

**A STUDY OF ATTITUDES OF THE WORKING AND  
NONWORKING PARENTS TOWARDS ADOLESCENT  
GIRL CHILD AND IT'S IMPACT ON THEIR ADJUST-  
MENT**

THESIS

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BY

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**2012**

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I declare that the thesis entitled **“A Study Of Attitude Of The Working And Nonworking Parents Towards Adolescent Girl Child And It’s Impact On Their Adjustment”** is my own work conducted under the supervision of **Dr. Sandhya Verma (Supervisor) & Dr. J.C. Ajawani (Co-Supervisor)** at Raipur (C.G.) (Centre) **Arts & Commerce Girls’ College, Devendra Nagar, Raipur (C.G.)** approved by Research Degree Committee. I have put in more than 200 days of attendance with the supervisor at the centre.

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# PREFACE

***“Keep your thoughts positive because your thoughts become your words. Keep your words positive because your words become your behavior. Keep your behavior positive because your behavior becomes your habits. Keep your habits positive because your habits become your values. Keep your values positive because your values become your destiny.***

**- MAHATMA GANDHI**

*Adolescence is widely accepted as a problem age. This label has a two fold meaning. Firstly, it means that adolescents are a problem to their parents, teachers and society in general. Secondly, adolescents are even more of problem to themselves than to others. If they are not adjusted to their new role in life then they are liable to confuse, uncertain and anxious. The mechanical and busy life has exposed the adolescents to a greater stress, affecting their adjustment capacity. The 21<sup>st</sup> Century, a computer age, is bound to make adolescents behaviour like a machine. demanding excessive concentration and speedy reaction.*

*Adjustment is a continuous process of satisfying one's desire, and it involves many aspects of behaviour. No one achieves complete adjustment, at least not for long. Eventually, one need or another arises, physiological or psychological and individual must find ways of satisfying it. The family influence goes a long way in personal and social adjustment of adolescents. The parents have to provide for the basic physical care and development of their children. Many parents hardly understand that for the psychological welfare of children happy family life is of vital importance. The parent-child relationship is so unique that each one has permanent and tremendous influence upon the other. There is all the time an emotionally charged atmosphere both for the child and the parents. When the relationship of young adolescents with their families deteriorates as adolescence progresses, the fault usually lies on both sides. Parents too often refuse to modify their concepts of their children's abilities as they grow older. Even more important is the*

*so called 'generation gap' between adolescents and their parents. This gap is partly the result of radical changes in values and standards of behavior that normally occur in any rapidly changing culture and partly the result of the fact that many young people now have greater educational, social, and cultural opportunities than most of their parents had, when they were adolescents. Thus, it is more correctly a 'cultural gap' not due entirely to differences in chronological age. Many adolescents feel that their parents do not 'understand them' and that their standards of behavior are old-fashioned.*

*The relationship among family members and their behaviour play a leading role in adjustment of an individual. Effect of family environmental factors on overall socio-emotional adjustment of the adolescent girl is influenced by degree of support, help, and commitment in the family.*

*Parental attitudes towards their children have a strong impact on the child's developing sense of self and self-esteem, with parental warmth and support being key factors for the child, an attitude and behaviour change is an essential component of the empowerment process. Attitudes are feelings, beliefs or opinions of approval or disapproval towards something.*

*The present research aims at revealing relationship between parents' attitude towards adolescent girl child and their working status on adjustment of adolescent girl children, and sure that will be able to throw focused light on this vital dimension of troubled youth and will help the significant people around them to adopt necessary changes in their attitudes and thus enhancing adjustment capacity of these adolescents and thus will ultimately help a nation to use the youth energy for its upliftment.*

***Chapter One** of the thesis highlights roles of working status and gender of parents in their attitude towards adolescent girl child and also the impact of working status and attitude of parents towards adolescent girl child on the adjustment of adolescent girl children. **Chapter Two** 'Reviews of Literature' deals with several studies done by researchers in the field of interest, **Chapter Three** elaborates the problem and relevant*

hypotheses undertaken for investigation in the present research, **Chapter Four** deals with methodology followed in the present investigation, Analysis of the obtained data has been described in **Chapter Five**, and **Chapter Six** deals with the discussion of the findings. A separate chapter of **Summary** has also been provided to present the whole work in nutshell.

I would like to express my deep and sincere gratitude to **Dr. Sandhya Verma**, Head, Department of Home Science & Principal Arts & Commerce Girls' College Devendra Nagar, Raipur, who inspired me for the research work and provided me invaluable and esteemed guidance not only during the research but all the time, I wish to thank God for blessing me with Madam as my Guide. Because of her only the process of doing this research has been a life enriching experience. I pray to God to bless my Madam & her family with joy, peace & prosperity.

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*Virtually the outcome this thesis is credited to my husband **Navneet** for his understanding and support during my work. Without his love and encouragement this would never have been possible. I gratefully acknowledge his contribution to my personal and academic advancement.*

*My daughter, **Mansi** & my son **Divyansh** understood the importance of my work and contributed in their own way by giving me a lot of love and affection. They also supported me in Computer operation. I very affectionately and proudly acknowledge this.*

*My deepest thanks are devoted to my parents my father **Shri A.K. Jha** and my mother **Smt. Subhashini Jha**, my mother-in-law **Smt. Snehlata Jha** for their inspiration and unconditional love, support and believe in my success. I thank God for blessing me with such parents whose values, love and blessing have been my guiding light and inspiration for my soul .*

**MY THESIS IS DEVOTED TO MY FATHER-IN-LAW LATE UMAKANT JHA AND BABUJI LATE SARYUKANT JHA.** *It is with their inspiration and blessing that my dream have come true.*

*I am thankful to Mr. Samir who has put in hours of restless work in typing and printing of the manuscript.*

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**Date:**

**Place: Raipur (C.G.)**

**(Smt. Kalpana Jha)**

## **CHAPTER- ONE**

# **INTRODUCTION**

# ADJUSTMENT

Adjustment in life is the key to happiness, No one's environment and family circumstances are smooth. Natural give and take in social and family circumstances is necessary for the well-adjusted happy life.

The concept of adjustment was originally a biological one and was a cornerstone in Darwin's theory of evolution (1959). In biology, the term usually employed was adaptation. Darwin (1959) maintained that only those organisms most fitted to adapt to the hazards of the physical world survive. The term adjustment has been borrowed or evoked from the biological concept of adaptation. While the biologists are concerned with "physical survival", the psychologists are concerned with "psychological survival". As in the case of the biological concept of adaptation, human behavior is interpreted as adjustment to demands or pressures. These demands are primarily social or interpersonal and they influence the psychological structure and functioning of the person.

Man's behavior can be described as reaction to a variety of demands or pressures that are brought to bear upon him. The clothing he wears varies with the climate in which he lives and represent at least partly, an adaptation to weather. Architectural forms also depend upon climatological and topographical factors, and man has shown a great ingenuity in adapting the raw material of his environment to his need for shelter.

Just as person adapts to physical demands, he also adjusts with the social pressure, that is, demand that arise from living interdependently with other persons. When he is an infant, his parents make demands upon him to acquire the proper values and behavior patterns, when he is an adult, they continue to have expectation of his career, his marriage or where and how he lives. So the concept of adjustment also has the social conformity. People of society who make laws for people are also the ingredient of society.

Social conformity as a concept may be constructed as either a goal or a process. The individual who holds this conception is dependent upon the culture in which he finds himself for his ideas of 'adjusted' and 'maladjusted' behaviour.

In social conformity criterion of adjustment, emphasis is placed upon the social behaviour of individuals and the unit of analysis is that of the group of varying size with regard to the determination of adjustment, and the source of determination is external to the individual. Dodge (1986) has found that adolescents who are least socially acceptable tend also to be the least socially competent.

Psychologists view the human being as a complex energy system consisting of many subsystems coordinated to maintain the optimum functioning of the organism. As a person participates in his environment, certain changes in the operations of the subsystem are required due to change in the environment or changes originating within certain subsystems. Such a mobilization of energy tends to persist until either the conditions which aroused it have been neutralized or removed (Miller, 1955; & Brown et al. 1966).

## **DEFINITION OF ADJUSTMENT**

Adler (1938) asserts that adjustment depends on an individual's relationship and methods of coping with his environment. Alder (1938) equates adjustment with an ability to evaluate oneself realistically and to develop social relations which are beneficial to other and not merely designed for the purpose of self aggrandizement. According to Smith et al. (1955), individuals have many needs and desires which they try to satisfy. If attempts to satisfy these needs are blocked or in conflict with other needs, then there is an increase in tension with the individual, and adjustment refers to the way the individual takes to reduce his tension and satisfy his needs.

Shaffer (1956) asserts that adjustment is a process by which a living organism



maintains a balance between its needs and the circumstances that influence the satisfactions of these needs. Symonds (1946) and Shaffer (1956) stress on maintaining consistencies without a knee jerky impulsive behavior to be well adjusted. According to Horny (1959) adjustment develops from harmonious and flexible style of interacting with others. Shyne (1959) analyses the adjustment process on the basis of the psychology of coping with his environment. Coleman (1969) defines adjustment as the outcome of the individual's attempt to deal with stress and meets his needs also, his efforts to maintain harmonious relationship with the environment.

Shah & Dua (1993) assert that the term adjustment may be used to imply the process by which a person changes his behaviour to achieve a harmonious relationship between himself and his environment. The state of such harmonious relationship of life be looked upon as a long series of adjustment in which the individual is constantly adjusting himself to the demands of the external environment as well as to needs of his psychological and mental constitutions. Lazarus (1963) pointed out that the verb 'to adjust' means to fit, to make correspond, to adapt, or to accommodate. He further explained that the term 'to adjust', is used in psychology, means that the individual's must accommodate themselves in order to fit certain demands of their environment and adjustment consists of the processes by means of which they manage there demands.

According to Sawrey & Telford (1971) adjustment emphasizes socialization of the individual and development of coping behaviour. Psychological adjustment consists of the processes by means of which the individuals cope with the physical and social demands and expectations of the world. They stated that the individual who adequately deals with his demands and expectations is 'well adjusted'. Adjustment is also defined as the process by which a person changes his behaviour to achieve a harmonious relationship between himself and his environment. The sate of such harmonious relationship of life be looked upon as a long series of adjustment in which the individual is con-

stantly adjusting himself to the demands of the external environment as well as to needs of his psychological and mental constitution. There are two important aspects to adjustment. The first has to do with its quality or efficiency. Adjustment is regarded as an achievement, which is accomplished either badly or well. It is very practical way of looking at adjustment; one makes it possible to compare individuals in terms of their adjustive adequacy. The second aspect relates to the process or processes by which a person adjusts. The two aspects of adjustment reflect different purposes. The first is emphasized when we want evaluation and the second when we want to understand rather than evaluate.

## **PROCESS OF ADJUSTMENT**

The adjustment process is multi dimensional. Coleman (1964) states that the process by which an organism attempts to meet the demands placed upon it by its own nature and by its environment is called adjustment.

we can define it most simply as a process involving both mental and behavioural responses, by which an individual strives to cope with inner needs, tensions, frustrations, and conflicts and to bring harmony between these inner demands and those imposed upon him by the world in which he lives.

The concept of adjustment can be simply analyzed in the following ways:

- a) Adjustment is a process.
- (b) By this process the individual tries to bring harmonious, stable, and satisfying relationship with his environment i.e., by this process the individual alters his impulses and responses to fit the demands of his environment.
- c) By this process the individual tries to satisfy his needs and desires in accordance with environmental demands on the one hand, and his abilities and limitations on the other.

- d) A good adjustment always aims at long term satisfaction instead of satisfying an immediate intense need.

Many writers on psychology have recognized the two general adjustive modes, Piaget (1951) has utilized the terms accommodation and assimilation to represent the alteration of oneself or the environment, respectively, as means of adjustment. Riesman (1979) described the inner-directed person as one who carries his values and standard of conduct around with him, maintaining these inspite of major changes in the social climate. In contrast with this is outer-directed person, who must take his standard from the social context, changing his beliefs in accordance with the altered values of the person and institution around him. The former person is beaver, the assimilator and the later is the chameleons, the accommodator. These two polarities of adjustment provide useful abstractions describing the life style.

According to Freud (1949), adjustment occurs in the interaction of three theoretical sub-systems within the personality – the id, the ego, and the superego. He believed that each person is born with certain biological based drives. These drives primarily a sex drive and an aggressive drive, provide a source of energy that is deposited within the subsystem known as the id. The id seeks to release the energy in pleasurable activities. The id, according to Freud (1949) operates totally unconstrained by reality in order to produce immediate gratification. So, it operates according to pleasure principle. Second personality subsystem, according to Freud, is the ego. The ego attempts to channel id impulses to activities that allow for release of energy that are acceptable to the demand of society, People reward some behaviours and punish others. Ego seeks alternative ways of reaching the goals. The ego is thought to operate according to reality principle. The third subsystem of personality, according the Freud (1949) is the super ego. It is the higher form of control over the behaviour. Freud hypothesized that over severe or over permissive training during childhood can lead conflict among the personality sub-

system For example, when a child experiences an id impulse to perform a taboo behaviour the ego, in its job of protecting the individual, may suppress the true id desire. The id energy may then be released in behaviour totally opposite to the child's true desire, and this behaviour may cause problem of adjustment later on. But balanced interaction between id, ego, and superego is adjustment. According to Jones (1953), Freud also emphasized on two important components of normal and healthy adjustment – the ability to love and to do productive work.

Adjustment is a continuous process of satisfying one's desire, and it involves many aspects of behaviour. No one achieves complete adjustment, at least not for long. Eventually, one need or another arises, physiological or psychological and individual must find ways of satisfying it. Adjustment is continuous and it also exists on a continuum. At one end is well adjusted person who is ever changing and ever adapting, is able to adapt as new needs arise while at the other end is the poorly adjusted person who may show sign of anxiety, aggression or disordered thinking. This person is less adaptive and his or her behaviour is often inappropriate and such a person is referred to as maladjusted.

Adjustment may be social, emotional, pertaining to health, home, etc. Social adjustment means the success with people's adjustment to other people in general and to the group with which they are identified in particular. If an individual is devoid of physical ailments such as headache, ulcers, indigestion, he is said to have health adjustment.

“Emotions play a leading role in one's adjustment to self and his environment. An individual is said to be emotionally adjusted if he is able to express his emotions in a proper way at a proper time. It requires one's balanced emotional development and proper training in the outlet of emotions.” Family adjustment is more important to an individual to lead a happy life. Most parents realize that there is a close relationship between a child's

adjustment and success and happiness in childhood as well as in later life. To ensure that their children will make good adjustment, they provide them with opportunities to have social contacts with other peers, and try to motivate them to be socially active; hoping that this will lead to good adjustment. Furthermore, some parents believe that a child who makes good adjustment will be laying the foundations for success in future life. If the child is well accepted by peers, it will result in behaviour patterns and attitudes that will lead to a successful marriage and will be stepping-stone to success in the vocational world, which will lead to upward social mobility.

Reddy (1978) found that academic adjustment was significantly related to the scholastic performance of secondary school pupils. Soman (1977) also observed that personal adjustment variable had a considerable influence on achievement. He found a positive relationship between adjustment and achievement. Adjustment involves effective adaptation. It consists in the reduction of inner needs, stresses and strains and, in this sense, adjustment would be a unique pattern depending upon the personality and needs of the individual. As each individual differs, so his needs differ and consequently there should be harmonious relationship of an individual with his environment which affords him comfortable life devoid to strain, stress, conflict, and frustration.

The adjustment is a continual process by which a person varies his behaviour to produce a more harmonious relationship between his environment and himself. It is also a process by which a person maintains a balance between its needs and the circumstances that influence the satisfaction of these needs. A balanced personality of a person is the result of proper adjustment of an individual to his environment.

Coleman (1964) stated that a neurotic or maladjusted person has the following characteristics and symptoms.

- (i) inadequacy and low stress tolerance,

- (ii) ego-centricity and disturbed interpersonal relationship,
- (iii) tension and irritability,
- (iv) anxiety and fearfulness,
- (v) persistent nonintegrative behaviour, and
- (vi) psychological and somatic symptoms.

Self-adjustment is also a form of adjustment. An adequately adjusted person is one who is capable of forming close relationship with few people, yet can enjoy independence and even solitude. Another definition points out that a well adjusted person is one who is successful both at work and in personal life. Well adjusted people enjoy a kind of inner harmony, in a sense that they are satisfied with themselves. Regardless of some setbacks and disappointments they continue to strive towards their goals. If these goals are unrealistically high, they are able to modify them to fit their capacity. There is close relationship between adjustment and success in childhood as well as in later life. It is believed that a child who makes good social adjustments will be laying the foundations for success in adult life. Children who make good social adjustments in the first grade are likely to make good social adjustment when they reach high school and college. Patterns of behaviour and attitudes formed early, tend to persist, children can improve their social adjustment as they grow older, but it will take a lot of effort. Children who are not well adjusted are usually unhappy, self centered, unsocial and they grow up as unhappy and unsuccessful adults.

Lawton (1951) proposed twenty characteristics that are important in childhood and adulthood. These characteristic can be used to describe and assess well adjusted people. These can vary according to age and ability. According to Lawton (1951) well adjusted people are –

- (5) able to willing to assume responsibilities appropriate of their age,
- (6) participate with pleasure in experiences belonging to each successive age level.,
- (7) willingly accept the responsibilities pertaining to their roles in life,
- (8) attack problem that requires solution,
- (9) enjoy attacking and eliminating obstacles to happiness,
- (10) make decisions with a minimum of worry, conflict and advice seeking,
- (11) get major satisfaction from real than in imaginary accomplishment,
- (12) can use thinking as a blueprint for action, not as a device for delaying or escaping action,
- (13) learn from details instead of finding excuses for them,
- (14) do not magnify successes or apply them to unrelated areas,
- (15) can say “No” to situations, harmful to their best interests,
- (16) can say “Yes” to situations that will ultimately aid them,
- (17) can show anger directly when injured or when rights are violated,
- (18) can show affection directly and appropriate in kind and amount,
- (19) can endure pain and emotional frustration when necessary,
- (20) can compromise when they encounter difficulties,
- (21) can concentrate their energies on a goal that is important to them, and
- (xviii) accept the fact that life is an endless struggle.

## **ADJUSTMENT DURING ADOLESCENCE**

Adolescence is a critical period of growth and development. In Webster's new Collegiate Dictionary (1977), adolescence has been defined as the “process of growing up” and the “period of life from puberty to maturity”. This period of life is marked with

transition from childhood to adulthood. The defining characteristics of adolescence is “change” which occurs in every domain of development i.e., cognitive, biological, and social.

The word adolescence derives from a Latin verb which means to ‘grow’ or ‘to grow maturity. It is used to refer to that period which marks the transition from childhood to maturity. Chronologically, adolescence ranges from age 12 to 18 years, sociologically, adolescents are those who are trying to bridge the gap between dependent childhood and self-sufficient adulthood (Muss, 1962). Psychologists have drawn attention to the fact that during this period of adolescence, emotional behaviour tends to become quite intense. The intensity of the problem depends on the preadolescent experience and consequences can be serious if at all the factors are unfavourable., The adolescent under the combined effect of internal stress phase and lack of support from others may breakdown and cause serious psychological damage to his personality. The quality of an adolescents relationship with his/her parents is a key component to healthy adolescent development (Rueter & Cogner, 1995).

Adolescence represents a difficult developmental period in one’s life. Many highly concentrated demands are made upon youth by society during this period for independence, for peer and hetro sexual adjustments, for educational and vocational preparation and for development of a workable set of personal and social values. In other words, at this stage, the road is paved for adulthood and the adolescent’s identity is formed, developed and crystallized. If the adolescent fails to meet the varied demands in a changing world, his personality development is adversely affected.

It is the period of psychological growing up. During this period, the child moves from dependence and restrictions of childhood to adult independence and freedom from parental restrictions. Hall (1904) has regarded adolescence as a “a purview of great



stress, strain, and storm. Adolescent is the one who is preparing for adulthood. It is the time when childhood behaviour and attitudes are being replaced by the attitude and behaviour of an adult". Adolescents are persons with specific qualities and characteristics who have a participatory and responsible role to play, task to perform, skill to develop at the particular time of life. The degree or extent to which an adolescent experiences such responsible participation will determine and maximize his development. The young's are possessed of greater physical, mental, and emotional capacities and therefore of a great thirst to try out these capacities. They have need to experiment with own strength and volume systems, lead a group, tryout intimate relationship, engage in some form of adventure.

It is a time when the adolescent is reaching for the fundamental and eternal values on which he may build his life. One's philosophy of life consists basically of a set of values and concepts. The adolescent deliberately examines the concepts he has developed and analyzed or less uncritically, he is beginning to develop philosophy of life.

The drive to experiment is coupled with a mixture of audacity and insecurity, is related to uncertainty that accompanies in experience and the lessening or withdrawal of protection. A deep sense of loneliness and a high degree of psychological vulnerability are other specific qualities of adolescents. Every attempt at experimentation and reaching out new is very intense. If the outcome is negative, it is exceedingly painful because youth do not have a back of positive experiences he draws from when defeat occurs.

According to W.H.O. adolescents are those between the age group of 10-19 and those among 15-24 age groups are in the category of youth. The planning commission of India estimates that almost 230 million of the Indian population is adolescents (as March 2000). Their problems will affect their mental health and so is of great concern for the society and nation at large. Adolescence is a journey, a passage from childhood to-

wards adulthood. It is a way to self-discovery and the main thrust of the journey is to explore the world on their own. Adolescence is a period of transition, growth, and exploration. They want to experiment and expertise life. They are neither adults nor completely out of realm of childhood. Behavioural problems can occur in children and adolescent from all income levels, all ranges of intelligence, and all cultural, religious and social groups. The reasons can be traced back to interplay between hereditary and environment factors like faulty parenting, family disharmony, lack of affection, rejected child, strict discipline at home and school, mass media, and restrictions on freedom in early childhood lead to complete rebellion against authority. This tremendously influences their attitude and behaviour. Adjustment during the period of adolescence will determine to a larger extent what will one be as a person as an adult. Adolescence is the period of “storm and stress”, a time when the individual is erratic, emotionally unstable and unpredictable. During this period rapid physical as well as mental changes occur. Every cultural group has expectations of an individual according to their developmental stage. This period has been associated with great psychological distress. Given the interpersonal nature of these middle school adjustment stressors, some studies have shown support for the importance of social problem-solving skill in the process of adaptation (Elias et al., 1986; Elias & Clabby, 1992; Greene & Ollendick, 1993, and Leonard & Elias, 1993).

With respect to adolescent adjustment, parental warmth/involvement and behavioural control are associated with greater social competence, autonomy, positive attitudes toward school and work, academic achievement and self-esteem, as well as with less depression, school misconduct, delinquency and drug use (Lamborn, et al., 1991; Parish & McCluskey, 1992; Steinberg, et al., 1992; and Allen & Hauser, 1996). With respect to protection against depressed mood, adolescents' security with their mother seems to be particularly important (Margolese et al., 2001). In terms of resistance to

substance abuse, the effect of parenting appears to operate through adolescents' development of better self-regulation skills (i.e., self-control, behavioural competence, adaptive coping), and less affiliation with deviant peers (Wills et al., 1995). The negative associations between observations of maternal warmth, and teacher and official reports of delinquency, are robust, persisting even after controlling for child IQ, age, attachment to delinquent peers, ethnicity, poverty, family size, parental deviance, supervision and discipline (Sampson & Laub, 1994). On the other hand, hostile punishment and coercive interactions between parents and children combined with poor parental monitoring contribute to conduct problems in preadolescence and antisocial behaviour in adolescence (Dishion et al., 1991; and Conger et al., 1995). When the relationship of young adolescents with their families deteriorates as adolescence progresses, the fault usually lies on both sides. Parents far too often refuse to modify their concepts of their children's abilities as they grow older. Even more important in the so called 'generation gap' between adolescents and their parents. This gap is partly the result of radical changes in values and standards of behavior that normally occur in any rapidly changing culture and partly the result of the fact that many young people now have greater educational, social, and cultural opportunities that most of their parents had when they were adolescents. Thus, it is more correctly a 'cultural gap' not due entirely to differences in chronological age. Many adolescents feel that their parents do not 'understand them' and that their standards of behavior are old-fashioned. This is due more to the cultural gap.

The most common and most serious sources of friction between adolescent and family members are – standard behavior, method of discipline, relationship with siblings, feeling victimized, hyper critical attitude, family size, immature behavior, rebellion against relatives, and latchkey problems. The adolescent's relationships with family members of the female sex are less favourable than those with male family members, while it is true that mothers tend to be more lenient with their sons than their daughters.

This is one of the few exceptions to the rule. Because girls are more restricted by their mothers than their fathers mother-daughter friction is often intense, at least until the latter part of adolescence. Many conditions in the adolescent life are responsible for molding the personality pattern through their influence on the self-concept. Some of these are physical and psychological changes during adolescence. The most important of these are age of maturing, appearance, sex appropriateness, creativity, family relationship, level of aspiration, physical and psychological hazards. Physical hazards are now less numerous and less important than psychological hazards, although they do exist. It can result in unfavourable attitudes.

Nonetheless, the period of adolescence presents unique developmental challenges for adjustment and new opportunities for identity development and growth in parent-child relationships. A positive relationship with parents may also protect adolescents from risk. Adolescents who report close, accepting relationships with their mothers report less involvement in delinquent activities (Aseltine, 1995; and Smith & Krohn, 1995). These positive relationship qualities are those typical of secure attachment has been linked to less experimentation with drugs (Voss, 1999) and less frequent substance use (Cooper et al., 1998). Subramanyam (1986) also asserts that most of the problems centering adolescents are physical appearance, health and physical development, marks scored, relationship with members of their families, their teachers, and peer of both sexes and home adjustment. This maladjustment may lead to absenteeism, truancy, low achievement and other unworthy habits of children.

