

1. On page 3 of this booklet, you will find the names of three (3) objects. When these objects are used, they can give us a number of problems. Try to find out as many problems as you can think of.
2. You will be given 6 minutes to answer the question. You can use the time as you like; you are not bound to answer the first one first.
3. You will be told the time after every 2 minutes.
4. You are to begin only when told to commence.
5. Stop writing when it is announced "Time is over".
6. Write your answer in the space provided, without disturbing your friends.
7. Clear any doubt that you may have before the signal to start is given.
8. Follow the example given below :

Example :-

Object : Electric Iron

---

S.No.	Problems
1.	Needs electricity
2.	Causes burns
3.	Damages clothes
4.	Rusts easily
5.	Is expensive
6.	.....
7.	.....
8.	.....

(1) Object : TV (Television)		(1) Object : TV (Television)	
S.No.	Problems	S.No.	Problems

(2) Object : Gun		(2) Object : Gun	
S.No.	Problems	S.No.	Problems

(3) Object : Thatched House		(3) Object : Thatched House	
S.No.	Problems	S.No.	Problems

II. UNUSUAL USES TEST

Please read the following instruction carefully.

1. On the next page, you will find the names of common objects these objects can be used in a number of ways. You may think of the size, shape and colour of the object in any way you wish. Try to write as many uses of the object as you can.
2. Try to think of uses that your friend may not have thought of. Be clear and precise in writing your answer.
3. The time given for answering the question is 12 minutes. You may use the time as you like. You will be informed about the time after every 4 minutes.
4. You are to begin only when told to commence.
5. Stop writing when it is announced "Time is over".
6. Write your answer in the space provided, without disturbing your friends.
7. Clear any doubts that you may have before beginning.
8. Follow the example given below :

Example :-

Object : Pencil

S.No.	Uses
1.	Use as a ruler
2.	Use to block holes
3.	Use to poke at things
4.	Use as a baton
5.	Use as a scratcher
6.	.....
7.	.....
8.	.....

(4) Object : Bottle gourd



S.No. Uses

S.No. Uses

(5) Object : Mizo basket



S.No. Uses

S.No. Uses

(6) Object : Bamboo



S.No. Uses

S.No. Uses



III. CONSEQUENCES TEST

Please study the instruction given below carefully.

1. On page 7 are written three impossible statements that may never happen in real life. Suppose the events expressed in these statements happen to occur all of a sudden, please write down the consequences you envisage to follow these events.
2. The time given for the activity is 6 minutes. You may make use of the time as you like. You will be told about the time after every 2 minutes.
3. You are to begin only when the signal to start is given.
4. Stop writing when it is announced 'Time is over'.
5. Clear any doubt you may have before you begin.
6. Follow the example given below.

Example :-

Sentence : If all people became dumb .....

---

S.No.	What may happen.
1.	There will be less noise.
2.	Everyone will learn sign-language.
3.	There will be no singing.
4.	Telephone will be useless.
5.	No cheering crowds at games.
6.	.....
7.	.....
8.	.....

(7) Sentence : If all the people started dancing .....

S.No.	What may happen	S.No.	What may happen

(8) Sentence : If all the hills turned into plains .....

S.No.	What may happen .....	S.No.	What may happen

(9) Sentence : If it did not rain at all .....

S.No.	What may happen	S.No.	What may happen

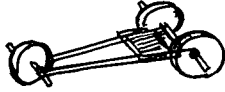
IV. MAKING THINGS MORE INTERESTING AND USEFUL

Please study the instruction very carefully.

1. If you had the magic drum of Maurawkela (Mizo folk-tale) which will give you anything you may wish as you beat the drum; how will you make the following toys more interesting and attractive?
2. Write down in the space provided, all that you will add to make the toys more attractive.
3. You will be given 10 minutes for this activity, and you will be informed about the time after every 5 minutes.
4. Start writing only when the signal to commence is given.
5. Stop writing when it is announced 'Time is over'.
6. Try to think of answers that your friends may not have thought of.

---

(10) Billy-cart



S.No. How to make the billy-cart more interesting

---

---

(11) Toy-propeller



S.NO. How to make the toy-propeller more interesting

---

V. SIMILARITIES TEST

Please study the instruction very carefully.

1. On page 11, two objects having various similarities and relations are given. Write down their similarities.
2. Try to think of and write as many peculiar connections as possible between the two objects.
3. The time given for this exercise is 8 minutes. You will be informed about the time after every 4 minutes.
4. You are to begin only when told to commence.
5. Clear any doubts you may have before answering.
6. Follow the example given below.