## **FACTORS INFLUENCING ADJUSTMENT OF ADOLESCENT**

There are various factors which can be counted upon in perspective of adjustment of adolescents.

### **Age Of Adolescents**

Adjustment varies with the age and extends throughout one's life cycle. Crutz & Gonzaley (1969) used a check list involving 277 problems to study adjustment problems of adolescents. Sample consisted of 105 males and 228 females. Results were found significant at one percent level showing younger adolescents aged 12-15 years having more adjustment problems than older adolescents aged 16-19 years. In a study (Suja-tha et al. 1993) the sample consisted of 300 students studying in high schools and junior colleges of the age range 13 to 19 years. Bell's (1934) adjustment inventory modified in the local language was used. They reported no significant difference among early and late adolescents in the area of adjustment. Dutta et al. (1997,1998) focused on the home and school adjustment of 200 adolescents drawn randomly from Assam Agricultural University and Kendriya Vidyalaya, Jorhat, Assam. Adjustment Inventory for College Students developed by Sinha & Singh (1980) was administered. The results suggested no difference between the groups of 16-18 years and 19-21 years in home adjustment and social adjustment.

## **Gender Of Adolescents**

The genetic makeup, time and rate of maturity differ between boys and girls especially during adolescence. In Indian society norms and perception are different for boys and girls. Hence the adjustment of boys and girls are different

.Pathak (1970) studied adjustment of 400 IX grade students (200 boys and 200girls) with age range of 14-16 years. The sample was selected randomly from six high schools of Jabalpur in Madhya Pradesh. Saxena's Vyaktiya Paraks – Prashnavali (MA-62) was used to measure the adjustment and reported that girls were facing more problems than boys in the areas such as health, social and emotional adjustment. They were found to be comparable in the areas of home and school adjustment as there was no significant difference. A positive correlation between the areas of adjustment was re-

ported.

Krishna (1981) conducted a study on risk-taking and adjustment of adolescents on a sample of 200 (100 boys and 100 girls) XI grade students of age range 13-18 years. Choice Dilemmas Questionnaire (Kogan & Wallach, 1964) and Hindi Adaptation of Bell's adjustment inventory by Moshin & Hussain (1970) were administered. The findings revealed that sex contributed significantly to risk-taking in case of home adjustment only. Riskiness showed significant negative relationship with social adjustment for boys and significant positive relationship with home and emotional adjustment for girls.

Similarly Leelavathi (1987) in her study in Dharwad city on 450 samples found that males had good social and total adjustment than females.

Thirugnanasambadam (1990) also reported that boys were better adjusted than girls on a sample of 388 students of 9th grade. Similarly, Dutta et al. (1997) reported boys to be better adjusted than girls in the areas of health adjustment. The same authors in another study on home adjustment (1997) reported girls to be better. However, Mythili et al. (2004) investigated the adjustment problems of intermediate students. A sample of 150 boys and girls students were selected randomly from government and private management colleges in Vijayawada. A Telugu version of the 'Mooney Problem Checklist' was administered. The data were subjected to t test. The results reported that boys had more adjustment problems as compared to girls.

Anita (1994) provided an insight into the gender-differences in adolescent's self-concept and adjustment. The results proved girls better adjustment in emotional, social, educational and total areas of adjustment compared to boys. Similarly, Muni & Panigrahi (1997) found that girls were better adjusted in all the areas of adjustment pattern than boys. They examined the effect of maternal employment on adjustment of 80 children (40 boys and 40 girls) from 6th and 7th grades of two different schools of Berhampur,

Orissa, having equal number of employed mothers and housewives. Family demographic profile and adjustment inventory by Saraswat (1984) were administered. Paliwal et al. (2006) investigated the school environment, school adjustment and self-confidence of adolescents in age-group of 13 to 15 years. Sample of 120 adolescents (60 boys and 60 girls) were selected from Seedling Public School at Jaipur city and data were collected by using standardized tools, School Environment Inventory (Misra, 2002), High School Adjustment Inventory (Singh & Sengupta, 1987), and Agnihotri's Self-Confidence Inventory (Agnihotri, 1987). The results of the study revealed that majority of boys and girls scored in average category on school adjustment and self-confidence. Gender differences were found non-significant on all the aspects of school adjustment and self-confidence. School environment indicated no correlation with self-confidence and school adjustment of students except on social adjustment which was found to be negatively correlated with self-confidence.

Kuruvilla (2006) found that sex influenced the emotional adjustment of adolescents from his study on 980 tenth standard students using standard scale of emotional adjustment (Kuruvilla, 2002).

## **Socio-Economic Status**

Leelavathi (1987) in her study found that socio economic status was significantly associated with all areas of adjustment. Khan & Khan (1990) designed a study to find the effect of socio-economic status on level of aspiration and frustration of the students on a total sample of 100 low SES and 100 upper SES subjects, being randomly selected from Aligarh Muslim University, Aligarh of 12<sup>th</sup> grade. The Kuppaswamy's SES scale (1981), Singh & Tiwari's (1976) test for level of aspiration and Chauhan & Tiwari's (1972) Nariashya Maapa test to measure frustration were administered. The results revealed that upper SES group of subjects had high level of aspiration and low frustration

as compared to low SES. However, Sharma & Nanda (1997) found that adolescents belonging to middle SES suffered more frustration leading to higher aggression as compared to low SES adolescents. They attempted to see the effect of socioeconomic status on adolescent's aggression among boys. Sample of 120 adolescent boys (14-18 years) were administered with aggression scale by Pal and Nagvi (1971) and socioeconomic scale by Kulshrestha (1981).

### **Education And Occupation Of Parents**

The impact of gender and working condition of parents on adjustment of adolescents was studied by Jain (1994). The sample consisted of 402 boys and 305 girls of tenth standard. Problem Check List by Joshi & Pandey (1988) was used to identify the problems. The results revealed no gender difference in adjustment, whereas the working condition of the parents had a greater impact. Adolescents with both parents working faced more problems than the adolescents with mother working part time or house wife.

Jain & Jandu (1998) reported that girls of nonemployed mothers were better adjusted than boys after conducting a study on a sample of 240 students (14 – 18 years). Adjustment inventory for school students developed by Sinha & Singh (1984) was used to measure the adjustment of the students. They found that girls of non-employed mothers adjusted significantly well than that of employed mothers and no difference was found among the boys of employed and non-employed mothers.

### **Family Environment**

The image of adolescence is a time of storm and stress, intense moodiness and pre-occupation with the self has permeated both professional and lay perspectives on this developmental period. The families in general and parents in particular have often



been deemed to be the most important support system available to the child. The strongest factor in molding a child's personality is his relationship with his parents (Mohanraj & Latha, 2005). The family in its most common forms is a lifelong commitment between man and women who feed, shelter and nurture their children until they reach maturity. It is a primary socialization context and is, therefore, considered to be a very important factor influencing child development (Ozcinar, 2006). Family members are very important for survival, thus, strong emotional bonds evolved to foster long term commitment among parents, children and other relatives. The experience that the adolescent girls gain from the family decides the future adjustment of adolescent girls within society and their peer groups which eventually reflect the social maturity of adolescent girls (Unisa, 1995). Family environment continues to be of crucial importance throughout adolescence and young adulthood (Van Wel, 2000). Because of the important role of psychological functioning for youngsters' daily lives and their further social adaptation, it is apparently relevant to study the effect of the family environment on emotional adjustment of adolescents (McFarlane et al., 1994). Family cohesion and supportive relationships between family members are associated with adolescent psychological adaptation and lower depression (Herman et al., 2007).

Research regarding level of family conflict suggests that a conflictual family environment is associated with adolescents' insecurity and psychological distress, as well as aggressive behavior and conduct disorder (Wissink et al., 2006). During adolescence, well-being decreases and psychological problems increase. One aspect of the family that has been steadily found to affect emotional adjustment of adolescents is quality and stability of their parent's marriage (Amato & Keith, 1991a). Numerous studies have shown that youngsters growing up in families with a happy, harmonious parental marriage experience fewer problems and a higher well-being than those from divorced or maritally distressed families (Spruijt & DeGoede, 1997). Parental divorce generally has more nega-

tive effects on the adjustment of children (Amato & Keith, 1991a & b) as compared to their peers growing up in continuously intact families. Adolescents who have gone through the divorce of their parents are more likely to experience emotional problems, less likely to attend or complete college, more likely to display problematic behaviour and more likely to engage in early sex.

Home adjustment is basically a purposive transactional process as the individual lives in his family setting, advances educationally, pursues vocations, engages in social relationship, matures emotionally and grows into both physically and mentally healthy adult. It is an ongoing process that continues throughout the life although patterns of living systems always changing, consequently, it is inevitable that the quality of adjustment varies with time and situation. A person will sometimes experience moments of unhappiness and even despair. The effectiveness of adjustment is measured in terms of how well a person copes with his changing circumstances. Good adjustment of individuals indicates a kind of inner harmony in the sense that they are satisfied with themselves and have harmonious relationship with people with whom they are associated (Hurlock, 1978). The adjusted person seems to be happy in every walk of life and maladjusted person is disturbed with marked failures in life and unsatisfactory relationship with others and become frustrated and show problem behaviour (Begum & Rahman, 1991). Rahman & Khaique (1996) also found that maladjusted students suffered from socio-emotional problem (Khan & Sorear, 1970). Family is a source of greatest satisfaction and security of its members. The relationship among family members and their behaviour play a leading role in the adjustment of an individual.

Effect of family environment factors on the overall socio-emotional adjustment of the adolescent girl is influenced by degree of support, help and commitment in the family (cohesion), extent to which set rules are followed in the family (control), the amount of anger and aggression in the family (conflict), the degree of interest in political, social,

and cultural activities (intellectual-cultural orientation) and the extent to which family members are assertive, self sufficient and make their own decisions (Mohanraj & Latha, 2005). If adolescents are unconditionally accepted and cared in the family, then they show poor adjustment because parental support for social interaction influences the social and total adjustment. Johnson et al. (2001) studied that decreased family cohesion and increased interparental conflict can inadvertently provide family environments that are associated with increased feelings of loneliness, which may be associated with problems in adolescents' social interactions. Adolescent psychological adjustment and satisfaction is significantly related to level of perceived conflict in the family. Some researches indicate that parental monitoring is associated with adolescents' emotional well-being.

The family influence goes a long way in personal and social adjustment. of adolescents. The parents have to provide for the basic physical care and development of their children. Many parents hardly understand that for the psychological welfare of children happy family life is of vital importance. The parent-child relationship is so unique that each one has permanent and tremendous influence upon the other. There is all the time an emotionally charged atmosphere both for the child and the parents. Barber et al. (1994) found that lack of behavioral control by parents was related to adolescent internalizing problems, although it was more strongly related to adolescent externalizing parental monitoring and adolescent adjustment.

Parent's behaviour is the model for their children. There are three principal parental variables that pattern the personality development of the children. These variables are parent's attitude, parent's personality, and parent's behaviour. The authoritarian attitudes believe own authority. They have an autocratic approach in their dealings with children. This approach is likely to develop a submissive personality in their children; such children lack the feeling of security and independence. Such children are not popu-

lar with their companions. But children who had been victims of authoritarian and autocratic approach of their parents or guardians may sometimes and only in some special circumstances, evince traits of leadership. Such children become quite popular amongst their companions who like to follow them. The autocratic parents try to force the children into unquestioning obedience. They often fail to show any tolerance to the so called "annoyance value of children". They like quite and continuous children in preference to noisy and daring ones. Parents with democratic attitude are more likely to promote the growth of balanced personalities of their children from all point of view.

Parents' personality has its inevitable impact on the development of children. This means that parent's attitudes, character, traits, and values of life have their undeniable impact on the developing children. Personality of parents exerts greater influence on their children than their child rearing practices.

Parents behaviour may be characterized either by acceptance or rejection of some children. (Sears et al., 1969). It has been seen that the children who are accepted generally behave in a socially acceptable manner. Contrary to this, rejected children are found indulging in unsocial pursuits. Accepted children show good manners. They are considerate to others. They look cheerful. They enjoy their studies and other activities, they are friendly to others, and they show cooperativeness. There is greater emotional stability in them. The children who feel rejected show attention seeking behaviour. Such children may play truant and may present many problems for school. The rejected child feels that he is worthless and unwanted. This attitude develops in him inferiority complex and sense of insecurity. Due to this feeling he may attempt to win parental affection. This attempt may include such behaviors' as refusal to talk, refusal to eat, bed wetting. temperate and quarrelsome tone. If these tactics do not work the child may show hostility, aggressiveness, submissiveness or an attitude of indifference. The rejected child may choose to have good social adjustment outside home and he may be very

popular with peers. However, such cases are not very common.

The Child's (boy's or girls) development of personality pattern to a large extent depends upon how he/she perceives his (or her) parent's general nature and mode of behaviour towards them. Some children may feel that they are very free with their parents and they talk to them about any problem which is of immediate vital importance to them. In many situations, girls confine themselves to their mother and at such a point there is a need of enforcing the desired discipline or giving the needed guidance. The enforcement of the desired discipline is a very vital aspect of parent-child relationship. Parents play an important role in determining the educational adjustment of students. Both the parents play crucial roles is discouraging or encouraging the development of distinctive life styles of their children (Ansbacher & Ansbacher, 1956). Also children who are monitored more carefully by their parents tend to be better in schools than their peers (Steinberg et al., 1989). A study by Amalor & Suresh (1999) analyzed educational adjustment of higher secondary students with regard to some of the demographic variables like the family income and observed its influence on educational adjustment of higher secondary students. Many studies have shown that parents treat sons and daughters differently (Jacklin et al., 1986). The parent-child relationship has effects on development that last well into adulthood. Because of these long-lasting effects, the parent-child relationship is one of the most important developmental factors for the child (Miller et al., 1993)

### **Working Status Of Parents And Adjustment Of Adolescent Girl Child**

Economic status is one of the vital external influences on a child's development. Parents directly influence the quality of care and the quality of life a child has, thus parents play a vital role in their development. Interest in the effects of parental work on the development of children and adolescents has increased in recent years (Hoffman,

2000) In a study (Richards & Duckett, 1994), 10 to 13 years olds carried electronic pagers for one week and completed self-report forms in responses to random signals sent to them every hour. The most striking aspect of the study was the absence of significant differences associated with maternal employment. There were few differences in the quantity and quality of time associated with maternal employment. Other researchers have arrived at similar conclusions (Lerner et al., 1992). Parents are critical to every aspect of a child development. They provide healthy, stable environments for their children and providing a loving and nurturing relationship. The income of a parent or parents directly influences the quality of care and quality of life. Socio-economic status of a family depends on occupational status of parents (Botsari & Makri, 2005) Dual earner families are becoming a norm as the women's employment role has climbed. Maternal employment is typically accompanied by increased responsibilities and some time stress especially for mothers of very young children. Working parents often command considerable respect from their children. Because they demonstrate the worthy characteristics of industriousness, social compatibility, self-reliance, maturity, intelligence, and responsibility, the working parents often stand out to be role model to children. Because children identify with their parents, the feedback from such positive influence tends to be positive as well because many of these positive characteristics are imported to them when children identify with parents. Though working parents may be a role model to their children, sometimes even that can have a negative impact. It is often noticed that the children of such parents suffer from loneliness and lack of companionship.

Hoffman (1989) assert that, maternal employment is a fact of modern life. It is not an aberrant aspect of it, but a response to other social changes. It meets the needs not met by the traditional family ideal of a full-time mother and home maker. Not only does it meet the parent's needs, but in many ways, it may be a pattern better suited to socializing children for the adult roles, they will occupy. This is especially true for daughters, but

it is true for sons, too. The needs of the growing child require the mother to loosen her hold on the child, and this task may be easier for the working women whose job is an additional source of identity and self-esteem.

Employed mother, in the working class indicated a higher frequency of positive interactions with their children than did the full-time home makers. The findings of several studies comparing the children of working and nonworking mothers the cumulative finding are now fairly clear; the children past infancy, maternal employment has a generally positive effect for girls but some time is associated with negative effects for boys. Girls whose mother works are more independent, have more positive views of female role, and admire their mothers more than do girls whose mothers do not work. Most researchers in this area assume that it is not employment per se that produces these effects, but rather that mothers work creates changes both in the mother herself (her self-esteem or her morale, for example) and in the family interaction patterns. The women who work have more decision making power within the family and they may also have higher self-esteem particularly if they are satisfied with their work. Such power of self-esteem may spill over particularly into the women's interaction with her children, perhaps especially with a daughter. Some have focused on the concept of spillover effects – ways in which events at work affect home life and events at home carry over into the workplace. Most of their research has focused on negative spillover effects from work to home (Barnett, 1994; and Crouter, 2006). Positive spillover effect can also occur: A good marriage and rewarding interactions with children can protect a woman from the negative psychological effects of stresses at work and increase her job satisfaction (Barnett, 1994; and Rogers & May, 2003), and a rewarding, stimulating job can have positive effects on her interactions within the family (Greenberger et al., 1994). Despite negative spillover effect, dual-career families are faring well overall (Gottfried & Gottfried, 2006). Women are giving up personal leisure time and cutting back on housework to time for

their children meanwhile, their husband are slowly but steadily increasing their participation in household and child care activity .There is no indication that a mother's decision to work, in itself has damaging effect on child development: it can have positive or negative effects depending on the age of child and family circumstances (Gottfried & Gottfried, 2006). Living in a dual-career family is likely to be best for children when it means an increase in family income, when mothers are happy with the choice they have made, when fathers become more involved, and when children are adequately supervised after school (Hoffman, 2000; and Lerner & Noh, 2000).

Children of working mothers, who enjoy their work and remain committed to parenting show very favourable adjustment, a higher sense of self-esteem, more positive family and peer relations, less gender stereotyped beliefs, and better grades in school. Girls especially, profit from the image of female competence (Hoffman, 1989). African-American adolescent girls, whose mothers worked during the daughters early years, are more likely to stay in school. And overall, daughters of employed mothers perceive the woman's role as involving more freedom of choice and satisfaction and more achievement and career oriented.

Eccles et al. (1990) found that when parents were attuned to their adolescent developmental mental needs and supported their autonomy in decision making, the students were better adjusted during the school transition. Maternal employment had a generally positive effect for girls but sometimes was associated with negative effects for boys. Girls whose mothers worked were more independent, had more positive views of the female role, and admired their mothers more than did girls whose mothers did not work.

Employed mothers who value their parenting role are more likely to use authoritative child rearing and co-regulation granting their child independence with oversight. Ma-



ternal employment results in more time with fathers, who take on greater child care responsibility. More paternal contact is related to higher intelligence and achievement, mature social behaviour and gender stereotype flexibility. Dual-earner families, particularly employed mothers, have lately become the subject of a heated cultural debate, since the increased employment rates of women have challenged long-held social and cultural norms about gender and division of labor. A research (Gottfried & Gotlib, 2005) revealed that, although research indicated an equivocal or even beneficial relationship between maternal employment and child adjustment, strong beliefs persisted about the negative effects of maternal employment on women, their marriages, and especially, their children. Yet, contrary to predictions of deleterious outcomes, maternal employment per se cannot account for all of the variance related to child outcome. It is far too simplistic to look at whether a mother is employed or not employed and then search for relevant developmental effects on the children. Other dimensions may exist in the greater context of the family environment, including important factors such as parental discipline style, parenting self-efficacy, and interparental conflict, that act as mechanisms accounting for the relationship between maternal employment and child adjustment. Thus, while maternal employment and its potential association with levels of child adjustment has been the focus of much scholarly attention in recent years, there still exists only a minimal amount of descriptive research that examines the extent to which parental discipline style, parental self-efficacy, and interparental conflict mediate the relation between maternal employment and child adjustment.

The impact of maternal employment on children's socialization and mother-child interaction is of continued concern in child development (Hoftman et al., 1986). Although, a number of authors have pointed out the positive effects of maternal employment on children's adjustment (Hoffman, 1986) others have expressed concern over mothers long and inflexible working hours, the lack of part time jobs that pay ade-

quately and children's need for consistent adult supervision and high quality child care (Howell, 1973; Hughes & Galinsky, 1988; and Voydanoff, 1984). Recent study conducted by the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, researchers examined the effects of maternal employment during a child's first three years of life and again at adolescence (Aughinbaugh & Gittleman, 2003). The researchers were concerned with the effect of having a working mother early in childhood on adolescent risky behaviors (i.e., substance abuse and engagement in unprotected sexual intercourse). Results indicated that maternal employment in the first three years of life had no effect on risky behaviors committed when the children became teenagers, which suggests that maternal employment does not predict subsequent long-term negative outcomes for children. Another recent study by Harrison & Ungurer (2005) that examined the relationship between maternal employment and infant-mother attachment security at 12-months postpartum found that mothers who expressed more commitment to work and who returned to work within the first year of their child's birth were more likely to have secure infants than those who did not return to work within the first year. Recent evidence has indicated that, when mothers work, fathers spend increasing amounts of time with their children (Lamb, 2004). That is, although fathers in dual-earner families might not spend a significantly greater amount of time with their children than do those in single-earner families, they proportionately increase their child-rearing activities to that of the mothers. This is perhaps because mothers who work full time may relinquish some or most of their time that would ordinarily be devoted to child-rearing to their husbands. Early adolescents with employed mothers spend no less time with family, parents, friends, in class or alone, but do spend more time alone with fathers. Moreover, adolescents with single or employed mothers do not have more contentious or distant relationships with them than their peers in "traditional" families (Laursen, 1995).

Education and occupation of mother have found to be more democratic in several

studies. Chakrawarthy (1967) in her study on the problem of Indian girls found that the education of mother had significant relationship with problem of girls regarding parental authority and adjustment when mother was highly educated. Girls seemed to be more understanding and were better able to solve problem. Positive correlation was found in education of both parents and adjustment of adolescent girls. Children's of mothers who enjoy employed and remain committed to parenting show especially positive adjustment, a higher sense of self-esteem, more positive family and peer relations, less gender stereotyped beliefs and better grades in school (Hoffman, 1989; and Williams 1993). Crow & Crow (1974) stated that maternal employment may enhance adolescent's acquisition of independence and responsibility keeping in view that the family environment is important contributory factor to adjustment. Socio-economic status of family depended on occupational status of parents (Botson & Makri, 2003). Apart of it, family and educational environments, and the quality of personal interactions also depend on occupational status of family. Many of the studies that have compared the children of employed and non-employed mothers on child outcome measures such as indices of cognitive and socio-emotional development have failed to find significant difference. Patterns that have been revealed over the years include the following.

- (i) Daughters of employed mothers have been found to have higher academic achievement, and greater occupational commitment.
- (ii) Studies found higher cognitive scores for children with employed mother's shows, higher scores on socio-emotional indices.
- (iii) Earlier studies found that son of employed mothers showed lower school performance and lower I.Q. score than full-time homemakers.
- (iv) previous research has also found some social adjustment differences between children with employed and non-employed mothers, but with less consistency.

- (v) Daughters of employed mothers had been found to be more independent and scored higher on socio-emotional adjustment measures. They were less shy, more independent and had a higher sense of efficacy.

Youngblut et al. (1991, 1994, and 1998) found that the effects of maternal employment on children are sometimes positive and sometimes negative. Parents in non-employed mother families were more satisfied with their families than parents in employed mother families. Adolescents whose mothers began working reported statistically significant declines in psychological distress. This pattern was strongest for their symptoms of anxiety. Higher education was found to be a powerful mitigator of possible negative consequences for children whose mothers were working from financial necessity or were experiencing role conflict. They found that employed mothers had more positive perceptions and provided more enriching home environments for their children. They noted that in single-parent families, employment and consistency were positive influences on the mother-child relationship. Hoffman (1989), and Moorehouse (1991) observed that, it was not the mother's employment per se which affected child attachment security, but rather her sensitivity and responsiveness to her child, investment in parenting and participation in shared activities. Using the National Longitudinal Survey of Youth, Harvey (1999) observed that for mothers, working more hours in the first 3 years was associated with slightly lower vocabulary scores up through age 9 and slightly lower academic achievement scores before age 7, but had no significant relation to children's behavioural problems, compliance or self-esteem. Although these results suggest that parental employment status has few negative effects on young children, other research in the 1990s illuminated some of the conditions under which parental work makes its mark on family relations (Jenkins et al., 2000). Galinsky (1999) has similarly concluded that mother's employment in and of itself, has virtually no ill effect on children's development. Hoffman & Youngblade (1999) found that girls and boys with employed mothers

scored higher on academic achievement tests. This was true across ethnic groups and for children in one- and two-parent families. Working class boys (although not middle class boys in two-parent homes with full time home-makers received the highest peer ratings of hitting and teacher rating of acting out. Across socio-economic classes, daughters of employed mothers evidenced greater assertiveness and sense of internal control, the two important dimensions of emotional intelligence. Khan (2002) also emphasized on relationship between parental occupation and social adjustment of their children.

Botsari (2005) in his elaborate study, observed that parents relations are more significant for girls than for boys; the effect of relationships with parents on the adolescent's psychological adjustment weakness during adolescence, being always stronger for girls than for boys and in early adolescence parent-relations influence perceived classmate support, whereas in late adolescence family and peers appear to form two wholly independent social worlds.

Jewell & Stark (2003) indicate that family environment influenced adolescent's psychological adjustment and problem solving strategies as well as self-confidence and ability to set clear goals .There were more similarities than differences in the parenting of girls and boys. Parents reported equal levels of school support and harshness in parenting daughters and sons. In the HBSC sample, boys and girls were equally positive in describing their relationships with parents. However, in the NLSCY sample, girls tended to perceive their parents as more warm and less rejecting than boys. These results could be due to parental reactions to boys' more disruptive behaviour. Moreover, although boys and girls were equally at ease confiding in their mothers, girls confided less in their fathers than boys, This finding is highly consistent with the literature, in which, compared to younger girls, adolescent girls perceived their fathers as less available (Lieberman et al., 1999) and reported feeling more distant, uncomfortable and with-

drawn from their fathers, who the girls felt did not meet their emotional needs (Youniss & Smollar, 1985).