Example :- Bee-hive and office

---

S.No.	Similarities
1.	Both have a special house.
2.	Both have workers.
3.	Both have idlers.
4.	Both have leader.
5.	Both will not tolerate disturbance.
6.	.....
7.	.....
8.	.....

---

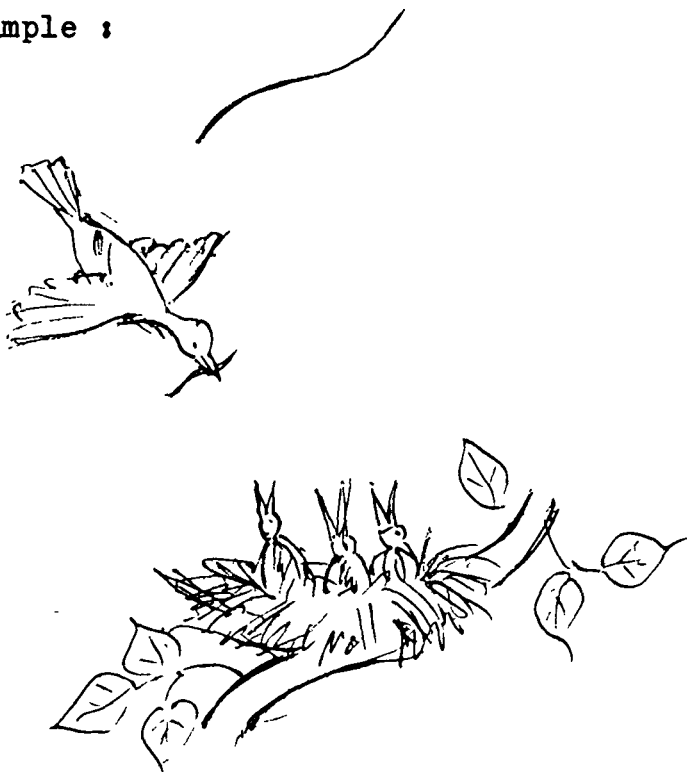


## VI. PICTURE CONSTRUCTION TEST

Please study the instruction very carefully.

1. On the next page, there are two simple drawings. Using them, draw a complete picture and try to make it very interesting and original.
2. To show your power of imagination, try to produce a very interesting title for your picture. Write it down on the space given below the drawing.
3. Do not make a copy of any other drawings you might have seen. The originality and interest that the picture arouses is far more important than its beauty or likeness.
4. The time given for this activity is 10 minutes. You will be informed about the time after every 5 minutes.
5. You are to begin only at the given signal.
6. Stop writing when the allotted time is over.
7. Follow the example given below.

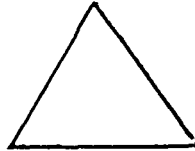
Example :



TITLE : Is there enough for everyone's need?

---

(14)



TITLE : \_\_\_\_\_

---

(15)

*lll*

TITLE : \_\_\_\_\_

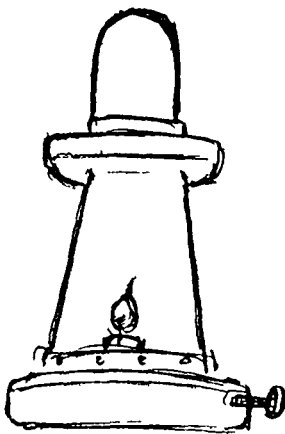
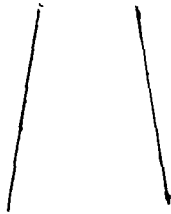


VII. PICTURE COMPLETION TEST

Please study the instruction carefully.

1. On page 15, you will find two incomplete figures. Your task is to complete them in any way you like. Try to make the picture as interesting and unusual as possible. Think of a picture which you feel no one else would be able to make.
2. When you have completed your picture, give a title to it in the space provided for it. Try to make the title as interesting and novel as possible, which will show how imaginatively you can think.
3. You will be given 6 minutes to do this activity. The time will be announced after every 3 minutes.
4. Start only when the signal is given, and stop writing when the time is over.
5. Follow the example given below.

Example :-



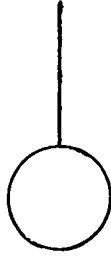
TITLE : You are the light of the world.



TITLE : A Mizo woman going to market.