In the study McMunn (2011), asserted that mothers who work were more likely to have higher educational qualifications, lived in a higher income household, and had a lower likelihood of being depressed than mothers who were not in paid work. These factors explained the higher levels of behavioural difficulties for boys of non-working mothers, but the same was not true for girls. Children in single-mother households and in two-parent households in which neither parent was in work were much more likely to have challenging behaviour at age five than children where both parents were in paid employment.

## **ATTITUDE OF PARENTS AND ADJUSTMENT OF GIRL CHILDREN**

Attitudes can be distinguished from values and beliefs. Values are important outcomes that parents aspire to for their children, for example independence; while beliefs are ideas that are considered to be true. An attitude can be defined as 'a psychological tendency that is expressed by evaluating a particular entity with some degree of favour or disfavour. One of the key features of attitudes is their subjective quality. Research has indicated substantial evidence that high levels of parental involvement significantly affect adolescent wellbeing (Lecroy, 1988; Richards et al., 1991; and Dasgupta & Basu, 2002)

An attitude exists in a person's mind, it is a mental state, every attitude is about something, the object of the attitude, and social psychologists use the term attitude to refer to people's evaluation of virtually any aspect of their social world (Olson & Maio, 2003; and Petty et al., 2003). People can have favourable or unfavourable reactions to issues, ideas, objects, a specific behaviour, or entire social groups. An attitude is a hypothetical construct that represents an individual's degree of like or dislike for an item.

Attitudes are generally positive or negative view of a person, place, thing or event. People can also be conflicted or ambivalent toward an object meaning that they simultaneously possess both positive and negative attitudes. All people have attitudes which result in tendencies to respond positively or negatively to another person, a group of people, an object, a situation, involving objects, and people, or an idea.

The study of attitude is central to the field of social psychology because they are capable of colouring virtually every aspect of human experience. The tendency to evaluate stimuli as positive or negative – something people like or dislike appears to be an initial step in their efforts to make sense out of the world. In fact, such reactions, which can range from “awesome” to “eew”, occur almost immediately, even before they can fully integrate a new stimulus into their previous experience. Responding to a stimulus in term of our attitudes on an immediately evaluative basis produces different brain waves from a response on a non-evaluative basis (Crites & Cacioppo, 1996).

Attitude can influence a person’s thought even if he is not always reflected in his overt behaviour. Moreover, while many of his attitudes are explicit attitudes –conscious and reportable-other attitudes may be implicit attitudes uncontrollable and perhaps not consciously accessible to him. Attitude reflect evaluations of the world around a person and therefore represent a basic aspect of social cognition, so in a sense, attitudes truly are an essential building block of social thought (Eagly & Chaiken, 2005), Attitudes are important, because attitude do often affect people’s behaviour. This is especially likely to be true when attitudes are strong, well established, and accessible (Pett & Krosnick, 1995; Fazio, 2000; and Ajzen, 2001).

According to Judd et al. (1991), attitudes are lasting evaluations of various aspects of the social world – evaluation that are stored in memory. Zimbardo (1999) defined attitude as a positive or negative evaluation of people, objects, events, activities,

ideas or just about anything in ones environment.

The attitudes have three components (1) beliefs or cognitions, (2) an evaluation and, (3) a behavioural predispositions.

**1. Cognition:** An attitude includes an object label, rules for applying the label and a set of cognitions or knowledge structures associated with that label (Pratkanis & Greenwald, 1989). The cognitive component consists of the thoughts the person has about that particular attitude object including facts, knowledge, and beliefs.

**2. Evaluation:** An attitude also has an evaluative or affective component. It's boring" indicates that the course arouses a mildly unpleasant emotions in the speaker.

The evaluative component has both a direction (positive or negative) and intensity (ranging from very weak to very strong).The evaluation component distinguishes an attitude from other types of cognitive elements.

**3. Behavioural Predisposition:** An attitude involves a predisposition to respond or behavioural tendency toward the object. People having specific attitude are inclined to behave in certain ways that are consistent with the attitude. The degree of consistency between components is related to other characteristics of the attitude, greater consistency between the cognitive and affective components is associated with greater attitude stability and resistance to persuasion (Chaiken & Yates, 1985). Greater consistency is also associated with a stronger relationship between attitude and behaviour.

## **CHARACTERISTICS OF ATTITUDES**

The characteristics of an attitude may be mentioned keeping in view its nature. These are briefly stated below.

- Attitudes are acquired. These are not innate. A person develops them on the ba-



sis of his experiences. They may be based on physical motivations, but they are not inborn.

- Attitudes may also be of permanent nature, but changes may be effected in them in suitable and relevant situations.
- Attitudes are related to a person's known field of activities.
- An individual may have different types of attitudes. These may be related to his experience about a thing, incident, idea or perception.
- Attitudes may be general or specific. In other words, they may be related to group, community or race or may be related to any specific individual or tradition.
- Attitude is either positive or negative. Positive attitudes are beneficial. Negative attitudes are harmful.
- There is a touch of emotion in an attitude.

The nature of attitudes is dynamic. These are based on desires. Therefore, they motivate a person in a specific direction.

## **FUNCTIONS OF ATTITUDES**

Attitudes can provide an interpretative framework that allows us to easily make sense of new information; they can be a means of expressing who we are.

1. The first is the heuristic or instrumental function. People develop favourable attitudes toward objects that aid or reward them and unfavourable attitudes toward objects that thwart or punish them. Once they are developed attitudes provide a simple and efficient means of evaluating objects.
2. Second, attitude serves a schematic or knowledge function by aiding our interpretation of new information and influencing basic approach or avoidance respons-

es. Chen & Bargh (1999) found that positive attitudes toward an object were more quickly expressed when a lever had to be pulled toward the self; whereas negative attitudes were more readily expressed when a lever had to be pushed away from the self. Attitudes enable us to rapidly make sense of our social world and prepare us for responding to attitude relevant information in ways that maintain those attitudes.

3. Attitudes permit us to express our core values and beliefs that are attitudes can serve an identity or self expression.
4. Attitudes often serve a self-esteem function; attitude defines self and maintains self-worth. Some attitudes express the individuals' basic values and reinforce his or her self-image.
5. Attitudes also often serve an impression motivation function. This function can strongly affect how social information is processed.
6. Some attitudes protect the person from recognizing certain thoughts or feelings that threaten his or her self-image or adjustment.

## **FORMATION OF ATTITUDE**

There is no human being who is born with attitudes, nor they are formed of their own accord. They are formed in relation to a person, place or thing. Attitudes are formed in an individual in his interrelation with human beings and with some social institutions. The most important factor that operates in the function of attitudes is selectivity. If the individual is interested in certain issue he willingly tries to acquire some attitude which may be either favourable or unfavourable. "The first stage in the actual formation of an attitude is a perceptual style, with the internal factors of the organism and external (objective) factors of the stimulus situation coming into play". They say that there is always a subject-object relationship in attitudes and attitudes are precisely related to stimulus

situations. The stimulus situations may be home, automobile, souvenir, eating place, persons such as one's own body, mother, father, brother, friends, rival, teacher, wife or groups of people. These kinds of subject-object relationship do not have any biological significance. Considerable evidence indicates that attitudes formed on the basis of direct experience often exert stronger effects on behaviour than ones formed indirectly through hearsay (Regan & Fazio, 1977). Attitudes formed on the basis of direct experience are easier to bring to mind and this magnifies their impact on behaviour. The stronger attitudes are, the greater their impact on behaviour (Petkova et al., 1995). Three factors may play a key role in determining attitude importance i.e., one is self-interest, the greater the impact on an individual's self-interest, the more important the attitude. Another is social identification, the greater the extent to which an attitude is held by groups with which an individual identifies, the greater its importance. Attitudes may be formed through reinforcement (instrumental conditioning), through associations of stimuli and response (classical conditioning) or by observing others (observational learning). People can acquire an attitude towards their classes and jobs through instrumental conditioning that is learning based on direct experience with the object. If a person experiences rewards related to some object, his attitude will be favourable. Conversely, if he associates negative emotions or unpleasant outcomes with same object he will dislike and his attitude will be unfavourable. Only a small portion of people's attitudes are based on direct contact with the object. People learn attitudes from their parents as a part of the socialization process. Research shows that children's attitude toward male-female relations (gender roles), divorce, and policies frequently are similar to those held by their parents (Glass et al., 1986; and Sinclair et al., 2005). This influence also involves instrumental learning; parents typically reward their children for adopting the same or similar attitudes. The interactions of the family are the most powerful influencing force in the formation of attitudes.

An attitude can be evoked by the association of an unconditioned stimulus with a

neutral or conditioned stimulus. People acquire attitudes and prejudices toward a particular group through classical conditioning in which a stimulus gradually elicits a response through repeated association with other stimuli. Many studies indicate that when initially neutral words are paired with stimuli that elicit strong negative reactions, for instance, electric shocks or loud sound the neutral words acquire the capacity to elicit favourable or unfavourable reactions (Staats & Staats, 1958; and Staats et al., 1962). Since evaluative reactions lie at the very use of attitudes, these findings support that attitude towards initially neutral stimuli can be acquired through classical conditioning. Interestingly, studies indicate that classical conditioning can occur below the level of conscious awareness even when people are not aware of the stimuli that serve as the basis for this kind of conditioning. Attitudes can be influenced by subliminal conditioning – classical conditioning that occurs in the absence of conscious awareness of the stimuli involved.

Attitudes are also acquired through the process of instrumental conditioning, which is a process of rewards or punishments tied to one's attitudes and actions. Sometimes the conditioning processes is rather subtle, with the reward being psychological acceptance. Parents reward children with smiles, approval, or hugs for stating the right views. As a result of this form of conditioning, most children express political, religious, and social views that are highly similar to those of their parents and other family members, until the teen years when peer influences become especially strong (Oskamp & Schultz, 2005). As adults, individuals may be aware that different groups they belong to will reward (or punish) them for expressing support for particular attitude position. They may even find themselves expressing one view on a topic to one audience and another view to a different audience.

A third means by which attitudes are formed can operate even in the absence of direct rewards for acquiring or expressing those attitudes. This process is observational learning, and it occurs when individuals acquire attitudes or behaviours simply by ob-

serving others (Bandura, 1997). While many attitudes are formed through social learning, this is not the only way in which they are acquired. Another mechanism involves social comparison, people's tendency to compare themselves with others in order to determine whether their view of social reality is or is not correct (Festinger, 1954). Another source of attitudes is the media, especially television and films. Hence, the mechanism may be observational learning. The media provides interpretive packages or frames about an object that may influence Magazines, and newspapers can produce cognitive images of a racial group as being volatile, dangerous, or unreasonable produce negative attitude.

## **DETERMINANTS OF ATTITUDES**

There are various factors which affect people's attitude, including genetic endowment, physiological conditions (maturation, illness, drugs, etc.), and direct experience with the attitude object, total institution like child-rearing practices and brain washing, and nonverbal communications. Each of these classes of factors affects attitude formation in two ways : (1) by contributing specific attitudinal content to the person's belief systems, (2) by determining the dynamic characteristics of the system, such as its openness to the change or degree of integration

**1. Genetic Factor:** Some researcher considers the possibility that there may be a genetic component in attitude determination only with trepidation. The plausibility of a genetic factor in attitudes can be seen in study of racial prejudice. It is a matter of concern to what extents there is a genetically determined attitude to be hostile to groups that are perceived different from oneself (for example, Jews teenagers, Southerners, artists, homosexual or the wealthy). One hereditary component in any such innate inter-group hostility for which there is abundant evidence is a genetic transmission of the organism's general level of aggressiveness. An endocrine or neural mechanism for such transmission may be responsible and it

seems plausible for the self-assertive aggressiveness to have a selective survival value. Indeed this very obviousness has probably given rise to some of people's emotional reluctance to accept the genetic origin of attitudes. It implies not only that hostility to people different from oneself and similarly unpleasant attitudes may be very hard to change, but also suggests that the trait may be growing more common, since groups that express such out-group hostility would seem to have a selective survival advantage. The genetic doctrine is especially dismal when applied to attitude formation, because it seems to imply that "bad" attitudes like racial prejudice will be hard to change and that the genes for malevolent selfish attitudes will increase in frequency because they seem to offer survival value.

**2. Physiological Factor:** Besides the relatively persistent genetic factors, there are various transient physiological conditions that might account for intra- and inter-individual differences in attitudes. Among such conditions are aging, illness, and certain pharmacological and surgical interventions, each of which can affect the individual's belief system by determining its actual content or its openness to change due to external influence.

Several lines of evidence suggest that aging or maturation of the person has some impact on his attitudes. Not all age-related attitude change need be due to physiological aging *per se*, since it might be caused by nonphysiological factors associated with aging, such as altered social role or accumulated experience. Leaving aside the question of the ultimate causal explanation, several lines of research suggest that there may be a kernel of truth in the notion that as one progresses through the age of man one's attitude orientation goes through a regular metamorphosis, including such reputed stages as the negativeness of the three-year-old, the pliant placidity of the latent period, the rebelliousness of the adolescent, and the conservatism of old age. Longitudinal studies of child development suggest that, if individuals mature, there are systematic shifts in their mean levels of dominance, aggressiveness, competitiveness, conformity, inde-

pendence, and other general attitude tendencies. Even the specific orientations of these tendencies, for example, toward peers rather than parents or other authority figures, show systematic age trends. There is considerable intra-individual consistency in these attitude orientations from age to age as exhibited by fairly high test-retest correlations but substantial changes with age are exhibited in some areas. Research on political socialization also suggests that changes in attitude orientations are associated with maturation. Sociological and political science surveys have indicated that there are some systematic age trends in political attitudes from early childhood to old age.

Aging can also affect the functioning as opposed to the content of attitude systems by changing the individual's susceptibility to attitude change.

Another physiological factor besides aging, reputedly associated with temporary and long-term changes in attitudes is illness. Encephalitis is supposed to increase aggressiveness and general hostility in many of those affected with it, even after the immediate physiological symptoms have been eliminated; likewise, tuberculosis is said to be associated with optimistic and euphoric attitudes toward life, epilepsy with misanthropy and distrustfulness. Somewhat more firmly established are relations between endocrine disorders and general attitudinal states. There is a growing body of data showing effects of fatal illness on the attitudinal outlook of the patient, though here the attitudinal effects may be due to the finality of the condition rather than the disease processes themselves.

Illnesses can also affect belief systems nonspecifically by their impact on the individual's openness to persuasion. Empirical work on this issue is lacking, but one would expect disorders, particularly acute ones, to be associated with increases in dependency that would enhance influence ability and conformity. However, illness would also tend to enhance withdrawal and self-concern tendencies which, in turn, would tend to shut the person off from reception of external influence, attempts and produce heightened

anxiety. While illnesses have some impact on belief systems, their treatments seem to have an even stronger effect. This important and dramatic area has received very little direct research attention, but there are a number of ways in which physiological treatments such as drug administration, deprivation states, psychosurgery, isolation, etc., would seem to affect the general level of persuasibility. A treatment can reduce persuasibility either by lowering the person's receptivity (attention and comprehension) to outside messages or by decreasing his tendency to yield to persuasive messages that he does receive. More interesting are those treatments which make the person less able to receive persuasive induction by putting him in a trance-like state for example, in the conditions of administration of certain drugs (opiates, barbiturates, tranquilizers, LSD, etc.), lobotomy, electro-shock therapy, hyperventilation, sleep, and food deprivation, rhythmic stimulation, and various kinds of procedures that induce hypnosis. All these procedures seem to have physiological effects that reduce the person's contact with outside social (and even physical) reality, and thus make him less susceptible to social influence.

These same procedures, however, tend to have an opposite effect due to their impact on the yielding mediator. It can be reasoned that any treatment which makes an individual more susceptible to hallucinations heightens his suggestibility. It is expected that susceptibility to hallucinations is symptomatic of an inability to restrain one's reactivity to outside stimuli, including suggestions coming from other people. Almost all the procedures just mentioned, such as drug administration, rhythmic stimulation, etc., enhance the person's tendency to hallucinate, which would therefore also increase the person's yielding to social influence. For example, sensory deprivation seems to affect the person's persuasibility. The various deprivation states tend to have a demoralizing effect on the person, such as, would enhance his yieldingness.

**3. Perceptual Factor:** The manner in which individuals perceive an object, incident, group or individual influences the formation of an attitude concerning that object, inci-



dent, group or individual. People perceive the same stimulus in different ways. It is on account of this factor that the attitude of an individual concerning a certain thing or idea differs from that of another.

**4. Motivational Factor:** Some motivation is always present in the background of an attitude. Therefore, there is an intimate relationship between motivation and attitude. A person's attitude is positive in relation to those things, which help him in satisfying his needs or prove useful in the fulfillment of his motivations. But he develops negative attitude towards such things, which do not help the fulfillment of his needs and motivations. This principle is in the background of attitudes of nations towards each other.

**5. Verbal Factor:** People not only develop attitudes towards those things or individuals who are personally known to us, but they also develop attitudes towards those about whom they read or hear. They in this case, develop attitude according to what they read or hear.

**6. Cultural Factor:** Culture or cultural background has a great say in the development of attitude. It is because of the cultural influence that individuals brought up in different cultures have different attitudes towards a certain thing or ideal. An individual's needs, motivations and perceptions may differ in nature due to varying cultural influences. Hence, it is natural to find different attitudes developing in men due to divergent cultural influences.

**7. Social or Group Membership Factor:** Man is a social animal and he learns about things, other individuals, institutions, principles and different ideals by living in a society. He forms attitudes about things according to knowledge he gains from the society. Those things, which are favourable develop positive and those, which are unfavourable naturally give rise to negative attitudes.

Social attitudes are of three kinds – reciprocal, common, and private. When the attitude is for one another, it is reciprocal, common attitude is commonly found in each member of the group. The private attitude is an individual's attitude for the other, while the other person concerned is not aware of it.

Kashani et al. (1987), and Barrera et al. (1992) show that parental support has positive impact on the development of personality of the adolescents. Rowe (1994), and Harris (1998) claim that there is little compelling evidence of parents' influence on behavior and personality of adolescents. Collins et al. (2000) conclude that parental influences on child development are neither as unambiguous as earlier researchers suggested nor as insubstantial as current critics claim; they state "interactions and moderator effects best explain how parents influence children". Bomes & Olson (1985) concentrate on the impact of parental attitude on cognitive development of adolescents and state that cognitive development of adolescents will be much better if their parents assume liberal attitude towards them.

Most researches in this area assure that it is not employment per-se that produces these effects, but rather that the mothers work creates changes both in the mother herself (her self-esteem or her morale) and in the family interaction patterns. It is also known that women who work have more decision making power within the family and they may also have higher self-esteem particularly if they are satisfied with their work. Such power of self-esteem may spill over particularly into the women's in mentally with her children, perhaps especially with a daughter. Bronfenbrenner (2005) finds, for example, that working mothers give more positive descriptions of their young daughters than do nonworking mothers which may help to account for the more positive outcomes for girls whose mothers are employed.

Parental attitudes towards their children have a strong impact on the child's de-

veloping sense of self and self-esteem, with parental warmth and support being key factors for the child .An attitude and behaviour change is an essential component of the empowerment process. Attitudes are feelings, beliefs or opinions of approval or disapproval towards something. Studies have demonstrated the extensive relationship between attitude and behaviour change. It is likely an effective campaign on attitude change on various socio-cultural belief systems and practices could impact the elimination of gender bias and discrimination against girls in most societies. The findings showed that parental attitude to equal access to and the participation of the girl-child to education is still negative and unsupportive. Some 83.3% of the parents preferred to educate the boys rather than the girls as only 29.0% agreed that girls are useful to their family of origin when they are married while 77.10% of the pupils also submitted that her marriage is the most important rather than education.

Ezeliora & Ezeokana (2011) assert that the home is the cradle for development from where the girl child builds and develops her knowledge, inclinations and interest. The home which should provide the girl child the good environment. There are continuums of parental attitudes and traditional practices in the home directed to the girl child that are considered harmful and obstacles to girl child's acquisition of the basic scientific skills. These practices vary from disinterestedness on the needs of the girl child and exploitation to open hostility, over protection and exercise restriction of the girl child, male preference, absentee parenting and early marriage and so on. The consequences of these practices on the girl child result to emotional breakdown that is manifested by their lack of self-esteem, and self confidence poorer self actualization and evaluation and destruction of academic ambition of girl child. As a result, the girl child lacks the will power to learn difficult science and poor attitude towards science.

## **Working Status Of Parents And Their Attitude Towards Girl Child**

Working status of parents also seems to determine their attitude toward girl child. Family environment of both working parents is certainly different from the family where only father is earning and mother is purely a housewife. Due to greater exposure to our world and realization of the importance of girl in family upliftment, it is reasonable to believe that both working parents show more favourable attitude toward girl child than in the condition where only father earns and mother is purely a housewife. Parents' educational level influence their urge of making their children to learn, therefore, the attitude of parents towards the education of their children varies accordingly and generally it favours male child more than female child. In general, it has been observed that families of different educational level have differing attitude towards education of their girl child. Higher educated parents place great emphasis upon the value of education, while middle educated parents regard education as important primarily in so far as it prepares the child for the vocation. Lower educated parent regard the school with suspicion and consider the education as essentially unprofitable. The literature also suggests that the level of education influences parent's knowledge, beliefs, values, and goals about child rearing. Higher level of education may enhance parent's facility in becoming involved in their children's education and also enable parents to acquire and model social skills and problem-solving strategies conducive to children's school success. It seems reasonable to believe that high educated parents tend to be of more egalitarian attitude than low educated parents Education and employment has brought about self-reliance, confidence and a sense of identity in the women. As a result of being educated and employed, they are now better turned out, outgoing, open to new ideas, well-informed and aware of their rights and surroundings. They can identify and cope with their problems better as they have lot of exposure and access to the world. They are much of their own individual now, on the road to emancipation. This change on woman's part, that is, education and employment has got significant implications not only for the woman concerned herself but for her family too. It is found that mothers with higher levels of education use more child-centered parenting (that is to be more

responsive to and accepting of their children's needs) and inductive reasoning when disciplining their children (Kelley et al., 1992). Besides education, married women employment also influences the development of children. Hoffman (1980) found that there were measurable differences in academic performance and other measure of children's well-being depending on maternal employment status. Similarly young children's socio-emotional development was also observed to be influenced by early and extensive maternal employment. Children whose mothers were employed full-time, beginning in their first or second year of life, scored more poorly on the compliance component of the composite adjustment measure than did children whose mothers were not employed during their first three years (Belsky & Eggebeen, 1991). On the contrary, Baruch (1972) suggested that mother's working outside the home tends to have a salutary effect on girls. Her study revealed that daughters from the families in which the mothers worked tended to admire their mothers more, had a more positive conception of the female role and were more likely to be independent. Surely, if maternal employment makes a difference to the child, it is likely to be exhibited in the mother-child relationship too. Nock & Kingston (1988) for example, found differences in the amount of time parents spend with their children depending on maternal employment status, although the differences were most pronounced for parents of preschoolers and in non-child-centered time. Besides this, it was found that parents imposed fewer structures or democratic institutions emerged in the political field that undermined the authoritarian mores of feudalism prevailing in the society. The most significant and appreciable change that resulted from it was on the part of women folk, that was, due acknowledgement or realization of the importance of women's education for the family and the society in general. Thus, the literacy rate of women in India (The Census of India, 2001) increased per year and is still continuing, it is clear that the literacy rate of women till date continues to significantly lag behind that of men but this fact can also not be overlooked that it has increased strikingly, over the years, in relation to men. Likewise, women are competing with men on an equal footing even on acquiring highest degrees of educa-

tion and pursuing scientific and technical professions which were earlier considered to be the domains of men regulations on the child's out of school activities when the mother was employed full time (Muller,1995). Mother's employment also influences the father-child relations. Fathers were seen to be responsible for child care when their wives were employed part-time rather than full-time and when their wives worked non-day shifts. On the other hand, when wives worked a rotating schedule it discouraged their husbands from spending time on the child care (Pleck & Staines, 1985).

All studies clearly indicate that education and employment go together and exert potential impact on attitude of parents leading to better adjustment and well being of their children.

Preschoolers experience a significant decline in time spent with their mothers when their mothers go to work and total time spent with the child has shown to decrease by as much as 2 hours per day. A trade off is found between time and money, as family income increases whereas mother's time with child decreases. Hence these two may offset each other. Mothers may often compensate for this by decreasing social, educational and personal activities that do not involve the children (Chase-Lansdale et al., 2003). The incidence of childhood obesity was found to increase with increases in maternal employment as the number of hours spent with the child decrease, thus decreasing access to healthy food and increasing dependence on junk food (Hawkins et al., 2008). The Millennium Cohort Study Child Health Group stated that long hours of maternal employment, rather than lack of money, may impede young children's access to healthy foods and physical activity (ibid). In contrast, it was noted that, for pre-adolescent children (Greenberger & O'Neill, 1992), maternal employment (typically, conditioned by mothers' level of education and child gender) was more strongly associated with fathers' and teachers' perceptions of children than with mothers' perceptions, and, in some cases, especially with fathers' and teachers' perceptions of daughters. Fathers perceived their 5-6-year-olds as having more

problem behaviors' when mothers were currently employed full time. Fathers and teachers viewed children's behaviour as more problematic when less educated mothers had been employed during more years of the child's lifetime. Mothers' transitions into employment were related to improvements in adolescents' mental health.

With regards to maternal employment, and fathers, however, recent evidence has indicated that, when mothers work, fathers spend increasing amounts of time with their children (Lamb, 2004). That is, although fathers in dual-earner families might not spend a significantly greater amount of time with their children than do those in single-earner families, they proportionately increase their child-rearing activities to that of the mothers. This is perhaps because mothers who work full time may relinquish some or most of their time that would ordinarily be devoted to child-rearing to their husbands; the fathers. In turn, the increased involvement that fathers have with their children likely heightens their self-efficacy about their role as a father (Almeida et al., 2001). Studies indicate that time spent taking care of children provides fathers with opportunities to display affection and to nurture their children (Almeida & Galambos, 1997). This increased time spent in routine child-care activities has been shown to be related to fathers' enhanced self-confidence and competence as providers of emotional support for their children (Almeida et al., 2001). Thus, as compared to families where fathers are the sole source of income, fathers in dual-earner families might report higher levels of self-efficacy than their sole-breadwinner counterparts. In addition, as marital partners share economic responsibilities for the family, it is reasonable to assume that both mothers and fathers, in assuming a more egalitarian partnership, will also share their time and emotional energy to invest in parenting.

Kohn (1969) demonstrated that working class fathers whose occupations require compliance with authority are more likely to have child rearing attitudes that stress obedience and to favour physical punishment as a means of discipline, whereas, white col-

lar workers (middle class) tend to place a relatively high value on personal characteristic, as self-direction, creativity and individualism. The processes of imparting these values into the children are persuasion, motivation, reason, and explanation. Children are rarely physically punished in middle-class families. They are also very selective in the development of internal control and are prone to taking into account not only children's behaviour and its objective consequences but also children's motives or intentions. He asserts that these parental values originate in the location and status of their occupation.

### **Gender Of Parents And Their Attitude Towards Adolescent Girl Child**

Gender of parents is also an important factor in attitude toward girl child. It is generally observed that mothers are more supportive towards their daughters and they don't show biases between their daughters and sons as stronger as fathers. Sharma et al. (2005) observed that more than 50% of mothers want their daughter's education level to be up to post-graduation level and 95% of mothers would allow their daughters to select subjects of their own choice and take admission in any college, even out of state.

Gender asymmetry is a universal phenomenon. Women accounts for half of the world's population, perform two-thirds of its work, receive one-tenth of the worlds income and own less than one-hundredth of the world property – gender discrimination is greatly embedded in and reinforced by social attitude. First ,there is the social attitude towards women in general and girl child in particular, which is formed through various ways – rituals, family, upbringing, beliefs, media, and even the collective wisdom of local area .Women's self concept is related only to their womanhood and to nothing else.

More than half of the world's population is female. Yet despite this fact, in many cultures females have been treated like a minority group. They have been excluded from economic and political power, they have been the subject of strong negative ster-



eotypes, and they have faced overt discrimination in many areas of life-work settings, higher education, government (Fisher, 1992; and Heilman et al., 1992). Since the late 1990s, this situation is changing, at least in some countries and to some degree. Overt discriminatory practices have been banned by laws in many nations, and there has been at least some weakening of negative gender-based stereotypes. Yet such progress has been spotty at best, and sexism – prejudice based on gender- continues to exert harmful effects upon females in many countries (Kanekar et al., 1988).

Females have often been the object of strong, persistent stereotypes (Aube & Koestner, 1992). For example, in many cultures, males are assumed to possess such desirable traits as decisiveness, forcefulness, confidence, ambition, and rationality. In contrast, the corresponding assumptions about females include less desirable traits such as passivity, submissiveness, indecisiveness, emotionality, and dependence (Deaux, 1993,). These differences may be more a reflection of the impact of stereotypes and their self-confirming nature than a basic difference between females and males.

Since the late 1990s, most people have started agreeing that females can definitely be effective leaders. However, people do not hold them in equally high regard and evaluate them as favourably as men. Research findings indicate that they actually demonstrate more negative nonverbal behaviours toward female leaders (Butler & Geis, 1990). Moreover, such differences occur even when individuals strongly deny any bias against females. Apparently, many persons still find women in leadership roles to be somewhat disturbing, perhaps because leadership on the part of women seems counter to prevailing gender stereotypes (Eagly et al., 1992). The same researchers also found that the tendency to down-rate female leaders was considerably stronger when the female leaders adopted a style of leadership viewed as stereotypically masculine (autocratic, directive), when the persons who evaluated them were males, and when the females occupied leadership roles in the fields where most leaders were males. Kent &

Moss (1994) also suggest that females continue to face subtle disadvantages even when they do manage to obtain positions of leadership and authority. The Indian scenario is not very much different. Since long through history, it has been observed that females are ascribed a lower social status in man-dominating society. Attitude of people toward girl child is considerably less favourable than male child. As per 2001 census sex ratio in India is 933/1000 males, which continues to be significantly adverse towards women and is the lowest amongst 10 most popular countries in world. Most alarming is decrease in CSR (Child Sex Ratio). In Punjab the number was the least (793) in 2001, followed by Haryana (820) and Chandigarh (845). Advances in technology and diagnostic facilities have opened up a venue for girl haters leading to serious disturbance in sex ratio as a result of female feticide. Desire for male child manifests so bluntly that parents have no qualms about repeated, closely spaced pregnancies, premature deaths, and even terminating child before it is born. Birth of a female child is received as a curse with economic and social liability. In each corner of India, girls face discrimination; they often receive less food than boys, have less access to schooling and unlike boys they are made to do long hours of labour beginning at a tender age.

Every society has differential expectations regarding the characteristics and behaviour of men and women. Men traditionally have been expected to be competent of competitive, logical, able to make decisions easily and ambitious. Women have been expected to be high in warmth and expressiveness, gentle, sensitive, tactful (Broveman et al., 1972). Parents employ these or other expectations as guidelines in socializing their children.

Mothers engage in behaviour oriented toward fulfilling the child's physical and emotional needs (Baumrind, 1980), whereas fathers engage the child in rough and tumble, physically stimulating activity (Walters & Walters, 1980). Fathers also engage sons in more rough and tumble play than daughters. These differences are found in Europe-

an, American, African, and Hispanic families (Parke, 1996).

Parents of adolescents, especially mothers, often speak positively about their relationship with the adolescents. They note positive change such as increased independence and maturity in their children as they become teenagers and feel that the parent-child relationship becomes rather than chiller. Most parent-adolescent relationships are close, and most retain whatever quality they had in childhood, still the parent-child relationship does change during adolescence. Time spent together decreases, and this can make adolescents feel less emotionally close to their parents. A modest increase in parent-child conflict is also common at onset of puberty (Steinberg, 2002). Young adolescents assert themselves, and they and their parents squabble more. However, the bickering is mainly about relatively minor matters such as disobedience, homework, household chores, and access to privileges, and frequency of conflicts decreases from early to late adolescence.

Honeyman (2012) asserts that a girl's father has tremendous effect on her life and view of herself though many men do not realize the negative impacts they could have on their daughters through simple everyday actions, they need to be aware that their ideas will be passed on to all of their children. Though the impact on females is a potentially damaging one to health, the effect on males is to follow in their father's footsteps and treat and view women how they have observed their most important role model do all their lives. Thus, the cycle continues unless fathers are willing to make the effort to reach out to their children in a way that teaches love and respect based not solely on appearance.

## **IMPACT OF PARENTAL ATTITUDE ON ADJUSTMENT**

In addition to biological changes during adolescence the parent-adolescent relationship undergoes a lot of change which is rarely understood by the parents, who were

playing a dominant role with their younger child but the very nature of their child's growing up process requires a more egalitarian and gender bias free relationship. This changing relationship produces conflicts and friction which sometime result in form of youth problems especially in case of girl child. The importance of good parent-child relationship and healthy home environment in the healthy development of individuals in the later life has been well documented in literature. The quality of an adolescents relationship with his/her parents is a key component to healthy adolescent development (Rueter & Congner, 1995). Several studies (Baumrind, 1971; Ojha, 1972; Grelow, 1973; and Tewari & Mishra, 1977) have been conducted to see the effect of child rearing practices on achievement in different cultural context. The general findings of these studies have been that fewer restrictions from parents lead to high level of achievement motivation. It was noted that parents who show more affectionate and permissive attitudes and use less restrictive and hostile psychological control tended to have children with higher achievement motives. These studies also indicated that positive emanation of the child by his parents favour the development of higher achievement motivation. (Clark (1983), & Comer (1988) believed that the family environment had a significant effect on the child's educational adjustment and development. In a study, Sterinberg et al. (1992) reported that authoritative parenting led to better adolescent school performance and stronger school engagement.

Parent-child relationship develops in families, when the child learns to act and behave according to limits prevailing in home and families; the personality of child is influenced indirectly by his parents through his tendency to imitate and to identify with them. If an adolescent who has a very close relationship with family member (mother or father), he identifies himself with this person and wants to develop similar personality pattern. Attachments to parents was found to have a significant strong effect on self-image, particularly in the areas that gain prominence during development period, such as

body image, vocational goals, sexuality and attitudes (Koon, 1997)

Children grow up in families which provide consistent and reasonably permanent relationship. In families children first learn social and cognitive skill. For a child, a mother role is very clearly defined. Mother-child relationships are emotionally charged, mothers love, protects and care for their children but they also restrict their activities, curbing their expression of emotions and making them fit into adult routines. She is care taker, a friend, ammeter, a chef, a chauffeur, a doctor, a disciplinarian, a detective etc. A child life is dictated by his mother's words and actions. She is comfort giver and a primary source of identification for all children. The emotional relationship between mothers and children may be more or less accepting, responsive and child cantered, with some mothers showing more warmth and involvement in their children and their activities than others. Some mothers are more controlling and restrictive, wanting their children to do what they are told compared with others who are more permissive and allow their children a greater say in what they do.

Baumoin (1991) has suggested that parent's behaviour can be grouped into one of three distinct patterns or clusters which she call authoritarian, permissive, and authoritative. These three parental patterns have different implications for children's social, emotional, and intellectual development, what she calls "instrumental competence". Parents whose parental style she calls authoritarian tend to demand high standards of behaviour and performance from their children, requiring them to obey and line up to standards set by the parents. Authoritarian parents do not encourage initiative or independence nor do they listen to their children's viewpoint or take notice of their ideas and preferences. They express little warmth; there are few hugs and verbal expressions of affection. Children brought up in authoritarian families do not demonstrate a high level of instrumental competence. They tend not to take social initiative, they lack achievement motivation, are low in self-esteem, lack confidence around peer and are sometime ag-

gressive and hostile to other children. These characteristics persist into adolescent.

Permissive parents have a very different approach to childcare, they are more children centered, accepting and tolerant of their children's impulses, and so are unlikely to respond negatively and become angry if their children behave inappropriately or socially unacceptable ways. The children of permissive parents are much less likely to be punished for noisy or destructive play. Permissive parents are moderately warm and express affection towards their children but are unlikely to express their anger, impatience or annoyance. Children of permissive parents tend to be low in instrumental competence and perform less well on tasks of social and cognitive skill. They are aimless and impulsive with little self-reliance and self control. The third parental style is authoritative parents give their children considerable freedom but they have clear limits, they assume they have more skill and knowledge than their children and so are willing to restrict them when they think that is for the best. Parents are prepared to explain their behaviour and their rules and to listen to and consider their children's opinion and contribution. They express both positive and negative emotions, displeasure at bad behaviour as well as affection and pleasure at things their children do well (Baumrind, 1991). The children of authoritative parents tend to show greater instrumental competence. A parental mixture of moderate discipline-sensitivity to children's needs and demands for mature behaviour seem to provide a context in which children develop self-esteem, independence, resourcefulness, achievement motivations and good relations with peers and adults, these positive outcomes are still apparent in adolescent. Parent's use of reasoning; consistent discipline and expression of warmth are positively related to children's self-esteem internalized control, prosocial attitudes and intellectual achievement. Maccoby & Martin (1983) added a fourth parenting style uninvolved or neglectful. Uninvolved parents are low in both responsiveness and demandingness because of stress or depression these parents sometimes focus on their own needs rather than on those of the child. Neglectful parenting has therefore been linked with a variety of behavioural disor-

ders in childhood and adolescence (Baumarind, 1991; Parke & Buriel, 1998; and Thompson, 1998). Baumarind (1989) work has established the superiority of the authoritative style of parenting and this has been repeatedly supported (Baumarind, 1991; and Darling & Steinberg, 1993). A longitudinal study of 585 ethnically and socio-economically diverse families in Tennessee & Indiana from pre kindergarten through grade 6 found that four aspects of early supportive parenting i.e., warmth, use of inductive discipline, interest and involvement in children's contacts with peers and practice teaching of social skill, predicted children's later behavioural, social, and academic outcomes (Pettitet et al., 1997). In addition to differing on responsiveness and demandingness, parenting styles also differ in regard to psychological control. Psychological control refers to control attempts that intrude into the psychological and emotional development of the child (Barber, 1996). Both authoritarian and authoritative parents place demands on their children and they expect their children to behave appropriately and obey parental rules. Authoritarian parents, expect that children should accept their judgment values and goals without questioning. In contrast, authoritative parents are open to give and take and make greater use of explanation thus, although authoritarian and authoritative parents are equally high in behavioural control, authoritative parents are low in psychological control, while authoritarian parents are high in psychological control. Young children whose parents respond more positively to their emotional distress have been found to be more likely to react positively to emotional distress in others, display more prosocial behaviour (Zahn et al., 1979), score higher on measure of empathy, and are less likely to experience personal distress in sympathy evoking contexts. Such children are also rated as more competent by their preschool teachers (Roberts & Strajer, 1987) show greater social-emotional competence (Denham, 1993), and be more popular among their peers (Putallaz, 1987).

Boyum & Parke (1995) conducted a study which explored the connection between emotional expression in the child's family environment and his social competence

with social peers. Reported expressiveness and observed parental affect were both found to be meaningful predictors of children's socio-metric ratings. In other words, when parents are aware of their own emotions and express these to their children and these children get along well with others. They have better social skills and better interpersonal relationships; learning to adjust to different kinds of people and different kinds of social situations. The relationship between maternal employment and parental discipline style is less clear; few studies have examined these two factors directly. Thus, there may be an as-yet-undiscovered association between these two variables, particularly with respect to whether and how much parental discipline style specifically mediates the relation between maternal employment and child adjustment.

Grusec (2006) asserts that parents observe their children through a filter of conscious and unconscious thoughts and attitudes, and these filters direct the way they perceive their children's action and how they behave toward them. When the thoughts are accurate and being, they direct positive actions, when they are distorted and distressing, however, they distract parents from the task at hand as well as leading to distressing emotions and attributions that impair effective parenting.

Ali et al. (2011) suggest that there is a direct need of motivational campaign for the spread of female education for this purpose. Electronic media needs to be utilized for motivating the parents to send their daughters to school. It is also recommended that poor parents should be given stipend so they may be able to educate their daughters and to overcome the social problems



## CHAPTER – TWO

# REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The present chapter is devoted to description of research studies already conducted in the field of interest of present investigation.

## WORKING STATUS OF PARENTS AND ATTITUDE TOWARDS GIRL CHILD

Kohn (1969) demonstrated that working class fathers whose occupations require compliance with authority were more likely to have child rearing attitudes that stress obedience and to favour physical punishment as a means of discipline, whereas, white collar workers (middle class) tended to place a relatively high value on personal characteristic, as self-direction, creativity and individualism. The processes of imparting these values into the children were persuasion, motivation, reason, and explanation. Children were rarely physically punished in middle class families. They were also very selective in the development of internal control and were prone to taking into accounting not only children's behaviour and its objective consequences but also children's motives or intentions. He asserted that these parental values originated in the location and status of their occupation.

Moore & Hofferth (1979) found that working women spent half as much time caring for their children as did housewives, but their children still developed normal attachments to them.

Jacobson (2000) observed that parental monitoring and a variety of indicators of adolescent adjustment. They found that parental monitoring had strong associations with all indicators of adjustment for both boys and girls, with the exception of boys' depression. He examined whether higher levels of parental monitoring were associated

with higher adolescent grade point average, lower levels of adolescent depression, and lower levels of adolescent sexual activity and minor delinquency, and whether these relations were moderated by gender, grade level, or mothers' work status. Participants were 424 7<sup>th</sup> to 12<sup>th</sup> graders from a single rural school district in central Pennsylvania. Bivariate correlations indicated Gender and grade level simultaneously moderated the relation between parental monitoring and adolescent delinquency, with the effect of parental monitoring increasing across grade level for boys, and decreasing with grade level for girls. Furthermore, maternal employment moderated the relation between monitoring and adolescent delinquency and sexual behavior. For both boys and girls, monitoring was a significant predictor of problem behaviors among adolescents whose mothers worked full time. Thus, effective monitoring may compensate for a lack of direct supervision. However, gender further moderated these associations. Specifically, the relation between monitoring and adjustment was also significant among girls when their mothers were not working and among boys when mothers worked at least part time.

Koawo et al. (2001) find out whether attitude of women towards the education of female children was related to the level of women's education, her occupation status and her environment? Total of 300 respondents was designed for study. In conclusion the factors that negatively or positively influenced the attitude of women towards the education of female children were the level of education and occupational status. However, the environment in which woman resided neither positively or negatively influenced their attitude towards the education of female children.

Mishra et al. (2007) presented a comparative picture of working and nonworking mothers regarding three aspects of child rearing viz., child care, discipline and child rearing attitude. For this, 100 working and nonworking mothers aged (25-40) of Bhagalpur town were interviewed with three structured interview schedules. Findings revealed that working mothers differed significantly from nonworking mothers. More working

mothers preferred bottle feedings and scheduled feeding while more nonworking mothers preferred breast feedings and demand feeding. Working mothers as compared to nonworking mothers started earlier weaning, toilet training, and bed habit training. Working mothers practiced power assertive discipline technique, while nonworking mothers practiced love-withdrawal. Working mothers displayed more restrictive and less loving and protective attitudes, while nonworking mothers demonstrated less restrictive and more loving and protective attitudes.

## **GENDER OF PARENTS AND ATTITUDE TOWARDS GIRL CHILD**

Epstein (1984), and Graham-Brown (1991) emphasized that rural mothers value female education and command their values to their daughter. These findings make it difficult to accept the finding by Clark (1982), and Goldenberg (1981) that traditionally rural woman particularly in Asia and Africa; frown upon the education of females even up to date. Palme (1993) reports that daughters are withdrawn from school by their parents, especially single mothers as they approach puberty, for fear of being impregnated.

Youniss & Smollar (1985), and Lieberman et al. (1999) found that there were more similarities than differences in the parenting of girls and boys in the HBSC sample, boys and girls were equally positive in describing their relationships with parents, girls tended to perceive their parents as warmer and less rejecting than boys. These results could be due to parental reactions to boys' more disruptive behaviour. Boys and girls were equally at ease confiding in their mothers, girls confided less in their fathers than boys. The finding is highly consistent with the literature, in which, compared to younger girls, adolescent girls perceived their fathers as less available, and reported feeling more distant, uncomfortable and withdrawn from their fathers, who the girls felt

did not meet their emotional needs.

Rex et al. (2000) examined the relationships of father involvement to young children's perceived self-competence and fathers' and mothers' perceptions of their children's internalizing and externalizing behavioral problems. They found that mothers in families in which father involvement is high may have a more positive outlook regarding their child's behavior than do mothers in families in which father involvement is low. Fathers who were highly involved indicated their children have more behavior problems than fathers who were not highly involved. High father involvement was associated with increased children's feelings of paternal acceptance, a factor that played a role in the development of self-concept and esteem.

Sharma et al. (2005) in their review observed that the mothers were more supportive towards their daughters and they didn't show biasness between their daughters and sons. For example, more than half (52%) of the mothers wanted their daughters educational level to be up to post graduation and 95% of the mothers would allow their daughters to select subject of their own choice and take admission in a college, even out of the state.

Sinha et al. (2007) examined the relationship between parenting behaviour patterns and parent-child relationship. It also explored gender differences in parent-child relationship during the adolescence period. Parental acceptance, control, rejection, parent-child intimacy, conflict, and admiration were assessed. Findings revealed significant differences between boys and girls, as compared to boys, girls reported to receive greater acceptance, admiration, and lesser rejection from their fathers. No significant gender difference was obtained on other dimensions. Parental acceptance was positively related with control intimacy and admiration whereas rejection was positively related with conflict.

Aslam (2007a) and Khalid & Mukhtar (2002) conclude that, in Pakistan, poor families prefer to educate sons rather than their daughters due to financial constraints. In other study, Aslam (2007b) further elaborates this notion. He argues that parent's preference also affect school selection for their children (boy and girl).According to him, generally, parents select comparatively better school in context of fees, for their sons. Daughter are ignored or enrolled in the school having lower fees and fewer facilities.

Dogar (2011) observed that parents had highly positive attitude towards the education of their girl child. Mothers had comparatively more favorable attitude towards the education of their girl child. Though level of education of parents and their level of income was not independently related to the attitude towards the education of their girl child, but when level of education and level of income were studied together they showed positive relationship with the attitude towards the education of their girl child.

Shahzed et al. (2011) studied the comparative effectiveness of educated and uneducated parents towards female education. A representative sample of 50 fathers and 50 mothers was selected randomly from rural and urban areas of District Dera Ismail Khan. Out of these 50 fathers, 25 were illiterate and 25 were educated. Similar was the case of females. No significant difference was found between the attitude of educated and uneducated parents (urban) towards education of their daughters. There was significant difference between the attitude of educated male and educated female (rural) toward education of their daughter, and significant difference was found between the attitude of uneducated male and female parents towards education of their daughter.

Buzdar et. al. (2011) investigated the parent's attitudes towards their daughter's education in tribal areas of district Dera Ghazi Khan .They observed that tribal parents had soft corner for their daughters education. No strong barrier in education was found .The study promotes the idea of providing a mechanism of quality and easy accessible

education for girls in this area.

Baharudin & Zulkefly (2009) investigates the quality of relationships between college students and their mothers and fathers, and its correlates with their self-esteem and academic achievement. A sample of 386 on-campus students of University. Result showed that the quality of parent-students relationship was positively and significantly related to self-esteem and academic achievement. Students with good quality relationship with their parents evaluated themselves positively compared to others. Nonetheless, only those with good relationships with their mothers rather than their fathers showed good performance in school.

## **PARENTAL ATTITUDE AND ADJUSTMENT OF ADOLESCENCE GIRL CHILDREN**

Heaven & Patrick (1977) found that the family influences are closely linked with emotional adjustment in the adolescent years.

Nihira et al. (1985) found that family cohesion and parental control influenced the adolescent's psychological adjustment. These aspects highly varied with working status of parents.

Kapoor (1993) found that maternal acceptance and rejection was more related to adjustment in case of female rather than male adolescents.

Dornbusch (1995) said that children who had authoritative parents were less likely to misbehave in school and less susceptible to antisocial peer pressure, girls were more self-reliant and work oriented, had higher self-esteem and was less likely to be anxious or depressed.

Lodha (1995) found that self-confidence in adolescent girls was significantly high

when perceived symbolic reward and object reward giving behaviour of father and mother was more and when loving behaviour of father and mother was more. Further, self-confidence in adolescent girls was significantly less when perceived symbolic and object punishment giving behaviour of mother was more and when perceived rejecting, demanding and neglecting behaviour of father and mother was more. She found significant relations between perceived parental behaviour and psychological adjustment among girls' mature manner as follows:

- (1) Emotional adjustment among adolescent girls was significantly more when perceived protecting behaviour and perceived symbolic reward giving behaviour of mother was more; emotional adjustment was significantly less when perceived symbolic punishment, perceived demanding behaviour of mother was more, when perceived rejecting, object punishment and neglecting behaviour of father and mother was more.
- (2) Social adjustment among adolescent girls was significantly more when perceived loving behaviour, object reward by father and mother and symbolic reward by mother was more.
- (3) Educational adjustment among adolescent girls was significantly less when perceived symbolic punishment and rejecting behaviour of mother was more.
- (4) Total adjustment among adolescent girls was significantly less when symbolic punishment and object punishment by mother was more perceived rejecting, demanding and neglecting behavior of father and mother was more.

Susan (1999) found that perceived familial gender discrimination was found significantly related to the level of adjustment of adolescent girls. Girls perceiving more familial gender discrimination were found to have less social, educational and total ad-

justment

McGrath & Repetti (2000) studied whether mothers' and fathers' attitudes towards their children's academic performance influence children's perceptions of their academic competence. The data from children (n = 248), mothers (n = 219), and fathers (n = 146) were consistent with the belief that parents' attitudes play a central role in shaping children's self-perceptions. Mothers' satisfaction was positively associated with both sons' and daughters' perceptions of academic competence, independent of children's actual grades in school. Fathers' satisfaction correlated with sons' self-perceptions, but not when mothers' satisfaction was also included in the model. Both mothers and fathers reported being more satisfied with their daughters' grades than with their sons' grades, despite the fact that there were no actual differences between girls' and boys' academic performance. Finally, the importance fathers (but not mothers) placed on children's academic success was positively associated with girls' self-perceptions.

Shetty et al. (2000) conducted a research to assess the attitude of mothers towards sex education and related issues of their adolescent daughters. A total 32 mothers participated in the study. Result shows that mothers have a favourable attitude towards sex education/ family life education. Incorporating topics, such as importance of the family, marriage and related values would enhance the favourable attitude of mothers towards such programmes. Poor knowledge about the issues like changes which take place during adolescence, conception, family planning and a feeling of embarrassment to discuss these issues hinder communication between the mother and the adolescent daughter. There is a need, therefore, to improve the knowledge and communication skills of mothers to enable them to be effective in imparting family life education. The study also shows that mothers have more or less realized the importance of formal school education if the education provided through regular schools is strengthened, more girls can easily pass their exams. Schooling of girls can then easily continue up to



the SSC level. The mothers feel that vocational training is of more value than formal schooling. Home-based income generation opportunities would be more welcome.

Bernier & Dozier (2003) found the ability of parents to think of children as having mental states as well as being accurate in their assessment of these mental states, have been linked to children's secure attachment.

Jewell & Stark (2003) indicate that family environment influenced adolescent's psychological adjustment and problem-solving strategies as well as self-confidence and ability to set clear goals.