---

(16)



TITLE : \_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

(17)

TITLE : \_\_\_\_\_

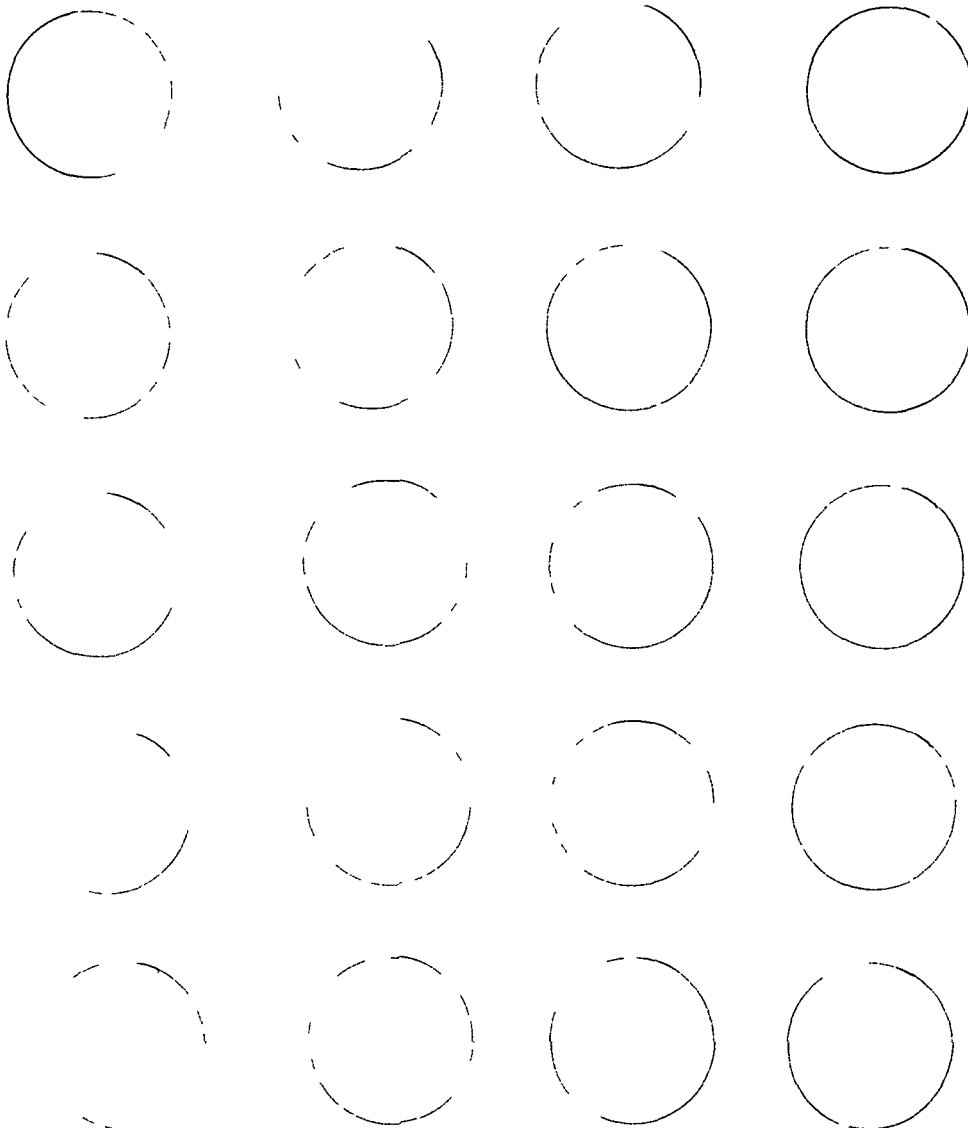
VIII. CIRCLES TEST

Please study the following instruction carefully.

1. Using the following circles as base, try to draw as many pictures as you can within 5 minutes. There must be a circle in each of your drawing. You may add to the circle inside, outside, or both with a pencil.
2. Try to draw unusual figures which your friends may not have thought of.
3. If the figure is not clear, write the title next to it.
4. You are to begin only at the given signal, and stop drawing when 5 minutes are over.

---

(18)



CREATIVITY TEST  
(SCORING SHEET)

Activity No.	Item No.	Fluency	Flexibility	Originality
I	1			
	2			
	3			
II	4			
	5			
	6			
III	7			
	8			
	9			
IV	10			
	11			
V	12			
	13			
Total				

Activity No.	Item No.	Elaboration	Originality	For Titles	
				Elaboration	Originality
VI	14				
	15				
VII	16				
	17				
VIII	18				
Total					

SCORE SUMMARY

	Fluency	Flexibility	Elaboration	Originality
Total				
	Verbal	Non-verbal	Composite Creativity	
Total				