William et al. (2003) found that the relationship between maternal attitude to the infant at 6 months of age and behavioural outcomes at 5 years is explored, controlling for numerous demographic, child and psychosocial family factors. Longitudinal study of over 7000 mothers and children followed from pregnancy to when the children were 5 years. Results suggest that maternal negative attitude towards the infant at 6 months is an independent predictor of child behaviour problems at 5 years. This association remained significant for boys' externalizing behaviours and girls' internalizing behaviours.

Kaushik & Sunita (2005) found that achievement motivation is higher when children perceive their home environment and parents as loving demanding, nurturing and premising, and lower when home environment and parents are perceived as controlling, punishing depriving, rejecting, neglecting, and indifferent.

Jaiswal & David (2006) studied to know different parenting style of adolescent boys and girls in Kanpur. Several consistent findings that most of parents were using authoritative parenting style were positively associated with adjustment to the authoritative or permissive contexts. Gender difference was also found in the result, parents of male students engage in little control of their children's behaviour whereas for female

parenting practices used was power assertive and low autonomy granting.

Osiki (2006) investigated how parental and teacher attitude towards girl child education affects her economic empowerment. Teachers perceived that girls do not have much interest in schooling. Overall parents attitude to girl child education is least desirable especially where compared to education of the boy-child. The implication is that while the girl child is narrowly educated and is exposed minimally to life skill education, she may be perpetually perhaps, regarded as an object and gullible member of the family who may have little or no right to sustainable economic life. If that happens, she may also be mentally stressed and psychologically dwarfed for life.

Bajpai (2007) studied parental attitude and adjustment of physically handicapped students and found that the attitudes of parents are significantly related to the adjustment of student.

Kenneth & Seena (2009) found that parent-child relationship undergoes important transitions during adolescent period. Parents play a significant role in supporting secure attachment during the transition. Young adults benefit from parental support that encourages autonomy development yet ensures continued monitoring and emotional connectedness. Parental support during stressful periods of transition predicts positive youth adjustment.

In a study Suhila (2010) results indicate that, despite recent governmental efforts to universalize primary education, rural parents have unfavorable attitudes, especially concerning Western-style schooling for girls. Urban women strongly supported educating their daughters and had high aspirations both for their education and employment. This suggests that traditional, strong, negative attitudes concerning schooling for girls may respond to modernizing influences currently found only in urban centers.

Bellah (2011) studied the role of social support in psychological adjustment of African adolescent refugees. This study was designed to investigate the role of parents in adjustment of adolescent and found parental support was the best predictor of psychosocial adjustment.

Benbassat & Priel (2011) found the relationship between parental rejective function (RF) and adolescent adjustment. They found that parental (RF) correlated with adolescent RF and social competence unexpectedly, it also correlated with internalizing problems and less positive self-perception. In addition, parental RF, interacted with aspect of parenting behaviour, in the presence of higher level of parental RF, these behavioural aspects were associated with more positive adolescent outcomes. They concluded that (a) parental RF was associated with both desirable outcomes and possible cost and (b) parental RF, particularly parental RF, was a significant moderator of the associations between parenting behaviours and adolescent outcome.

Tyagi (2011) aimed to examine the relationship of parental attitude with mental health and adjustment quality of adolescents. The sample of 100 adolescents (boys and girls aged 14-16 years) was selected by purposive sampling technique from the school of Ghaziabad city. Adolescents were assessed on parental attitude variable of six areas as autocratic, accepting, and rejecting, over projecting and over demanding using children's perception of parenting scale (Pujari & Kalra, 2006). Singh's mental health battery and adjustment inventory (Sinha & Singh, 2004) were used to evaluate the quality of mental health and adjustment of adolescents. The correlation analysis was used to measure the interrelationship among these variables. The result of the study indicate that the parental attitude relate to mental health as well as the level of adjustment of the adolescents.

In a study (Deepshikha & Bhanot, 2011) it was found that family environment of

adolescent girls had its impact on their socio-emotional adjustment. Family Environment Scale (FES) and Adjustment Inventory for School Students (AISS) were administered. Data were analyzed in terms of percentage and multiple regression analysis. It was concluded that all the family environment factors, viz. cohesion, expressiveness conflict, acceptance and caring, independence, active-recreational, orientation, organization and control together showed significant role in socio-emotional adjustment of adolescent girls either at 1 percent or 5 percent or 10 percent probability level of significance

Research has traditionally examined the influence of the mother on a child's adjustment (Rey, 1995; and Berg-Nielsen et al., 2003), while recent studies suggest that fathers and mothers may each independently contribute to the explanation for some behavioural problems in children. Some authors suggest closer association between positive father-child relationship and adolescent's psycho-social adjustment (Rohner & Veneziano, 2001; and Estevez et al., 2005a, 2005b).

## **PARENTAL WORKING STATUS AND ADJUSTMENT OF ADOLESCENCE GIRL CHILDREN**

Dewan & Adelson (1966) found that daughters of employed mothers were likely to share home responsibility as compared with daughters of home maker mothers.

In a study Nelson (1971) studied personality adjustment as measured by the Minnesota Counseling Inventory (MCI) among 312 ninth-grade pupils who were categorized according to their mothers' work history. The findings revealed that (1) in all instances, the personality adjustment (as evidenced by MCI scores in eight areas of adjustment) of boys was better when the mother worked full-time than if she had worked part-time or not at all; (2) the personality adjustment of girls did not follow a consistent pattern regarding the employment history of their mothers; (3) on the majority of the MCI scales, girls with nonworking mothers had better adjustment scores than girls with mothers who

had worked either full-time or part-time.

Easterbrooks & Goldberg (1985) found that the quality of the time the parents and children spend together, along with the making of adequate child-care arrangements, outweighs the quantity of time spent together. Recent literature on the multiple roles adopted by working parents is mixed with some studies suggesting that multiple roles increase stress levels and diminish parenting capacity. O'Neil & Greenberger (1994), Repetti, (1993), and Barnett, (1999), suggested that multiple roles bring health-giving benefits such as higher incomes, feelings of competence, increased self-esteem and wider social relationships that have follow on effects to family relationships

Jensen & Borges (1986) studied the effect of maternal employment on adolescent daughters and noted that daughters of non-employed mothers had a closer relationship with their fathers, perceived them as happier and friendlier, and experienced less anger and tension in the home

Hoffman (1989), Richards and Duckett (1994), found that children of employed mothers were as confident in social settings as children whose mothers remained at home and were somewhat more sociable with peers.

Bhandari (1990) found that there was no significant difference in the trait aggression in the children of employed and nonemployed mothers. But girls of employed mothers were found to be less aggressive.

Moorehouse (1991), Beyer (1995), and Parke & Buriel (2006) observed that two working parents can be a negative experience, if working parent are unable to remain warm and involved. They found that 6-year-old whose mother began working full-time were more cognitively and socially competent (according to their teacher) than children whose mothers were homemakers if these youngsters frequently shared activities such

as reading, telling stories, and talking with their mothers, however, they fared worse than children with stay-at-home mothers if they lost out on such opportunities.

Rower (1991) found no significant difference between self esteem scores of adolescent daughters of both working and nonworking mothers.

Sandhu (1997) compared difference in daughters of employed and nonemployed mothers. Daughter of nonemployed mother had over all better adjustment than daughter of employed mother, there was significant difference in health and social adjustment

Dekovic et al. (1998) found teens of mothers who moved from non employment to employment saw anxiety and teens of mothers who went from employment to non employment saw increased behaviour problems.

Using the National Longitudinal Survey of Youth, Harvey (1999) observed that for mothers, working more hours in the first 3 years was associated with slightly lower vocabulary scores up through age 9 and slightly lower academic achievement scores before age 7, but had no significant relation to children's behavioural problems, compliance or self-esteem. Although these results suggest that parental employment status has few negative effects on young children, other research in the 1990s illuminated some of the conditions under which parental work made its mark on family relations (Jenkins et al., 2000). Galinsky (1999) had similarly concluded that mothers employment in and of itself, had virtually no ill effect on children's development.

Hoffman & Youngblade (1999) found that girls and boys with employed mothers scored higher on academic achievement tests. This was true across ethnic groups and for children in one- and two-parent families. Working class boys (although not middle class boys in two-parent homes with full time home-makers received the highest peer ratings of hitting and teacher rating of acting out. Across socio-economic classes,

daughters of employed mothers evidenced greater assertiveness and sense of internal control, the two important dimensions of emotional intelligence

Duncan (2001) observed that both parents including mother's employment may create stress in the family by reducing parent's opportunities to spend time with their children and interfering with parent's monitoring of their children's activities.

Andrew (2002) found that the working mothers had come to believe that her increased work responsibilities left her less able to supervise her teen and contributed to her child's problem in school. Khan (2002) also emphasized on relationship between parental occupation and social adjustment of their children.

Moffitt (2003) found that teenage children benefited because mothers who worked and were off welfare increased their income and would have more structured home life as well as had been a better role model for their children.

Alvarez (1985), and Chase-Lansdale et al. (2003) found that employed mothers' positive motivation for working, low role conflicts and gains in self-worth were associated with their favourable descriptions of their children. Mothers' employed status benefits children by improving family income, better disciplined work behaviour and better structure of family routines. Adolescents whose mothers began working reported statistically significant declines in psychological distress

Botsari (2005) in his elaborate study, observed that parents relations are more significant for girls than for boys; the effect of relationships with parents on the adolescent's psychological adjustment weakness during adolescence, being always stronger for girls than for boys and in early adolescence parent-relations influence perceived classmate support, whereas in late adolescence family and peers appear to form two wholly independent social worlds.

Bronfenbrenner & Morris (2005) assert that employed mothers tend to live in more structured home with clear cut rules giving them more household responsibilities. They are encouraged to be more independent. Independence helps girls to become more competent, to achieve more in school and to have higher self-esteem than children of full time homemaker.

Anshu, et al. (2006) observed gender bias in the relationship, where parents were found indicating greater acceptance and concentration towards boys and avoidance towards girls. As a result girls showed lower level of social adjustment than more preferred boy counterpart. Girls from the lower socio-economic status were observed with lowest level of adjustment.

Saini (2006) found significant difference between the daughters of employed and nonemployed mothers only in the area of educational adjustment. On the family environment scale significant differences were observed between the daughters of employed and non employed mothers on the sub-scales of independence. Degrees of cohesion, conflict, acceptance, and caring, independence and control sub-scales of family environment did not have significant effect on adjustment whereas expressiveness, active recreational, orientation, and organization sub-scales had significant impact on adjustment of the respondents.

Gottfried & Gottfried (2006) observed that maternal employment, by itself, is unlikely to impede a child's social and emotional development. Some studies suggested that, children of working mothers, particularly daughters, tend to be more independent, to enjoy higher self-esteem, and to hold higher educational and occupational aspirations and less stereotyped views of men and women than those whose mothers are not employed.

Sharma (2009) conducted a comparative study of behavioural adjustment of pre-



adolescent children of working and nonworking mothers. Sample consisted of 120 pre-adolescent children which was further divided into three groups – pre-adolescent children of working mothers, pre-adolescent children of nonworking mothers, and group of pre adolescent children divided on the basis of gender (boys and girls) of both working and nonworking mothers. Findings revealed significant difference among three groups and girls were found to be higher in adjustment level in all the groups (A, B, and C) in comparison to boys.

Deb et al. (2010) in the study compared anxiety across gender, school type, socio-economic background, mothers' employment status and examined adolescents' perceptions of quality time with their parents. A group of 460 adolescents (220 boys and 240 girls), aged 13-17 years were recruited to participate in the study via a multi-stage sampling technique. Results showed that adolescents with working mothers were more anxious ( $p < 0.01$ ). Results also showed that a substantial proportion of the adolescents perceived they did not receive quality time from fathers (32.1%) and mothers (21.3%). A large number of them also did not feel comfortable to share their personal issues with their parents (60.0% for fathers and 40.0% for mothers).

Galinsky (2011) found that children wanted higher quality time from parents instead of necessarily more time with their parents. This finding is supported by Hoffman(1998), who found that among the working class, children of employed mothers were better adjusted than children of nonworking mothers.

Hoffman (1998) observed that in contrast with full time homemakers, employed mothers differentiated less between sons and daughters in their discipline style and in their goals for their children. The mother's employment status does have effects on families and children but few of these effects are negative ones. Indeed, most seem positive the higher academic outcomes for children, benefits in their behavioral conduct

and social adjustment and the higher sense of competence and effectiveness in daughters. On the whole, these results suggest that most families accommodate to the mother's employment and in doing so provide a family environment that works well (Kanwar & Jain, 2011)

McMunn et al. (2011) found a new study that tracked nearly 19000 British children found that little girls with stay-at-home mothers ,were twice as likely to develop emotional or behavioural problem by age 5 as girls with working mothers. They determined that the healthiest kids, in terms of emotional and behavioural development, were those with two parents in household, both of whom worked. And that was regardless of maternal education level and household income. Boys from household where the mom was the sole breadwinner were more likely to display emotional and behavioural problems, such as aggressiveness, hyperactivity or withdrawn behaviour. But in cases where the dad was employed boys with stay-at-home moms were twice as likely to develop behaviour and emotional as those with working mothers that difference was greatly diminished, however, once the researchers accounted for maternal depressions. It seems that work makes moms happier, which leads to more well adjusted kids.

Reidler & Swenson (2012) examined the effects of mother-child discrepancies for mother-child relationship qualities and youth self-disclosure on youth and mother-reported youth internalizing and externalizing adjustment. 232 fifth, eighth, and 11th grade youths (55 % female) and their mothers completed measures of mother-child relationship quality, youth self-disclosure, and youth internalizing and externalizing adjustment. For internalizing adjustment, few effects of discrepancy on adjustment were evident. Instead, informant-specific perceptions of mother-child relationship functioning were most relevant for informant-specific reports of youth adjustment. For youth externalizing adjustment, the magnitude of mother-child discrepancies for negative relationship quality and for youth self-disclosure predicted lower levels of problematic externalizing behavior

from both the children's and the mothers' perspectives, which could indicate a lack of parent-child communication.

A study was funded by the Economic and Social Research Council (ESRC, 2012) on maternal employment and child socio-emotional behaviour in the UK. The research showed that there were no significant detrimental effects on a child's social or emotional development if their mothers work during their early years. The ideal scenario for children, both boys and girls, was shown to be where both parents lived in the home and both were in paid employment. For children living with two parents, the impact of the working life of the mother may partly depend on the father's own working arrangements. However using data from the UK Millennium Cohort Study, the researchers discovered that the relationship between behavioural difficulties and employment of the mother was stronger for girls than for boys and that this was not explained by household income, level of mother's education or depression in the mother. While boys in households, where the mother was the breadwinner, displayed more difficulties at age five than boys living with two working parents, the same was not true for girls. Girls in traditional households where the father was the breadwinner were more likely to have difficulties at age five than girls living in dual-earner households.

## **CHAPTER – THREE**

# **STATEMENT OF PROBLEM**

In the present research the author intends to study roles of working status and gender of parents in attitude towards adolescent girl child, on the one hand (Study I), and impact of attitude of these parents towards adolescent girl child on adjustment of adolescent female children, on the other hand (Study II).

The specific problems and relevant hypotheses are described in the present chapter.

## **STUDY I**

### **PROBLEM (A-1)**

The first problem in Study I of the present investigation pertains to effect of working status of parents on their attitude toward adolescent girl child. More specifically, the problem is whether two working status groups of parents i.e., both-working and father working-mother housewife, differ in respect of their attitudes toward adolescent girl child?

### **HYPOTHESIS (A-i)**

Working status of parents play a vital role in their socio-economic status as well as in their family environment. It can very well be reasoned that due to the exposure of working world, both working parents prone to give importance to their girl child also, leading to more favourable attitude in comparison to that family wherein only father works and mother is a purely housewife. It has been hypothesized that both-working parents would show more favourable attitude towards adolescent girl child in compari-

son to father working and mother housewife parental group.

## **PROBLEM (A-2)**

The second problem in Study I of the present research pertains to role of gender of parents in their attitude towards adolescent girl child. More specifically, the problem is whether mother and father of adolescent girl children differ in regard to their attitude towards them?

## **HYPOTHESIS (A-ii)**

Gender has been considered an important source of difference in behaviour. In the man dominating society. Males are exposed to external environment to a greater extent than females. This situation persists starting from their childhood to the whole life span. This makes them more flexible and with dynamic orientation in various aspects of family and social life. Hence, it has been assumed that male parents would show more favourable attitude toward adolescent girl child than female parents.

## **PROBLEM (A-3)**

The last problem of Study I of the present investigation deals with joint effect of working status and gender of parents on their attitude towards their adolescent girl child.

## **HYPOTHESIS (A-iii)**

It has been expected that there would exist true joint effect of working status and gender of parents on their attitude towards adolescent girl child. In other words, it is hypothesized that the difference between two working-status parental groups in respect of their attitude toward adolescent girl child would vary differentially for male and female

parents or vice-versa.

## **STUDY II**

### **PROBLEM (B-1)**

The first problem in Study II of the present investigation pertains to impact of attitude of parents towards adolescent girl child on adjustment of adolescent girl child. More specifically, the problem is whether the groups of adolescent girl children with parents – both positive attitude, father positive – mother negative attitude, father negative – mother positive attitude, and both negative attitude, differ in regard to their adjustment?

### **HYPOTHESIS (B-i)**

Attitude has three components – cognition, feelings, and action. It is natural to believe that a person with positive attitude will think positively, feel good about and will act favourably. In contrast, a person with negative attitude will think bad, will feel poorly about and will act unfavourably towards the target person. If these are the situations with the parents, it can very well be reasoned that the targeted girl child would find a favourable environment to adjust in the condition of parents with positive attitude, while she would find an unfavourable environment in the condition of the parent with negative attitude towards her.

Hence, it has been hypothesized that adolescent girl children of parents both with favourable attitude towards them would show the best adjustment while those of parents both with unfavourable attitude would be the most poorly adjusted. The two other groups of one parent with favourable and another with unfavourable attitude would possess intermediate position in this regard.

## **PROBLEM (B-2)**

The second problem in Study II of the present research pertains to impact of working status of parents on adjustment of their adolescent girl children. More specifically, the problem is whether adolescent girl children of two parental working-status groups differ in respect of their adjustment from those of only father working and mother housewife group?

## **HYPOTHESIS (B-ii)**

It has already been emphasized earlier in this chapter that working status of parents plays a key role in their attitude towards adolescent girl children which in turn may affect adjustment of adolescent girl children. Hence, it has been expected that adolescent girl children of both working parents would be more adjusted than those whose fathers are only earning members of the family and mothers are purely housewives.

## **PROBLEM (B-3)**

The last problem in Study II deals with interaction effect of the two independent variables – attitude and working status of parents, on adjustment of adolescent girl children.

## **HYPOTHESIS (B-iii)**

It is expected that there would exist true joint effect of attitude and working status of parents on adjustment of their adolescent girl children.

## CHAPTER – FOUR

# METHODOLOGY

The present study deals with three different assessments i.e., socio- economic status, attitude towards girl child, and adjustment. Beside these assessments, the researcher has considered working status of parents as an important variable to study its effect on attitude of parents towards their adolescent girl children and on adjustment of adolescent girl children. The intent of author is to trace out relationship between attitude towards adolescent girl child and gender and working status of parents, on the one hand and between adjustment of adolescent girl children and attitude towards girl child and working status of parents, on the other hand.

Before administrating the tests the first step is to decide about the sample from which various required informations pertaining to research problems will be gathered. Thus, the present chapter comprises details on the sample, the instrument of study and research design with reference to the procedure.

## THE SAMPLE

To select sample for Study I and Study II, initially socio-economic status was administered on a large population of 1000 parents equally drawn from two working status groups of parents i.e., both working and father working- mother housewife.

Details of this sample are given in Table 1. On the basis of  $Q_1$  and  $Q_3$  statistics on scores of socio-economic status scale, only those parents were selected who scored between  $Q_1$  (344) –  $Q_3$  (683) and were considered of average socioeconomic status. Out of these parents with average socio-economic status, 130 fathers and 130 mothers were selected randomly from both the two working status groups. In this way, a final random sample of 520 parents (260 parental couples) was selected in Study I of the



present research

**Table # 1: Details Of The Final Sample (Study I)**

Gender of Parents	Working Status of Parents		Total
	Both Working	Father Working - Mother Housewife	
Male Parent (Father)	N = 130	n = 130	260
Female Parent (Mother)	N = 130	n = 130	260
<b>Total</b>	<b>260</b>	<b>260</b>	<b>520</b>

To select the sample for Study II all the parents with average socio-economic status were administered Attitude Towards Girl Child Scale and on the basis of  $Q_1$  and  $Q_3$  statistics computed separately for mothers and fathers, only those parents were selected who scored below  $Q_1$  ( $Q_1 = 101.98$  for fathers and  $Q_1 = 101.78$  for mothers) and were classified as of negative attitude and who scored above  $Q_3$  ( $Q_3 = 114.72$  for fathers and  $Q_3 = 113.73$  for mothers), and were classified as of positive attitude.

On the basis of joint classification on attitude scale scores, four parental-attitude groups were formed – both positive, father positive – mother negative, father negative – mother positive, and both negative. Sixty adolescents studying 10<sup>th</sup> or 11<sup>th</sup> class were selected randomly from each of the four parental-attitude groups maintaining 1:1 ratio for the two working status groups of parents – both working, and father working-mother housewife. In this way, a total of 240 adolescents of 480 parents (240 parental couples) were selected randomly, equally ( $n = 30$ ) drawn from the following 8 subgroups -

1. Both Working - Both Positive,
2. Both Working – Father Positive - Mother Negative,
3. Both Working – Father Negative-Mother Positive,
4. Both Working – Both Negative,

5. Father Working – Mother Housewife-Both Positive,
6. Father Working-Mother Housewife – Father Positive-Mother Negative,
7. Father Working-Mother Housewife – Father Negative-Mother Positive, and
8. Father Working-Mother Housewife – Both Negative.

**Table # 2: Details Of The Final Sample (Study II)**

Attitude of Parents	Working Status of Parents		Total
	Both Working	Father Working - Mother Housewife	
Both Positive	n = 30	n = 30	60
Father Positive- Mother Negative	n = 30	n = 30	60
Father Negative- Mother Positive	n = 30	n = 30	60
Both Negative	n = 30	n = 30	60
Total	120	120	240

## TOOLS OF THE STUDY

It has been said earlier that the present research deals with three aspects of assessment i.e., socio-economic status, attitude towards girl child and adjustment. The details of the tests used for the purpose are given below.

### (i) Determination Of Socio-Economic Status

Socio-economic Status Scale constructed and standardized by Ajawani & Verma (2007) was used to determine socio-economic status of the subjects. The test has 75 items to be answered by the father. It is a highly reliable and valid instrument, coefficients ranging from 0.59 to 0.67 and are significant. Percentile norms have been developed to convert raw scores into standard scores. Higher the score on this scale is indi-

cative of higher level of socio-economic status.

## **(ii) Measurement Of Attitude Toward Girl Child**

Attitude Toward Girl Child Test developed and standardized by Dani (2009) was used to measure attitude of parents towards girl child. The test comprises a total of 24 items to be answered as 'strongly agree', 'agree', 'indefinite', 'disagree' or 'strongly disagree'. The positive statement are scored as 5, 4, 3, 2, and 1, for these responses, respectively. Reverse scoring pattern i.e., 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5, scores are assigned to these responses, respectively for negative items. The test is highly reliable and valid. Higher score on the test is indicative of positive attitude.

## **(iii) Measurement Of Adjustment**

Adjustment Inventory for School Children (AISC) constructed and standardized by Sinha & Singh (1993) was used to measure adjustment level of adolescent subjects in emotional, social, and educational areas. It also provides a composite adjustment score. It consists of 60 items to be answered as 'yes' or 'no'. Its reliability coefficients by, different methods, range from 0.90 to 0.96. Apart of it, validity coefficient is determined in item analysis, on each item by biserial correlation method only. Such items were retained only which yielded biserial correlation with both the criteria (i) total score and (ii) areas score, significant level been 0.001. Percentile norms have been developed to convert the raw scores into standard scores. Higher score on this test is indicative of poorer adjustment level.

## **RESEARCH DESIGN AND PROCEDURE**

A 2x2 factorial design (Table 3) was used to study independent and interaction effects of two independent variables i.e., working status and gender of parents on attitude towards girl child in Study I of the present research. For the purpose, firstly a socio-

economic status scale was administered on a larger population of two parental groups – both working and father working-mother housewife – through adolescent students studying 10<sup>th</sup> or 11<sup>th</sup> classes. On the basis of Q<sub>1</sub> and Q<sub>3</sub> statistics on the obtained scores on this scale only those parents were selected whose scores lied in between Q<sub>1</sub> (344) and Q<sub>3</sub> (683) and were termed as of average socio-economic status. Out of these parents of average socio-economic status 130 fathers and 130 mothers were selected randomly from both working status groups – both working and father working - mother housewife. This finally selected sample of 520 parents (260 couples) were administered test of attitude towards girl child.

**Table # 3: Research Design Of The Study**

Gender of Parents	Working Status of Parents		Dependent Variable
	Both Working	Father Working - Mother Housewife	
Male Parent (Father)	N = 130*		
Female Parent (Mother)			

\* Equal number of randomly selected fathers/mothers would be studied in each cell of 4-cell design.

A 4x2 factorial design was used to study independent and interaction effects of parental attitude towards girl child and working status of parents on adjustment of adolescent girl children in Study II of the present research. For the purpose, parents of average socio-economic status were classified into 4 subgroups on the basis of attitude of both parents - father and mother - towards girl child i.e., both positive, father positive - mother negative, father negative– mother positive, both negative.

**Table # 4: Research Design of The Study (Study II)**

Working Status of Parents	Attitude of Parents Toward Adolescent Girl Child	Dependent Variable
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	P-P*	P-N**	N-P	N-N	
<b>Both Working</b>	n = 30**				
<b>Father Working – Mother Housewife</b>					

\* P = Positive Attitude \*\* N = Negative Attitude

\*\* Equal number of randomly selected adolescent girl children would be studied in each of 8-cell design

Thirty families from each parental attitude group of two working status groups were randomly selected and adolescent girl children of these families were administered an adjustment inventory. In this way, a final random sample of 240 adolescent girl students was studied for their adjustment in Study II of the present research (Table 4).

## ANALYSIS OF DATA

The present study was divided into two parts study I and Study II. Impact of working status and gender of parents on their attitude towards adolescent girl child were observed in Study I, while impact of attitude of parents towards girl child and their working status on adjustment of adolescent girl children were observed in Study II. The raw attitude scores of both the parents and adjustment score of adolescent girl children are given in Appendix B. average attitude scores (Study I) are given in Table 5 and average composites adjustment scores are given in Table 9. Average emotional, social and educational adjustment scores are given in Tables 12, 15, and 18, respectively. Higher score on attitude score indicates more positive attitude, while lower adjustment score is indicative of better adjustment.

In the analysis of data, the researcher often needs to decide whether several independent samples can be regarded as having come from same populations. Sample values almost always differ at some extent and the problem is to determine whether the observed sample differences are merely due to chance variation that are to be expected out of random sample from the same population or there are genuine differences among various groups. The usual parametric techniques given for testing whether two or several independent samples have come from the same population are t ratio and the analysis of variance (ANOVA). The assumption associated with statistical models underlying these test are that observations are randomly drawn from a normally distributed population all of which have same variance. Hence, it was felt necessary to apply a test of homogeneity of variance before using ANOVA statistical model on the data obtained in the present investigation. For this purpose, Hartley test of Homogeneity of variance was used. The obtained value of  $F_{\max}$  statistics is 1.398 (Study I) and 1.82 (Study II). From the Table of  $F_{\max}$  distribution,  $F_{\max} 0.95 (4, 129, \text{Study I})$  is 2.40 and  $F_{\max} 0.95 (8, 29, \text{Study II})$  is 3.02.

Since the observed value of  $F_{max}$  are lesser than these respective  $F_{max}$  Table value at .05 level test, hypothesis of homogeneity of variance is accepted i.e, observations are randomly drawn from normally distributed population and all have the same variance. This condition permits to apply ANOVA statistical model to verify the hypotheses under consideration in both Study I and Study II of the present research.

**Table # 5: Statistical Details of Four Sub-Groups (Study I)**

Parent's Gender	Parent's Working Status		M
	Both Working	Father Working- Mother Housewife	
Male (Father)	n = 130 M = 108.46 $\sum x^2 = 2580.31$	n = 130 M = 107.67 $\sum x^2 = 2060.78$	108.065
Female (Mother)	n = 130 M = 108.68 $\sum x^2 = 2474.072$	n = 130 M = 107.36 $\sum x^2 = 2844.29$	108.02
Total	108.57	107.515	108.0425

**Table # 6: Summary of Two-Way ANOVA (Study I)**

Source	SS	df	V	F-ratio	Remarks
Between 2 Gender Groups	0.263	1	0.263	0.0136	N.S.
Between 2 Working-Status Groups	144.04	1	144.04	7.453	P<.01
Interaction Effect	9.048	1	9.048	0.468	N.S.
Within Sets (Error Terms)	9959.452	516	19.324		
Total	10112.803	519			

\* Table value for 1 and 516 degrees of freedom – at .05 level of significance – 3.86  
at .01 level of significance – 6.70

## STUDY - I

### (A-i). ANALYSES IN RELATION TO WORKING STATUS OF PARENTS

A perusal of Table 5 clarifies that average attitude score of both working parental group is (M=108.57) is higher than that of father working-mother housewife parental group (M = 107.515). An F-ratio is computed in a two-way ANOVA along with gender of parents as another variable (Table 6) to check significance of this difference between two working-status groups of parents in respect of their attitude towards girl child.

Apart of it, two t values are also computed to observe significance of differences between two working status groups of parents belonging separately to two sub-groups – mother and father (Table 7).

**Table # 7: Average Attitude Scores Of Two Working Status Groups And Obtained t Value**

Comparison Groups	n	M	$\sum x^2$	Obtained t Ratio	Remarks
Both Working Vs. Father Working - Mother Housewife (Fathers)	130	108.46	2580.31	1.501	N.S.
Both Working Vs. Father Working - Mother Housewife (Mothers)	130	108.68	2474.072	2.34	P<.05

\* Table value for 1 and 258 degrees of freedom – at .05 level of significance – 1.96  
at .01 level of significance – 2.59

### **(A-ii). ANALYSES IN RELATION TO GENDER OF PARENTS**

A perusal of Table 5 clarifies that average attitude score of fathers (M = 108.065) is marginally higher than that of mothers (M = 108.02). An F-ratio is computed to check significance of this difference in average attitude scores of fathers and of mothers toward girl child, in a two-way ANOVA along with working-status of parents as another



variable (Table 6).

Apart of it, two t ratios are also computed to check significance of this difference between two gender groups of parents in regard to their attitude towards girl child (Table 8). Out of these, the first t-value is computed for both-working group of parents and another t value is computed for father working – mother housewife group.

**Table # 8: Average Attitude Scores Of Mothers & Fathers And Obtained t Values**

Comparison Groups	n	M	$\sum x^2$	Obtained t Ratio	Remarks
Fathers Vs. Mothers (Both Working)	130 130	108.46 108.68	2590.39 2474.072	0.4007	N.S.
Fathers Vs. Mothers (Father Working – Mother Housewife)	130 130	107.67 107.36	2056.44 2844.29	0.5740	N.S.

\* Table value for 1 and 258 degrees of freedom – at .05 level of significance – 1.96  
at .01 level of significance – 2.59

### **(A-iii). ANALYSES IN RELATION TO JOINT EFFECT OF WORKING STATUS AND GENDER OF PARENTS**

It is clear from Table 5 that average attitude scores of four sub-groups formed on joint basis of working status and gender of parents – Both Working- Fathers, Father Working - Mother Housewife – Fathers, Both Working – Mothers, and Father Working- Mother Housewife – Mothers, are 108.46, 107.67, 108.68, and 107.36, respectively. An interaction F-ratio is computed in a two-way ANOVA (Table 6).

## STUDY II

### (B-i). ANALYSES IN RELATION TO ATTITUDE OF PARENTS

#### (i) Based on Composite Adjustment Scores

It is clear from Table 9 that average composite adjustment scores of adolescent children belonging to 4 parental attitude groups – Both Positive, Father Positive-Mother Negative, Father Negative-Mother Positive, and Both Negative, are 11.95, 14.933, 15.60 and 20.10, respectively. An F-ratio is computed in a two-way ANOVA (Table 10) to check significance of these differences among 4 groups of adolescent children.

Apart of it, Tukey's HSD test is also employed as post hoc test to check significance of differences between any two comparison groups (Table 11).

**Table # 9: Statistical Details of Various Sub-Groups On Composite Adjustment Scores**

Working Status of Parents	Parental Attitude				Mean
	Both Positive	Father Positive - Mother Negative	Father Negative - Mother Positive	Both Negative	
Both Working	n = 30 M = 10.50 $\sum x^2 = 53.47$	n = 30 M = 15.30 $\sum x^2 = 138.30$	n = 30 M = 16.700 $\sum x^2 = 136.3$	n = 30 M = 21.666 $\sum x^2 = 136.99$	16.041
Father Working- Mother House- wife	n = 30 M = 13.400 $\sum x^2 = 105.20$	n = 30 M = 14.567 $\sum x^2 =$	n = 30 M = 14.500 $\sum x^2 = 139.55$	n = 30 M = 18.533 $\sum x^2 =$	15.25
Mean	11.95	14.933	15.60	20.10	15.645

**Table # 10: Summary of Three-Way ANOVA (Study II)**

\* Table value F For 1 and 232 degrees of freedom – at .05 level of significance – 3.89

at .01 level of significance – 6.76

\* Table value F for 3 and 232 degrees of freedom – at .05 level of significance – 2.65

at .01 level of significance – 3.88

**Table # 11: Summary Of Tukey’s HSD Test For Comparisons Among Adolescents Of Four Parental Attitude Groups**

Group	M	N	Ordered Means			HSD Table Value
			11.95	14.933	15.60	
Both Negative	20.10	60	8.15*	5.167*	4.50*	df = V = 239
Father Negative-Mother Positive	15.60	60	3.65*	0.667		K = P = r = 4
Father Positive-Mother Negative	14.933	60	2.93*			.05 – 1.049
Both Positive	11.95	60				.01 – 1.271

\* Significant at .01 level of significance

**(ii) Based on Emotional Adjustment Scores**

It is clear from Table 12 that average emotional adjustment scores of adolescent children belonging to 4 parental attitude groups – Both Positive, Father Positive – Mother Negative, Father Negative – Mother Positive, Both Negative, are 2.765, 3.116, 3.983, and 5.733, respectively. An F-ratio is computed in a two-way ANOVA (Table 13), to check significance of these differences among 4 groups of adolescent children. Apart of it, Tukey’s HSD test is also employed as the post hoc test (Table 14).

**Table#12 : Statistical Details of Various Sub-Groups On Emotional Adjustment Scores**

Working Status of Parents	Parental Attitude Groups				Mean
	Both Positive	Father Positive - Mother Negative	Father Negative - Mother Positive	Both Negative	
Both Working	n = 30 M = 2.60	n = 30 M = 3.133	n = 30 M = 4.133	n = 30 M = 6.733	4.149

	$\sum x^2 = 27.2$	$\sum x^2 = 29.867$	$\sum x^2 = 41.17$	$\sum x^2 = 41.87$	
<b>Father Working – Mother House- wife</b>	n = 30 M = 2.930 $\sum x^2 = 29.867$	n = 30 M = 3.100 $\sum x^2 = 37.7$	n = 30 M = 3.833 $\sum x^2 = 36.167$	n = 30 M = 4.733 $\sum x^2 = 81.867$	<b>3.649</b>
<b>Mean</b>	<b>2.765</b>	<b>3.116</b>	<b>3.983</b>	<b>5.733</b>	<b>3.899</b>

**Table # 13 : Summary of Two-Way ANOVA for Emotional Adjustment (Study II)**

Source	SS	df	V	F-ratio	Remarks
<b>Among 4 Attitude Groups</b>	<b>316.08</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>105.36</b>	<b>75.257</b>	<b>P&lt;.01</b>
<b>Between 2 Working Status Groups</b>	<b>15.00</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>15.00</b>	<b>10.714</b>	<b>P&lt;.01</b>
<b>Interaction Effect</b>	<b>47.916</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>15.972</b>	<b>11.408</b>	<b>P&lt;.01</b>
<b>Within Sets (Error Term)</b>	<b>325.108</b>	<b>232</b>	<b>1.40</b>		
<b>Total</b>	<b>704.104</b>	<b>239</b>			

\* Table value for 1 and 232 degrees of freedom – at .05 level of significance – 3.89  
at .01 level of significance – 6.76

\* Table value F for 3 and 232 degrees of freedom – at .05 level of significance – 2.65  
at .01 level of significance – 3.88

**Table # 14: Summary of Tukey's HSD Test For Comparisons Among Four Attitude Groups (Emotional Adjustment)**

Group	M	N	Ordered Means			HSD Table Value
			2.767	3.116	3.983	
<b>Both Negative</b>	<b>5.733</b>	<b>60</b>	<b>2.966*</b>	<b>2.61*</b>	<b>1.75*</b>	<b>df = V = 239</b>
<b>Father Negative- Mother Positive</b>	<b>3.983</b>	<b>60</b>	<b>1.216*</b>	<b>0.867*</b>	<b>-</b>	<b>K = P = r = 4</b>
<b>Father Positive- Mother Negative</b>	<b>3.116</b>	<b>60</b>	<b>0.351</b>			<b>.05 – 0.566</b>
<b>Both Positive</b>	<b>2.767</b>	<b>60</b>				<b>.01 – 0.686</b>

\* Significant at .01 level of significance

**(iii) Based on Social Adjustment Scores**

It is clear from Table 15 that average social adjustment scores of adolescent children belonging to 4 parental attitude sub-groups – Both Positive, Father Positive-Mother Negative, Father Negative-Mother Positive, and Both Negative, are 4.848, 6.333, 6.533, and 7.833, respectively. An F-ratio is computed in a two-way ANOVA (Table 16), to check significance of these differences among 4 groups of adolescent children. Apart of it, Tukey’s HSD test is employed as post hoc test (Table 17)

**Table # 15 : Statistical Details of Various Sub-Groups On Social Adjustment Scores**

Working Status of Parents	Parental Attitude				Mean
	Both Positive	Father Positive - Mother Negative	Father Negative - Mother Positive	Both Negative	
Both Working	n = 30 M = 3.930 $\sum x^2 = 45.867$	n = 30 M = 6.233 $\sum x^2 = 55.367$	n = 30 M = 7.267 $\sum x^2 = 57.87$	n = 30 M = 8.200 $\sum x^2 = 72.80$	6.407
Father Working-Mother Housewife	n = 30 M = 5.767 $\sum x^2 = 49.851$	n = 30 M = 6.433 $\sum x^2 = 67.366$	n = 30 M = 5.800 $\sum x^2 = 54.80$	n = 30 M = 7.467 $\sum x^2 = 61.467$	6.366
Mean	4.848	6.333	6.533	7.833	6.386

**Table # 16 : Summary of Two-Way ANOVA for Social Adjustment (Study II)**

Source	SS	df	V	F-ratio	Remarks
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<b>Among 4 Attitude Groups</b>	<b>268.962</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>89.654</b>	<b>44.715</b>	<b>P&lt;.01</b>
<b>Between 2 Working Status Groups</b>	<b>0.1034</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>0.1034</b>	<b>0.51</b>	<b>N.S.</b>
<b>Interaction Effect</b>	<b>91.431</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>30.477</b>	<b>15.20</b>	<b>P&lt;.01</b>
<b>Within Sets (Error Term)</b>	<b>465.591</b>	<b>232</b>	<b>2.005</b>		
<b>Total</b>	<b>825.884</b>	<b>239</b>			

\* Table value F for 1 and 232 degrees of freedom – at .05 level of significance – 3.89  
at .01 level of significance – 6.76

\* Table value F for 3 and 232 degrees of freedom – at .05 level of significance – 2.65  
at .01 level of significance – 3.88

**Table # 17: Summary of Tukey’s HSD Test for Comparisons Among Four Attitude Groups (Social Adjustment)**

Group	M	N	Ordered Means			HSD Table Value
			4.848	6.333	6.533	
<b>Both Negative</b>	<b>7.833</b>	<b>60</b>	<b>3.349*</b>	<b>1.50*</b>	<b>1.30*</b>	<b>df = V = 239</b>
<b>Father Negative-Mother Positive</b>	<b>6.533</b>	<b>60</b>	<b>1.849*</b>	<b>0.20</b>	<b>-</b>	<b>K = P = r = 4</b>
<b>Father Positive-Mother Negative</b>	<b>6.333</b>	<b>60</b>	<b>2.049*</b>			<b>.05 – 0.660</b>
<b>Both Positive</b>	<b>4.848</b>	<b>60</b>				<b>.01 – 0.800</b>

\* *Significant at .01 level of significance*

#### **(iv) Based on Educational Adjustment Scores**

It is clear from Table 18 that average educational adjustment scores of adolescent children belonging to 4 parental attitude groups – Both Positive, Father Positive-Mother Negative, Father Negative-Mother Positive, and Both Negative, are 4.333, 5.483, 5.083, and 6.531, respectively. An F-ratio is computed in a two-way ANOVA (Table 19) to check significance of these differences among 4 groups of adolescent children. Apart of it, Tukey’s HSD test is employed as post hoc test (Table 20)

**Table # 18 : Statistical Details of Various Groups On Educational Adjustment Scores**

Working Status of Parents	Parental Attitude Groups				Mean
	Both Positive	Father Positive - Mother Negative	Father Negative - Mother Positive	Both Negative	
Both Working	n = 30 M = 3.967 $\sum x^2 = 46.967$	n = 30 M = 5.933 $\sum x^2 = 63.867$	n = 30 M = 5.300 $\sum x^2 = 46.3$	n = 30 M = 6.733 $\sum x^2 = 62.332$	5.483
Father Working – Mother Housewife	n = 30 M = 4.700 $\sum x^2 = 36.3$	n = 30 M = 5.033 $\sum x^2 = 64.967$	n = 30 M = 4.867 $\sum x^2 = 41.467$	n = 30 M = 6.330 $\sum x^2 = 80.667$	5.232
Mean	4.333	5.483	5.083	6.531	5.357

**Table # 19 : Summary of Two-Way ANOVA for Educational Adjustment (Study II)**

Source	SS	df	V	F-ratio	Remarks
Among 4 Attitude Groups	150.96	3	50.32	26.37	P<.01
Between 2 Working Status Groups	3.81	1	3.81	1.996	N.S.
Interaction Effect	21.635	3	7.211	3.779	P<.05
Within Sets (Error Term)	442.867	232	1.908		
Total	619.272	239			

\* Table value for 1 and 232 degrees of freedom – at .05 level of significance -- 3.89  
at .01 level of significance –6.76

\* Table value F for 3 and 232 degrees of freedom – at .05 level of significance – 2.65  
at .01 level of significance – 3.88

**Table # 20 : Summary of Tukey's HSD Test For Comparisons Among Four Attitude Groups (Educational Adjustment)**

Group	M	N	Ordered Means			HSD Table Value
			4.848	6.333	6.533	

<b>Both Negative</b>	<b>6.531</b>	<b>60</b>	<b>2.198*</b>	<b>1.448*</b>	<b>1.050*</b>	<b>df = V = 239</b>
<b>Father Negative- Mother Positive</b>	<b>5.481</b>	<b>60</b>	<b>1.148*</b>	<b>0.398</b>	<b>-</b>	<b>K = P = r = 4</b>
<b>Father Positive- Mother Negative</b>	<b>5.083</b>	<b>60</b>	<b>0.75**</b>	<b>-</b>	<b>-</b>	<b>.05 – 0.6425</b>
<b>Both Positive</b>	<b>4.333</b>	<b>60</b>				<b>.01 – 0.7788</b>

\* *Significant at .01 level of significance*

\*\**Significant at .05 level of significance*

## **(B-ii). ANALYSES IN RELATION TO WORKING STATUS OF PARENTS**

### **(i) Based On Composite Adjustment Scores**

It is clear from Table 9 that average adjustment scores of adolescent girl children of Both Working Parents and Father Working - Mother Housewife groups, are 16.041 and 15.25, respectively. An F-ratio is computed in a two-way ANOVA (Table 10) to check significance of this difference between the two groups of adolescent girl children in regard to their adjustment (Table 10).

Apart of it, 4 t values are also computed for 4 comparison groups of adolescents in respect of their adjustment, computed separately for composite adjustment scores, emotional adjustment scores, of adolescent girl children belonging to four different parental attitude groups.

**Table # 21 : Average Composite Adjustment Scores Of Various Comparison Groups And Obtained t Values**

<b>Comparison Groups</b>	<b>n</b>	<b>M</b>	<b><math>\sum x^2</math></b>	<b>Obtained t value</b>	<b>Remarks</b>
<b>Both Working</b>	<b>30</b>	<b>10.50</b>	<b>53.47</b>	<b>5.430</b>	<b>P&lt;.01</b>
<b>Vs.</b>					
<b>Father Working - Mother Housewife (Both Positive Attitude Group)</b>	<b>30</b>	<b>13.40</b>	<b>105.20</b>		



Both Working Vs. Father Working - Mother Housewife (Father Positive – Mother Negative Attitude Groups)	30	15.30	138.30	1.274	N.S.
Both Working Vs. Father Working - Mother Housewife (Father Negative – Mother Positive Attitude Group)	30	16.70	136.3	3.846	P<.01
Both Working Vs. Father Working - Mother Housewife (Both Negative Attitude Group)	30	21.66	136.99	5.290	P<.01

## (ii) Based On Emotional Adjustment Scores

A perusal of Table 12 clarifies that average adjustment scores of adolescent girl children of both working parents is 4.149 and that of adolescent girl children of father working-mother housewife group is 3.649. An F-ratio is computed in a two-way ANOVA (Table 13) to check significance of this difference between the two groups of adolescent girl children in regard to their emotional adjustment.

Apart of it, 4 t values are also computed for 4 comparisons between emotional adjustment of adolescent girl children of two working status groups of parents, separately for 4 parental attitude groups (Table 22).

**Table # 22 : Average Emotional Adjustment Scores Of Various Comparison Groups And Obtained t Value**

Comparison Groups	N	M	$\sum x^2$	Obtained t value	Remarks
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<b>Both Working Vs. Father Working – Mother Housewife (Both Positive Attitude Group)</b>	<b>30</b>	<b>2.60</b>	<b>27.20</b>	<b>1.234</b>	<b>N.S.</b>
<b>Both Working Vs. Father Working – Mother Housewife (Father Positive – Mother Negative Attitude Groups)</b>	<b>30</b>	<b>3.133</b>	<b>29.467</b>	<b>0.123</b>	<b>N.S.</b>
<b>Both Working Vs. Father Working - Mother Housewife (Father Negative – Mother Positive Attitude Group)</b>	<b>30</b>	<b>4.133</b>	<b>41.47</b>	<b>1.003</b>	<b>N.S.</b>
<b>Both Working Vs. Father Working - Mother Housewife (Both Negative Attitude Group)</b>	<b>30</b>	<b>6.733</b>	<b>41.87</b>	<b>4.889</b>	<b>P&lt;.01</b>

### (iii) Based On Social Adjustment Scores

It is clear from Table 15 that average social adjustment scores of adolescent girl children of both working (M = 6.407) is marginally higher than that of adolescent girl children belonging to father working-mother housewife parental group (M = 6.366). An F-ratio is computed in a two-way ANOVA to check significance of this difference (Table 16).

Apart of it, 4 t values are also computed for 4 comparisons between social adjustment of adolescent girl children of two working status groups of parents, separately for 4 parental attitude groups (Table 23).

**Table # 23 : Average Social Adjustment Scores Of Various Comparison Groups**

**And Obtained t Values**

Comparison Groups	n	M	$\sum x^2$	Obtained t value	Remarks
Both Working Vs. Father Working - Mother Housewife (Both Positive Attitude Group)	30 30	3.93 5.767	45.867 49.851	5.549	P<.01
Both Working Vs. Father Working - Mother Housewife (Father Positive – Mother Negative Attitude Groups)	30 30	6.233 6.433	55.367 67.366	0.533	N.S.
Both Working Vs. Father Working - Mother Housewife (Father Negative – Mother Positive Attitude Group)	30 30	7.267 5.80	57.87 54.80	4.086	P<.01
Both Working Vs. Father Working - Mother Housewife (Both Negative Attitude Group)	30 30	8.20 7.467	72.80 61.467	1.869	N.S.

**(iv) Based On Educational Adjustment Scores**

A perusal of Table 18 clarifies that average educational adjustment scores of adolescent girl children of both working parents is 5.483 while it is 5.232 for adolescent girl children of father working-mother housewife parental group. An F-ratio is computed to check significance of this difference (Table 19).

Apart of it, 4 t values are also computed for 4 comparisons between educational adjustment of adolescent girl children of two working status groups of parents, separate-

ly for 4 parental attitude groups (Table 24).

**Table # 24 : Average Educational Adjustment Scores Of Various Comparison Groups And Obtained t Values**

Comparison Groups	n	M	$\sum x^2$	Obtained t value	Remarks
Both Working Vs. Father Working - Mother Housewife (Both Positive Group)	30 30	3.97 4.70	46.967 36.30	2.372	P<.01
Both Working Vs. Father Working - Mother Housewife (Father Positive – Mother Negative Groups)	30 30	5.933 5.030	63.867 64.967	2.351	P<.01
Both Working Vs. Father Working - Mother Housewife (Father Negative – Mother Positive Group)	30 30	5.30 4.867	46.30 41.467	1.365	N.S.
Both Working Vs. Father Working - Mother Housewife (Both Negative Group)	30 30	6.733 6.330	62.332 80.667	0.995	N.S.

**(B-iii). ANALYSES IN RELATION TO JOINT EFFECT OF ATTITUDE TOWARDS GIRL CHILD & WORKING STATUS OF PARENTS**

**(i) Based on Composite Adjustment Scores**

It is clear from Table 9 that average adjustment scores of adolescent girl children belonging to 8 sub-groups i.e., Both Positive -Both Working, Father Positive-Mother

Negative – Both Working, Father Negative-Mother Positive – Both Working, Both Negative – Both Working, Both Positive – Father Working-Mother Housewife, Father Positive-Mother Negative – Father Working-Mother Housewife, Father Negative- Mother Positive – Father Working-Mother Housewife, and Both Negative – Father Working - Mother Housewife are 10.50, 15.30, 16.70, 21.666, 13.40, 14.567, 14.50, and 18.533, respectively. An interaction F-ratio is computed in a two-way ANOVA (Table 10), to check significance of these differences in regard to adjustment of 8 sub-groups of adolescent girl children.

### **(ii) Based on Emotional Adjustment Scores**

It is clear from Table 12 that average emotional adjustment scores of adolescent girl children belonging to 8 sub-groups are 27.20, 29.867, 41.17, 41.87, 29.867, 37.70, 36.167, and 81.867, respectively. An interaction F-ratio is computed in a two-way ANOVA (Table 13), to check significance of these differences among 8 sub groups of adolescent girl child.

### **(iii) Based on Social Adjustment Scores**

It is clear from Table 15 that average social adjustment scores of adolescent girl children belonging to 8 sub-groups are 45.867, 55.367, 57.87, 72.80, 49.851, 67.366, 54.80, and 61.467, respectively. An interaction F-ratio is computed in a two-way ANOVA (Table 16) to check significance of these differences among 8 sub-groups of adolescent girl children.

### **(iv) Based on Educational Adjustment Scores**

It is clear from Table 18 that average educational adjustment scores of adolescent girl children belonging to 8 sub-groups are 46.967, 63.867, 46.30, 62.332, 36.30, 64.967, 41.467, and 80.667, respectively. An interaction F-ratio is computed in a two-

way ANOVA (Table 19), to check significance of these differences among 8 sub groups of adolescent girl child.

## CHAPTER – SIX

# RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The present research aims at studying impact of working status and gender of parents in attitude towards girl child, on the one hand (Study I), and impact of attitude of these parents towards girl child on adjustment of adolescent female children, on the other hand (Study II).

## A. STUDY I

### (A-i). EFFECT OF WORKING STATUS OF PARENTS ON ATTITUDE TOWARDS ADOLESCENT GIRL CHILD

The first problem of the present research (Study I) was whether working status of parents exerts any effect of their attitude towards adolescent girl child. It has been hypothesized that both working parents would show more favorable attitude towards girl child in comparison to father working and mother housewife parental group.

**Figure # 1: Average Attitude Scores Of Both Working And Father Working-Mother Housewife Group (As Per Table 5)**

It is clear from Table 5 that average attitude score of both working parental group ( $M = 108.57$ , Figure 1) is higher than that of father working – mother housewife parental group ( $M = 107.515$ , Figure 1). The obtained F ratio ( $F = 7.453$ , Table 6) is significant at .01 level of significance for 1 and 516 degree of freedom, and thus provides sound statistical ground to retain the research hypothesis in this regard. More specifically, it can be concluded that parents of both working status group truly showed more favourable attitude towards girl child in comparison to father working – mother housewife group.

Apart of computation of F-ratio, two t ratios were also computed to check significance of differences between two working status parental groups in regard to their attitude towards girl child, separately for fathers and mothers (Table 7). It is clear that the difference between two working status parental groups for fathers is not significant ( $t = 1.501$ , Table 7) at any acceptable level of significance. However, this difference for mothers is significant ( $t = 2.34$ ,  $P < .05$ , Table 7) for 258 degrees of freedom. This insignificant difference for fathers and significant difference for mothers provide vital cue that mothers' attitude is playing key role in the difference between both working and father working - mother housewife working status groups in respect of their attitude towards girl child whereas fathers of both the working status groups are not playing any true role in this regard.

It seems that since in both working status groups, the father is working and hence it seems that they are not playing any differential role. In contrast, the mothers have differential status in both the working status groups i.e., in one group she is also a earning member while in another group she is simply a housewife and this makes a lot of difference. The working and earning women is exposed to the external environment more frequently and intensively with broader horizons of fields as compared to purely



housewives who are almost confined to family environment only.

This exposure difference may be contributing to more favorable attitude of mothers in both working parental group than father working-mother housewife group. Apart of it, by natural selection, it seems that most of the working mothers must be more educated than purely housewife mothers. This higher level of education may have also contributed to more favourable attitude of working mothers towards girl child.

It also seems that in the situation of both working parents there is more exposure to outer dynamically changing world due to which girls are getting egalitarian status now-a-day. In comparison to past, quite a higher number of parents both of whom are working and are willingly permit their adolescent girl children to go for higher education and in jobs. These too nurture a favourable attitude of both working parents towards adolescent girl child. The effective media too be playing its vital role in educating these parents who are already prone to change themselves with changing norms of modern society. In contrast, in the situation of only father working, mother is quite deprived of such exposures and prone to maintain traditional roles for girl child like her own, which may block the development of adolescent girl child. In such family adolescent girl child has been considered a burden to the family. These conditions may lead to them possess less favourable or unfavourable attitude towards adolescent girl child.

### **(A-ii). ROLE OF GENDER OF PARENTS IN ATTITUDE TOWARDS ADOLESCENT GIRL CHILD**

The second problem of the present research pertained to role of gender of parents in their attitude towards girl child. It has been hypothesized that male parents (fathers) would show more favourable attitude towards adolescent girl child than fe-

male parents (mothers). It is clear from Table 5 that average attitude score of fathers (M = 108.065, Figure 2) is very marginally higher than that of mothers (M = 108.02, Figure 2). The obtained F ratio (F = 0.0136) for this gender difference too is not significant at any acceptable level of significance for 1 and 516 degrees of freedom.

**Figure # 2: Average Attitude Scores Of Fathers And Mothers (As Per Table 5)**

This provides empirical base to believe that there does not exist any true gender difference in respect of attitude towards adolescent girl child of fathers and mothers. Apart of it, two t ratios were also computed to check significance of difference in attitude of mothers and fathers toward adolescent girl child.

Both the obtained t ratios (t = 0.4007 for both working parents, and t = 0.5740 for father working – mother housewife group) are not significant at any acceptable level of significance for 258 degrees of freedom, indicating thereby that mothers and fathers do not differ genuinely in regard to their attitudes toward adolescent girl child.

The modern society emphasizes highly on achievement and regards high for such people irrespective of their gender. Education too has played its vital role to change traditional roles of males and females bringing both gender groups at the same platform. Both the parents now realize that girl child also can play her important role in family and society as well. The efforts on the part of government and non-government agencies and media too have contributed a lot to an egalitarian state for both the gender groups of adolescents. These may be the reasons for finding of the present research wherein no true difference has been observed in attitudes of mothers and fathers toward their adolescent girl child.

### **(A-iii). JOINT ROLE OF WORKING STATUS AND GENDER OF PARENTS ON ATTITUDE TOWARDS ADOLESCENT GIRL CHILD**

So far, we have been discussing the effect of single factor (i.e., working status and gender of parents) on their attitude towards adolescent girl child. We can also study the joint role of these two factors at a time in this respect. Thus, it may be interesting to see whether both working and father working-mother housewife parental working status group vary in their attitude differentially due to their gender. In general, when a number of individuals or items are grouped according to several factors of classification and these factors are not independent, there is said to be interaction between them. Interaction is a measure of the extent to which the effect upon the independent variable of changing the level of one factor depends upon the level of others. Thus, the two treatments, say 'N' and 'P' each of two levels (0 and 1), the effect of four treatment combinations can be written as  $N_0P_0$ ,  $N_0P_1$ ,  $N_1P_0$  and  $N_1P_1$ . If the treatments are independent, the effect of varying 'n' from  $n_0$  to  $n_1$  would be the same with  $P_0$  to  $P_1$  as with  $P$ . The extent to which this is not so, is a measure of interaction.

The only interaction problem of Study I of the present research pertained to joint

role of working status and gender of parents in their attitude towards adolescent girl child. It has been hypothesized that there would exist true joint effect of working status and gender of parents on their attitude towards adolescent girl child.

It is clear from Table 5 that average attitude scores of 4 subgroups i.e., both working – father, both working – mother, father working-mother housewife – father, father working-mother housewife – mothers, are 108.46, 108.68, 107.67, and 107.36, respectively.

**Figure # 3: Average Attitude Scores Of Four Sub-Groups Formed On Joint Basis Of Working Status And Gender Of Parents (As Per Table 5)**

**Figure # 4: Average Attitude Scores Four Sub-Groups Formed On Joint Basis Of Working Status And Gender Of Parents (Interaction Effect, As Per Table 5)**

The obtained interaction F ratio ( $F = 0.468$ , Table 6) is not significant at any acceptable level of significance for 1 and 516 degrees of freedom and provides ample statistical ground to conclude that there does not exist any considerable interaction effect of working status and gender of parents on their attitude towards adolescent girl child.

It has been found, in the present research that both working parents truly show more favourable attitude towards adolescent girl child in comparison to father working-mother housewife parental group, while no genuine difference between fathers and mothers has been observed in the same regard.

The obtained insignificant interaction effect of the two independent variables further provides empirical ground to believe that the difference between two working status groups (both working and father working-mother housewife) in regard to their attitude towards adolescent girl child does not vary genuinely for mothers and fathers or vice-versa. In other words, average attitude scores of four sub-groups formed on joint basis of working status and gender of parents do not differ considerably in regard to their attitude towards adolescent girl child.

## **B. STUDY II**

### **(B-i) IMPACT OF PARENTAL ATTITUDE ON ADJUSTMENT OF ADOLESCENT GIRL CHILDREN**

The first problem of Study II in the present research pertained to impact of parental attitude on adjustment of adolescent girl children. It has already been described earlier that four groups of parents have been classified on joint basis of their scores on attitude. These four attitude groups are – both positive, father positive-mother negative, father negative-mother positive, and both negative.

#### **(a) Impact on Overall Adjustment (Based On Composite Adjustment Scores)**

It is clear from Table 9 and Figure 5 that average adjustment scores of adolescent girl children belonging to four parental attitude groups i.e., both positive, father positive-mother negative, father negative-mother positive, and both negative, are 11.95, 14.93, 15.60, and 20.10, respectively. The higher score on adjustment scale is indicative of poorer adjustment. It is clear from adjustment scores that adolescent girl children of both positive parental attitude group is the best (M=11.95) in regard to their overall adjustment while those of both negative parental attitude group (M=20.10) is the poorest in this regard. Similarly, adolescent girl children belonging to father positive-mother negative parental attitude group (M=14.93) stands second and those belonging to father negative-mother positive parental group (M=15.60) stand third in the same regard.

**Figure # 5: Average Composite Adjustment Scores Of Adolescent Girl Children Belonging to Four Parental Attitude Groups (As Per Table 9)**

The obtained F ratio ( $F = 161.558$  Table 10) for these differences in overall adjustment of adolescent girl children is significant at .01 level of significance for 3 and 232 degrees of freedom. Apart of it, Tukey's HSD test was also employed for comparing any two parental groups (Table 11). A perusal of Table 11 clearly indicates that five comparisons out of six are significant either at .05 or .01 level of significance for 4 and 239 degrees of freedom.

All these significant statistics provide empirical ground to conclude that there do exist genuine differences in adjustment of adolescent girl children belonging to four parental attitude groups. Hence, the research hypothesis can be retained, refuting the null hypothesis in this regard. A close view of summary of Tukey's HSD test reveals interesting findings. First, the adolescent girl children of both negative parental attitude groups truly showed poorest adjustment as compared to rest of the three attitude groups. Secondly, adolescent girl children of father negative – mother positive and father positive – mother negative parental attitude group showed truly poorer adjustment than those of both posi-

tive attitude group. Thirdly, the difference between father negative-mother positive, father positive – mother negative parental attitude groups was not found genuine in regard to their overall adjustment. In general, it can be concluded that negative attitude of both parents is of key importance in poorer adjustment of adolescent girl children.

Parental attitudes towards the child affect his/her self-concept. Pattern of parental reward or punishment for child's behavior is crucial in the development of child's self-concept. If parental discipline does not satisfy the needs of the developing child, he may develop negative personality characteristics. Parents may be detached, indifferent, neglecting rejecting, over protective and indulgent and possessive. Parents may be liberal, cooperative, accepting, sufficiently protective and controlling. Any combination of these characteristics is possible. Many psychologists observe that children with high self-esteem tend to have parents who are also high in self-esteem. Such parents show consistency in encouraging and supporting their children. Such parents are self-confident emotionally stable, self-reliant, resilient, and effective in their child rearing practices, and compatible with each other. Mothers of such children are more accepting and supportive, expressing their acceptance through everyday manifestations of concern and affection. These mothers also enforce established rules consistently, preferring rewards and non-coercive treatment in efforts to alter their children's behaviour. The children who feel rejected show attention seeking behavior. Parent's attitudes and behavior reflect the cultural and social picture of society. Mishra & Mathur (1995), Christopher (1993), Richardson (1993), and Sacobson (2000) found associations between parental monitoring and a variety of indicators of adolescent's adjustment for both boys and girls.

William et al. (2003) also suggest that maternal negative attitude towards the infant at 6 months is an independent predictor of child behaviour problems at 5 years. This association remained significant for boys' externalizing behaviours and girls' internalizing behaviours.



Susan (1999) found that perceived familial gender discrimination was found significantly related to the level of adjustment of adolescent girls. Girls perceiving more familial gender discrimination were found to have less social, educational and total adjustment.

### **(b) Impact On Emotional Adjustment**

A perusal of Table 12 clarifies that average emotional adjustment score of adolescent girl children belonging to both positive attitude parental group (M = 2.765, Figure 6) is the best while it is the poorest (M = 5.733, Figure 6) in the case of adolescent girl children of both negative parental attitude group. The two other sub-groups i.e., adolescent girl children of father positive – mother negative (M = 3.116, Figure 6) and father negative – mother positive parental attitude group (M = 3.983, Figure 6) occupy second and third position, respectively, in this regard.

**Figure # 6: Average Emotional Adjustment Scores Of Adolescent Girl Children**

### **Belonging To Four Parental Attitude Groups (As Per Table 12)**

The obtained F-ratio for these differences ( $F=75.257$ , Table 13) is significant at .01 level of significance for 3 and 232 degrees of freedom and provides ample statistical ground to retain the research hypothesis, rejecting the null hypothesis in the regard. Apart of it, Tukey's HSD test has also been employed to compare any two attitude groups (Table 14) in regard to their emotional adjustment. All the obtained differences are found to be significant at .01 level of significance for 4 and 239 degrees of freedom except in the case of comparison between both positive and father positive-mother negative parental attitude groups wherein the difference has not been found significant. Hence, it can be concluded that adolescent girl children of both positive parental attitude group truly showed the best adjustment, as hypothesized while those of both negative parental attitude group showed the poorest emotional adjustment.

Spoth et al. (1998) assert that emotional adjustment is a process in which the personality is continuously striving for greater sense of emotional health, both intra-psychically and intra-personality. An emotionally mature person has the capacity to withstand delay in satisfaction of needs. He has the ability to tolerate a reasonable amount of frustration. He believes in long-term planning and is capable of delaying or revising his expectations in terms of demands of the situations. It has been found that emotionally well-adjusted persons are quick to establish affectionate relations with others. It seems that parents both with positive attitude provide an encouraging environment to their adolescent girl children and are also a role model to seek emotional maturity. Such parents are true source of social-emotional support to their kids and allow their adolescent girl child also to express their emotions and find sufficient opportunities to shape their expression in socially acceptable manner. In contrast, when parents are of negative attitude towards their adolescent girl child, they prove themselves of intense hindrance in spontaneous expression of emotions of their adolescent girl child. This biased behaviour arouse negativity in their girl child, turn-

ing them to be emotionally immature and thus such adolescent girls remain emotionally maladjusted.

### **(c) Impact on Social Adjustment**

It is clear from Table 15 that adolescent girl children of both positive parental attitude group showed that best social adjustment ( $M = 4.848$ , Figure 7) and those of both negative parental attitude group showed the poorest social adjustment ( $M = 7.833$ , Figure 7). Here too adolescent girl children of father positive – mother negative parental attitude group stood at second position ( $M = 6.33$ , Figure 7) and those of father negative – mother positive parental attitude group stood at third position ( $M = 6.533$ , Figure 7).

The obtained significant F ratio ( $F = 44.715$ ,  $P < .01$ , Table 16) clearly indicates that differences among four parental attitude groups in regard to social adjustment of their adolescent girl children are genuine. Apart of it, statistical values (Table 17) found in Tukey's HSD test also support the inference drawn on the basis of F statistic. It is clear form Table 17 that five out of six comparisons are significant at .01 level of significance for 4 and 239 degrees of freedom.

**Figure # 7: Average Social Adjustment Scores Of Adolescent Girl Children Belonging To Four Parental Attitude Groups (As Per Table 15)**

It is clear that adolescent girl children of both positive parental attitude group truly showed better adjustment than rest of the three parental groups i.e., father positive – mother negative, father negative – mother positive, and both negative. The adolescent girl children of both negative parental attitude groups showed the poorest level of social adjustment.

It seems that parents with favourable attitude towards adolescent girl child provides encouraging environment to her in the family. They also provide enough social-emotional support to go ahead in her life out of the family too. Frequent positive interactions in the family as perceived by such girl finds appropriate role models for her social learning, enabling her to adjust with her social environment much easier than that adolescent girl who faces embarrassing and humiliating situations due to her one or both parents, with negative attitude towards her.

**(d) Impact on Educational Adjustment**

A perusal of Table 18 clarifies that adolescent girl children of both positive parental attitude group showed the best adjustment ( $M = 4.333$ , Figure 8) and those of both negative parental attitude group showed the poorest educational adjustment ( $M = 6.531$ , Figure 8). The adolescent girl children of father negative-mother positive and father positive-mother negative stood second ( $M = 5.083$ , Figure 8) and third ( $M = 5.483$ , Figure 8) in this regard.

**Figure # 8: Average Educational Adjustment Scores Of Adolescent Girl Children Belonging To Four Parental Attitude Groups (As Per Table 18)**

An F-ratio was computed in a two-way ANOVA along with working status as another variable (Table 19). The obtained F-ratio ( $F = 26.37$ ) is significant at .01 level of significance for 3 and 232 degrees of freedom.

Apart of it, Tukey's HSD test has also been employed to verify significance of difference in educational adjustment of two comparison groups (Table 20). Five out of 6 differences are found significant either at .05 or .01 level of significance for 4 and 239 degrees of freedom. All these significant statistics provide empirical ground to retain research hypothesis, refuting the null hypothesis in regard to difference in educational adjustment of adolescent girl children belonging to four parental attitude groups. More specifically, it can be concluded that adolescent girl children of both negative parental attitude group ( $M = 6.531$ ) are truly poorest in regard to their educational adjustment and

those of both positive parental attitude group are truly the best ( $M=4.333$ ) in the same regard.

The findings showed that parental attitude to equal access to and the participation of the girl-child to education is still negative and unsupportive. Some 83.3% of the parents preferred to educate the boys rather than the girls as only 29.0% agreed that girls are useful to their family of origin when they are married while 77.10% of the pupils also submitted that her marriage is the most important rather than education.

Abubakar (2012) has concerted that poor attitude of parents towards educating their female children in the north- Nigeria saying that a society would always be backward, if its women folk were uneducated and backward.

It sum, it can be concluded that adolescent girl children of both positive parental attitude group truly are best adjusted while those of both negative parental attitude group are poorest in this regard. This finding applies on composite adjustment scores as well as separately on emotional, social, and educational areas of adjustment.

Social psychologists generally used the term attitude to refer to our evaluation of virtually any aspect of the social world (e.g., Fazio & Roskos-Ewoldson, 1994; and Tesser & Marlin, 1996). The extent to which people have favourable or unfavourable reactions to issue, ideas, persons, social groups, and objects. Ajzen & Fisben (1980), and Ajzen (1991) proposed the theory of planned behaviour, earlier known as theory of reasoned actions, which suggests that the decision to engage in a particular behaviour is the result of a rational process that is goal-oriented and that follows a logical sequence. Behavioural options are considered consequences or outcomes of each are evaluated, and a decision is reached to act or not to act. That decision is then reflected in behavioural intentions. Fishbein et al. (1980), and Ajzen (1987) are often strong predictors of how we will act in a given situation. According to the theory, intention, in turn are deter-

mined by two factors : attitudes toward a behaviour– people’s positive or negative evaluations of performing the behaviour (whether they think it will yield positive or negative consequences), and subjective norms – people’s perceptions of whether others will approve or disapprove of this behaviour. The theory of planned behaviour adds a third factor: perceived behavioural control – people’s appraisals of their ability to perform the behaviour.

It seems that when both the parents are of favourable attitude towards adolescent girl child, the perception of the behaviour of such parents is appraised positively, and thus provides state of comfort for adolescent girl children which in turn leads to positive emotional and behavioural returns towards their caring parents. This positive transaction between adolescent girl children and their parents provides a fertile ground for the nurturance of high self-esteem and feeling of security among adolescent girl children which help them to adjust in a better manner in emotional, social, and educational domains of their lives. In contrast, adolescent girl children of parents both or any one of negative attitude do not enjoy such a favourable environment, rather they face lots of restrictions and restraints depriving them from such an environment which can enhance self-esteem and security feeling. This constantly available stress causes negative transactions between these adolescent girls and unfavourable parents, leading to poorer adjustment of such adolescent girls.

## **(B-ii) IMPACT OF WORKING STATUS OF PARENTS ON ADJUSTMENT OF ADOLESCENT GIRL CHILDREN**

The second problem of the Study II in the present research pertained to impact of working status of parents on adjustment of adolescent girl children. It was hypothesized that adolescent girls of both working parents would show better adjustment than those of father working-mother housewife group.

**(a) Impact On Overall Adjustment (Based On Composite Adjustment Scores)**

A perusal of Table 9 and Figure 9 reveals the fact that average adjustment scores of adolescent girl children of both working parents (M = 16.041, Figure 9) is higher than that of adolescent girl children of father working-mother housewife parental group (M = 15.25, Figure 9).

**Figure # 9: Average Composite Adjustment Scores Of Adolescent Girl Children Belonging To Two Working Status Groups Of Parents**

Higher score on adjustment test (Adjustment Inventory For School Student, Sinha & Sing, 1993) is indicative of poorer adjustment. It is clear that adjustment of adolescent girl children of father working – mother housewife parental group is better than that of adolescent girls of both working parental group.

The obtained F ratio (F = 8.895 Table 10) for this difference in adjustment of ado-



lescent girl children of the two working status parental group is significant of .01 level of significance for 1 and 232 degrees of freedom. Apart of it, 4 t ratios were also computed to check significance of differences between two working status groups of parents in respect of their adolescent girl children's adjustment (Table 21). It is clear from Table 21 that three t ratios out of the four are significant at .01 level of significance for 58 degrees of freedom, supporting the empirical evidence obtained through F statistic.

The findings, though significant, is contrary to the research hypothesis wherein it was expected that adolescent girl children of both working parents would be better than those of father working-mother housewife group. It has been found that adolescent girl children of father working-mother housewife are truly better adjusted than those of both working parental group.

It seems that both working parents though found to be more favourable than father working-mother housewife parental group, the absence of mother in the family due to her working status may be playing vital role in adjustment of adolescent girl children. The adolescent girls due to their transition period find themselves in physical and emotional turmoil. Due to intense harmonic changes adolescent girls observe many secondary sex characteristics in their bodies putting them embarrassed. At this verge they need to share about all these changes in their bodies and consequent mental stress with somebody who is confederate to them and nobody else can replace the mother in this situation. A housewife mother being available to her daughter 24 hours is able to sooth her daughter through her expertization and experience without putting her daughter in any embarrassing situation. The daughter too finds her mother as the best suitable person to share everything about and seeks socio-emotional comfort which guarantees her better adjustment.

In contrast, a working mother finds little time to share with her daughter due to

dual duty of office and home. Though, she has more favourable attitude towards her adolescent girl child than mother who is purely a housewife, but it seems that the favourable attitude restricts to only her education and career aspects. A good adjustment of adolescent girl also depends on emotional and social support during this troubling stage which seems to be lacking in appropriate amount in the condition of working mothers. These may be the reasons of better adjustment of adolescent girls of father working and mother housewife parental group than those of both working parents.

Sandhu (1997) compared difference in daughters of employed and nonemployed mothers. Daughter of nonemployed mothers had over all better adjustment than daughter of employed mothers, there was significant difference in health and social adjustment.

So far the discussion has been made on the basis of composite adjustment scores. Apart of it, adjustment of adolescent girl children has also been studied on the basis of three dimensions of adjustment i.e., emotional adjustment, social adjustment, and educational adjustment. Bronfenbrenner and Morris (2005) says that adolescent girl of employed mothers tend to live in more structured home with clear cut rules giving them more household responsibilities. They are encouraged to be more independent. Independence helps girls to become more competent, to achieve more in school and to have higher self esteem than children of full time home maker.

Rower (1991) has not found any significant differences between self-esteem scores of adolescent daughters of both working and nonworking mothers.

Mishra & Mathur (1995) examined the influence of maternal employment on psychological differentiation in children. Result suggests relatively greater field independence in the children of employed mothers.

## **(b) Impact On Emotional Adjustment**

Average emotional adjustment score of adolescent girl children of father working -mother housewife group (M = 3.649, Table 12, Figure 10) is better than that of both working group (M = 4.149, Figure 10).

### **Figure # 10: Average Emotional Adjustment Scores Of Adolescent Children Belonging To Two Working Status Groups Of Parents**

The obtained F-ratio ( $F = 10.714$ , Table 13) for this difference is significant at .01 level of significance for 1 and 232 degrees of freedom, and provides sound statistical ground to conclude that adolescent girl children of father working – mother housewife working group truly showed better emotional adjustment than those of both working parental group. Apart of F ratio, four t values were also computed (Table 22) to check significance of differences between the two comparison working status groups belonging to

four different attitude groups. One out of the four computed t ratios, is found significant at .01 level of significance for 58 degrees of freedom and this is in the case of 'Both Negative Attitude" group and in this condition too, contrary to the research hypothesis, adolescent girl children of father working-mother housewife group showed better emotional adjustment, however, in rest of three cases of comparison also adolescent girl children of father working-mother housewife group had shown better adjustment.

Bhandari (1990) found that there was no significant difference in the trait aggression in the children of employed and nonemployed mothers. But girls of employed mothers were found to be less aggressive.

It has been discussed earlier that better adjustment of adolescent girl children of father working-mother housewife group may be due to greater emotional and social support of mothers in this group. In Indian culture and society the adolescent girl face lots of social and family restrictions due to which a major portion of off school period is spent at home only and the presence of mothers at home is of great relief to emotionally turmoiled adolescent girls. The housewife mothers are able to maintain greater amount of face to face interactions with physical proximity to their adolescent girl children, which not only help these housewife-mothers to have a keen eye on activities of their adolescent girl children and helping them at the time of perceived need but also help adolescent girl children to seek emotional support from their mothers by sharing with their mother and also assisting their mother in their household works. This extended bidirectional help provides a fertile base to nurture suitable emotional environment which helps an adolescent girl child to be adjusted better emotionally in comparison to adolescent girl child of both working parental families in which the working mother does not find enough time to interact with her adolescent girl child leading to a poor level of social and emotional interactions between the two.

### **(c) Impact On Social Adjustment**

Another dimension of adjustment which has been considered vital is social adjustment of adolescent girl.

It is clear from Table 15 that average social adjustment score of adolescent girl children of father working-mother housewife parental group ( $M = 6.366$ , Figure 11) is very marginally better than average social adjustment score of adolescent girl children of both working parents ( $M = 6.407$ , Figure 11).

### **Figure # 11: Average Social Adjustment Scores Of Adolescent Girl Children Belonging To Two Working Status Groups Of Parents**

The obtained F-ratio ( $F = 0.51$  Table 16) for this difference is not significant at

any acceptable level of significance for 1 and 232 degrees of freedom. This insignificant statistic provides empirical ground to believe that adolescent girl children of the two working status groups of parents do not differ truly in respect of their social adjustment. Apart of F statistics, 4 t ratios were also computed to check significance of differences between two comparison groups (Table 24). It is clear that two ratios for both positive attitude group and father negative-mother positive group showed significant differences. In the condition of both positive attitude group, as hypothesized, adolescents girl children of both positive attitude parental group showed better social adjustment, while reverse was observed in the condition of father negative-mother positive parental attitude group. It seems that mothers positive attitude is a vital key in regard to social adjustment of adolescent girl children. However, further research is recommended to throw more light on this aspect. Though, it was hypothesized that adolescent girl children of both working parental group would show better adjustment than adolescent girl children of father working- mother housewife group, the finding of the present research though insignificant, is showing the contrary trend.

It seems that the changing scenario of the society due to education, industrialization, and modernization may be playing its role in adjustment of adolescent girls. All these factors are responsible for bringing in attitudinal changes towards adolescent girl children. Earlier with the start of adolescent period, lots of restrictions were imposed on adolescent girls in the society depriving them from favourable natural environment. The modern society now looks at adolescent girl as an egalitarian way. Both parental groups i.e., Both working and father working-mother housewife, tend to adopt this egalitarian attitude and provide sufficient opportunity to their adolescent girl child to grow. Lifting of barriers for development helps adolescent girl children. A contrary result has been observed in the case of both negative attitude group wherein adolescent girl children of both working parental group has shown better adjustment ( $M = 7.467$ , Figure 12) than

those father working-mother housewife group ( $M = 8.20$ , Figure 12).

**Figure # 12: Average Social Adjustment Scores Of Adolescent Girls Of Both Working And Father Working-Mother Housewife Parental Groups Belonging To Both Negative Attitude Group**

It seems that attitude of parents are interfering in determining impact of working status of parents on social adjustment of adolescent girl children. Further research is recommended to highlight on these contradictory findings.

**(d) Impact On Educational Adjustment**

last important dimension of adjustment considered in the present research is educational adjustment. A perusal of Table 18 clarifies that average adjustment score of adolescent girl children of father working-mother housewife parental group ( $M = 5.232$ , Figure 13) is marginally better than those of both working parents ( $M = 5.483$ , Figure 13).

The obtained F-ratio ( $F = 1.996$ , Table 19) is not significant at any acceptable level of significance for 1 and 232 degrees of freedom which provides sound statistical ground to conclude that adolescent girl children of two working status groups of parents do not differ genuinely in regard to their educational adjustment.

**Figure # 13: Average Educational Adjustment Scores Of Adolescent Girl Children Belonging To Two Working Status Groups Of Parents**

Apart of it, 4 t ratios were also computed to check significance of differences between two working status groups in this regard. Two t ratios, one in case of both positive attitude group of parents and another in case of father positive-mother negative attitude group of parents, are significant at .01 level of significance for 58 degrees of freedom. It is interesting to note that adolescents girl children of both working parents had shown better educational adjustment when both parents were of positive attitude, but when father was of positive attitude and mother was of negative attitude, adolescent girl children of father working-mother housewife group showed better adjustment. This later finding



is contrary to research hypothesis, though significant. Further research is recommended to throw more light on these diverse findings. Though, it was hypothesized that adolescent girl children of both working parental group would show better adjustment than those of father working-mother housewife group, the findings of present research though insignificant is showing contrary trend to hypothesized trend. The employment of mothers outside their homes has got an adverse effect on the performance of their children in study particularly their adolescent daughters, due to their added responsibilities of cleaning of house, dish washing of clothes, ironing of clothes and care of siblings which are normally attended by the housewives.

Kunwar & Jain (2011) found that non-working mothers' daughters feel that their mothers are readily available when they require them and the interaction between them is healthy and positive one with a mean score of 0.975 and with working mothers due to her tight schedule and when they experienced menarche someone was there to support them with a mean score of 0.900.

The findings of the present research wherein no genuine difference has been observed between the two working status parental groups in regard to educational adjustment level of adolescent girl children again may be attributed to changing educational scenario at family and society level both. Earlier a few of adolescent girls were permitted to go for higher studies and were forced to settle family wise quite early in their life. Now with changing scenario more women are a part of working field in society, however, there is still larger population of women who are working as housewife only. But in spite of their role confined to family only, most of these housewives are becoming more conscious about their responsibilities and roles in education of their girl children. It seems that these housewives are negotiating their own dreams through their adolescent girl children. They may be feeling that though they could not go for higher education, at least their adolescent girls shall not be deprived of such opportunities. Consequently,

they make all efforts for comfortable and well inspired educational environment for their adolescent girl children, as in the case of working women, who also effort for good educational opportunities to their girl children, a fact very well known to them through their personal experiences in life. These may be the reasons for obtained ingenuine difference between both working, and father working-mother housewife parental group in regard to educational adjustment of their adolescent girl children.

### **(B-iii). JOINT EFFECT OF ATTITUDE TOWARDS GIRL CHILD AND WORKING STATUS OF PARENTS ON ADJUSTMENT OF ADOLESCENT GIRL CHILDREN**

It is also interesting to see whether attitude and working status of parent's dichotomy yields any significant interaction effect on adjustment of adolescent girl children. For the present research, it was assumed that adolescent girl children of both positive attitude and both working status group would show better adjustment than their counterpart.

#### **(a) Effect On Overall Adjustment (Based On Composite Adjustment Scores)**

A perusal of Table 9 clarifies that average composite adjustment score of adolescent girl children belonging to 8 subgroups of parents i.e., both positive, father positive-mother negative, father negative-mother positive, and both negative, of both working and father working-mother housewife groups are 10.50, 15.30, 16.70, 21.667, 13.40, 14.567, 14.50, and 18.53, respectively (Figure 14).

**Figure # 14: Average Composite Adjustment Scores Of Adolescent Girl Children Belonging To Eight Subgroup Formed On Joint Basis Of Parental Attitude And Working Status (As Per Table 9)**

The obtained F-ratio ( $F = 25.04$ , Table 10) for this difference is significant at .01 level of significance for 3 and 232 degree of freedom providing sound statistical ground to believe that there does exist true joint effect of attitude and working status of parents on adjustment of their adolescent girl children. It can be concluded that the difference in overall adjustment of adolescent girls belonging to two working status groups of parents i.e., both working and father-working mother housewife, truly varies because of their parental attitude or vice-versa. More specifically, the eight sub-groups of adolescent girls formed on joint basis of their parental attitude and working status genuinely differ in regard to their overall adjustment.

As has already been stated above that attitude of parents towards adolescent girl child has been considered vital in relation to adjustment of adolescent girl children. Hoge & Andrews (1996) and Willian (2003) have observed that negative attitude of parents were important risk factor in the development of behaviour problem and adjustment of adolescents. Bomes and Olson (1985), Kashani (1987), Barrera (1992), Harris (1995, 1998), Rowe (1994) and Collins (2000) conclude that parental attitude and parental support have positive impact on the development of personality in adolescents. Amalor & Suresh (1999), Sacobson (2000), Monis & Ramanan (2001), Arva

(2006), Bajpai (2007), Kenneth (2009), Bellah (2011), Benbassat (2011), and Tyagi (2011) have also found that parental attitude relate to mental health as well as the trend of adjustment of the adolescents. Grusec (2006), Joosiki (2006), Bellah (2011) studied the role of social support in psychological adjustment and found parental support was the best predicator of psycho-social adjustment.

### **(b) Impact On Emotional Adjustment**

It is clear from Table 12 that average emotional adjustment scores of 8 subgroups formed on joint basis of parental attitude and working status are 2.60, 3.133, 4.133, 6.733, 2.93, 3.10, 3.833, and 4.733, respectively (Figure 15).

**Figure #15: Average Emotional Adjustment Scores Of Adolescent Girl Children Belonging To Eight Subgroup Formed On Joint Basis Of Parental Attitude And Working Status (As Per Table 12)**

The obtained F-ratio ( $F = 11.408$ , Table 13) for this difference is significant at .01 level of significance for 3 and 232 degree of freedom providing sound statistical ground to believe that there does exist true joint effect of attitude and working status of parents on emotional adjustment of their adolescent girl children. It can be concluded that the difference in emotional adjustment of adolescent girls of both working and of father working-mother housewife groups varies truly for four parental attitude groups or vice-versa. More specifically, it can be said that the eight sub-groups formed on joint basis of parental attitude and working status genuinely differ in respect of their emotional adjustment.

### **(c) Impact On Social Adjustment**

A perusal of Table 15 clarifies that average social adjustment scores of adolescent girl children belonging to the 8 parental attitudes – working status groups are 3.93, 6.23, 7.267, 8.20, 5.767, 6.43, 5.80, and 7.467, respectively (Figure 16).

**Figure # 16: Average Social Adjustment Scores Of Adolescent Girl Children Belong-**

### **ing To Eight Sub-Group Formed On Joint Basis Of Parental Attitude And Working Status (As Per Table 15)**

The obtained interaction F-ratio ( $F = 15.20$ , Table 16) is significant at .01 level of significance for 3 and 232 degree of freedom. On this basis, it can be concluded that there does exist genuine interaction effect of parental attitude and working status on social adjustment of adolescent girl children. In other words, it can be said that the difference in social adjustment scores of adolescent girls belonging to both working and father working-mother housewife groups truly varies for four parental attitude groups. More specifically, the eight sub-groups of adolescent girls formed on joint basis of parental attitude and working status truly differ in respect of their social adjustment.

#### **(d) Effect On Educational Adjustment**

It is clear from Table 18 and Figure 17 that average educational adjustment of the 8 sub-groups formed on joint basis of parental attitude and working status are 3.967, 5.933, 5.30, 6.733, 4.70, 5.033, 4.867, and 6.33, respectively.

**Figure # 17: Average Educational Adjustment Scores Of Adolescent Girl Children Belonging To Eight Sub-Group Formed On Joint Basis Of Parental Attitude And Working Status (As Per Table 18)**

The obtained interaction F-ratio ( $F = 3.779$ , Table 19) is significant at .05 level of significance for 3 and 232 degrees of freedom. This significant statistic provides empirical ground to conclude that parental attitude and working status exert considerable joint effect on adjustment of adolescent girl children.

All the four obtained significant interaction F-ratios pertained to joint effect of parental attitude and working status on adjustment in general, emotional adjustment, social adjustment, and educational adjustment of adolescent girls provide empirical ground to believe that the 8 sub-groups of adolescent girls formed on joint basis of parental attitude and working status – Both Positive – Both working Father Positive-Mother Negative – Both Working, Father Negative-Mother Positive – Both Working, Both Negative – Both Working, Both Positive – Father Working - Mother House Wife, Father Positive - Mother Negative – Father Working - Mother House Wife, Father Negative-Mother Positive – Father Working-Mother House Wife, and Both Negative – Mother Negative – Father Working - Mother House Wife, truly differ genuinely in regard to their overall, emotional, social, and educational adjustment.

More specifically, it can also be said that the difference in adjustment of adolescent girl children of both working and father working - mother housewife parental working status groups truly varies due to their parents' attitude towards them. Alternately, it can also be said that the differences among adolescent girl children belonging to four parental attitude groups in regard to their adjustment truly vary due to the working status

of parents – both working and father working - mother housewife.

## **CHAPTER – SEVEN**

# **SUMMARY**

## **INTRODUCTION**

Adjustment in life is the key to happiness, No one's environment and family circumstances are smooth. Natural give and take in social and family circumstances is necessary for the well-adjusted happy life .The concept of adjustment was originally a biologically one and was a corner stone of Darwin's theory of evolution (1859). Shaffer (1956) defines adjustment as a process by which a living organism maintains a balance between its needs and circumstances that influence the satisfaction of these needs. Shah & Dua (1993) assert that the term of adjustment may be used to imply the process by which a person changes his behaviour to achieve a harmonious relationship between himself and his environment. The state of such harmonious relationship of life be looked upon as a long series of adjustment in which the individual is constantly adjusting himself to the demands of the external environment as well as to need of his physiological and mental constitutions.

There are two main important aspects of adjustment. The first has to do with its quality and the second deals with the processes by which a person adjusts. The adjustment process is multi-dimensional. Coleman (1960) states that the process by which an organism attempts to meet the demands placed upon it by its own nature and by its environment, is called adjustment. Adjustment is a continuous process and not a fixed or static state. Coleman (1964) stated that a neurotic or maladjusted person has certain



symptoms like inadequacy and low stress tolerance, tension and irritability, anxiety, and fearfulness, persisting, non-integrative behavior, psychological, and somatic symptoms. According to Lawton (1951) well adjusted people are able and willing to assume responsibilities appropriate to their age, participate with pleasure in successive experiences belonging to each successive age-level; willingly accept the responsibilities pertaining to their roles in life, attack

Problem that requires solution, get major satisfaction from real than in imaginary accomplishment, and accept the fact that life is endless struggle.

Adolescence is a critical period of growth and development In Webster's New Collegiate Dictionary (1977) adolescence has been defined as the "process of growing up" and the period of life from puberty to maturity. Chronologically, adolescence ranges from age 12 to 18 years. Sociologically, adolescents are those who are trying to bridge the gap between dependent childhood and self-sufficient adulthood (Murs, 1962). It is the period of "storm stress" a time when the individual is erratic, emotionally unstable and unpredictable. Psychologists have drawn attention to the fact that during this period of adolescence, emotional behavior tends to become quite intense. The quality of an adolescent relationship with his/her parents is a key component to healthy adolescent development (Rueger & Cogner, 1995). Baumind (1991) suggested that parent's behavior can be grouped into one of three distinct patterns or clusters authoritarian, permissive, and authoritative. These three parental patterns of behavior of parents have different implications for child's social, emotional, and intellectual development.

Adjustment of adolescents is determined by various factors, two of this i.e., attitude of parents towards adolescent girl child, and their working status have been considered in the present research.

Social psychologists use the term attitude to refer to people's evaluation of virtually

any aspect of their social world (e.g., Olson & Mario, 2003; and Petti et al., 2003). People can have favourable and unfavourable reactions to issue, ideas, object, a specific behaviour, or entire social groups. People can also be conflicted or ambivalent towards an object meaning that they simultaneously possess both positive and negative attitudes. The tendency to evaluate stimuli as positive or negative – something people like or dislike appears to be an initial step in their efforts to make sense out of the world. Attitude can influence individuals' thoughts even if they are not always reflected in our overt behaviour. Allport (1935) defined attitude as a mental and neural state of readiness, organized through experience, exerting a direct or dynamic influence upon the individuals' response to all objects and situations with which it is related. Zimbardo (1999) defined attitude as a positive or negative evaluation of people, object, event, activities, and ideas or just about anything in one's environment.

The attitudes have three components (1) beliefs or cognitions, (2) an evaluation and, (3) a behavioural predisposition (The "ABCs" of attitude). Attitude can provide an interpretative framework that allows people to easily make sense of new information; they can be a means of expressing who they are.

Attitude may be formed through reinforcement (instrumental conditioning), through association of stimuli and response (classical conditioning) or by observing others (observational learning). Since long through history, it has been observed that females are ascribed a lower social status in a male dominating society. Attitude of people towards girl child is considerably less favorable than male child. Newcomb & Svehla (1937) have studied the influence of home in the formation and development of attitude. Attitude formation is determined by various factors i.e., genetic, gender of parents, working status of parents etc. Attitudes towards adolescent girl child are determined by many factors. The present research deals with two such factors i.e., working status and gender of parents. Parents play a vital role in development of their children. Parents are criti-

cal to every aspect of a child development. They provide healthy, stable environments for their children and providing a loving and nurturing relationship. The income of a parent or parents directly influences the quality of care and duality of life .parents working status seems to determine their attitude towards girl child. Family environment of both working parents certainly different from the family where only father is earning and mother is purely housewife.

Eccles et al. (1990) found that when parents were attuned to their adolescent children's developmental needs, and supported their autonomy in decision making, the students were better adjustment during school transitions. Parent's behavior is the model for their children. There are three principal parental variables that pattern the personality development of children these variables are two parental attitude, parents' personality, and parental behaviors. Parents behavior may be characterized either by acceptance or rejection of some children (Maccoby, 1969). It has been seen that the children who are accepted generally behave in socially acceptable manner .Contrary to these rejected children found indulging in unsocial pursuit. Accepted children show good manner. The children who feel rejected show attention seeking behavior. Parent's attitudes and behavior reflect the cultural and social picture of society. Mills (1999), Kowawo (2001), Aslam (2007), and Muhammad (2011) in a study found significant difference was found between the attitude of educated and uneducated males and females parents towards education of their daughters. Mishra & Mathur (1995), Chistopher (1993), Richardson (1993), and Sacobson (2000), examined the associations between parental monitoring and a variety of indicators of adolescents adjustment for both boys and girls.

The effects of maternal employment on children are sometimes positive and sometimes negative (Youngblut et al.,1998). The impact of maternal employment on children's socialization and mother-child interaction is of continued concern in child development and mental health (Hoffman et al., 1986; and Gottfried,1988). Although, num-

ber of authors have pointed out about the positive effects of maternal employment on children's adjustment (Hoffman, 1986; and Barling, 1991) others have expressed concern over mothers long and inflexible working hours, the lack of part time jobs that pay adequately, and children's need for consistent adult supervision and high quality child care (Galinsky, 1988;). Research indicates that maternal employment is a multidimensional variable that has a differential impact on children depending on the number of hours a mother works, her job description, job stability, and role satisfaction (Pett et al., 1994).

Gender of parents is also an important factor in attitude towards girl child. It is generally observed mothers are more supportive towards their daughters and they don't show biases between their daughters and sons as stronger as father. Sharma et al. (2007) observed that more than 52% of mothers want their daughter education level to be up to post graduation level and 95% of mothers would allow their daughters to select subject of their choice.

As has already been stated above that attitude of parents towards adolescent girl child has been considered vital in relation to adjustment of adolescent girl children. Hoge & Andrews (1996), and William (2003) have observed that negative attitude of parents were important risk factor in the development of behavior problem and adjustment of adolescents. Thornberry (1996), and Miller (1999) have observed that positive attitude to school and teachers have been positively related to behavioral adjustment in adolescence. Bomes & Olson (1985), Kashani (1987), Barrera (1992), Harris (1995, 1998), Rowe (1994), and Collins (2000) conclude that parental attitude and parental support have positive impact on the development of personality in adolescents. Amalor & Suresh (1999), Sacobson (2000), Monis & Ramanan (2001), Bajpai (2007), Kenneth (2009), Benbassat (2011), and Tyagi (2011) have also found that parental attitude relate to mental health as well as the trend of adjustment of the adolescents. Grusec (2006), Joo-

siki (2006), and Bellah (2011) studied the role of social support in psychological adjustment they found parental support was the best predictor of psycho-social adjustment.

Working status is another variable considered vital in the present research in relation of adjustment of adolescent girl child. Children's of mothers who enjoy employed and remain committed to parenting show especially positive adjustment, a higher sense of self-esteem, more positive family and peer relations, less gender stereotyped beliefs and better grades in school (Hoffman, 1989; and Williams & Radin, 1993). Crow & Crow (1974) stated that maternal employment enhance adolescents' acquisition of independence and responsibility keeping in view that the family environment is important contributory factor to adjustment of their adolescent children. Socio-economic status of family depended on occupational status of parents (Botson & Makri, 2003). Apart of it, family and educational environments, and the quality of personal interactions also depend on occupational status of family. Many of the studies that have compared the children of employed and non-employed mothers on child outcome measures such as indices of cognitive and socio-emotional development have failed to find significant difference. Girls with employed mothers were more likely than girls whose mothers were full-time homemakers to indicate that women as well as men could do the activities that are usually associated with men; that is employed mothers, daughters saw women as more competent in the traditionally male domain than the homemakers' daughters did. Working status is another variable considered vital in the present research in relation of adjustment of adolescent girl children. Employed mothers who value their parenting role are more likely to use authoritative child rearing and co-regulation granting their child independence with oversight. Maternal employment results in more time with fathers, who take on greater child care responsibility. More paternal contact is related to higher intelligence and achievement, mature social behavior and gender stereotype flexibility.

Booth (2000), Hoffman (2000), Almeida (2001), Gittleman (2003), Reitman (2002),

Golfried (2005), and Sharma (2009) observed the maternal employment is the major influence on child's overall adjustment. Working parents are role model for children. It seems that work makes moms happier, which leads more well adjusted kids. Sandhu (1997) compared difference in daughters of employed and non-employed mothers and found that, daughters of non-employed mothers had overall better adjustment than daughters of employed mothers.

## **STATEMENT OF PROBLEM**

In the present study the author intends to explore roles of working status and gender of parents in attitude towards girl child and impact of these parental attitudes toward girl child on adjustment of adolescent female children. The specific problems and relevant hypotheses are as below.

### **STUDY I**

#### **PROBLEM (A-1)**

The first problem in Study I of the present investigation pertains to effect of working status of parents on their attitude toward adolescent girl child.

It is hypothesized that both working parents would show more favourable attitude towards adolescent girl child in comparison to father working and mother housewife parental group.

#### **PROBLEM (A-2)**

The second problem of the research pertains to role of gender of parents in their attitude towards adolescent girl child.

It is hypothesized that male parental group would show more favourable attitude

towards adolescent girl children than female parental group.

### **PROBLEM (A-3)**

The last problem of Study I pertains to interaction effect of working status and gender of parents on their attitude towards adolescent girl child.

It has been expected that there would exist true interaction effect of working status and gender of parents on their attitude towards girl child.

## **STUDY II**

### **PROBLEM (B-1)**

The first problem in Study II of the present investigation pertains to impact of attitude of parents towards adolescent girl child on adjustment of adolescent girl child.

It has been hypothesized that adolescent girl children of parents both with favourable attitude towards them would show the best adjustment while those of parents both with unfavourable attitude would be the most poorly adjusted. The two other groups of adolescent girl children of the parent with favorable and another with unfavorable attitude would posse's intermediate position in this regard.

### **PROBLEM (B-2)**

The second problem in Study II pertains to impact of working status of parents on adjustment of their girl children.

It is expected that adolescent girl children of both working parents would be more adjusted than those whose fathers are working and mothers are purely housewives.

### **PROBLEM (B-3)**

The last problem in Study II deals with interaction effect of the two independent variables – attitude and working status of parents, on adjustment of adolescent girl children.

It is expected that there would exist true joint effect of attitude and working status of parents on adjustment of their adolescent girl children.

## **METHODOLOGY**

### **SAMPLE**

Stratified random sampling technique was adopted to select the final random sample of 520 parents (260 parent couples), for study I similarly a final random sample of 240 adolescent girl children of 240 parent couple was selected from a larger population of students studying in 10<sup>th</sup> or 11<sup>th</sup> class for study II. Care was taken to select parents of average socio-economic status only in both the studies.

For study I, out of these parents with average socio-economic status, 130 fathers and 130 mothers were selected randomly from the two working status groups i.e., both working parents and father working mother house wife parents. In this way, a final random sample of 520 parents (260 parent couples) was selected in Study I in the present research to select the sample for Study II, all the parents with average Socio-economic status were administered “attitude towards girl child” scale and on the basis of  $Q_1$  and  $Q_3$  statistics computed separately for mothers and fathers, only those parents were screened out who scored below  $Q_1$  and were classified as of negative attitude and who scored above  $Q_3$  and were classified as of positive attitude.

On the basis of joint classification of both the parents i.e. fathers and mothers on attitude scale four parental-attitude groups were formed – both positive, father positive –



mother negative, father negative – mother positive, and both negative. Out of these, 60 adolescents were selected randomly from each of the four parental-attitude groups maintaining 1:1 ratio for the two working status groups of parents – both working, and father working-mother housewife. In this way, a total of 240 adolescents of 480 parents(240 parent couples) were selected randomly, equally (n=30) drawn from 8 subgroups – Both Working - Both Positive, Both Working – Father Positive-Mother Negative, Both Working – Father Negative-Mother Positive, Both Working – Both Negative, Father Working-Mother Housewife – Both Positive, Father Working-Mother Housewife – Father Positive-Mother Negative, Father Working–Mother Housewife – Father Negative-Mother Positive, and Father Working-Mother Housewife–Both Negative.

## TOOLS

- (22) **Determination of Socio-Economic Status:** Socio Economic Status Scale [Ajawani & Verma (2007)] was used to determine socio-economic status of families.
- (23) **Determination of Attitude Towards Girl Child:** Attitude Toward Girl Child Test constructed and standardized by Dani (2009) was used.
- (24) **Measurement of Adjustment:** Adjustment Inventory for School Children (AISC) by Sinha & Singh (1993) was used to measure adjustment level of adolescent students.

## RESEARCH DESIGN & PROCEDURE

A 2x2 factorial design was used to study independent and interaction effects of two independent variables i.e., working status and gender of parents on attitude towards girl child in Study I. For the purpose, data were collected on randomly selected sample of 520 parents (260 parent couples) with average socio-economic status from a larger

population (N = 1000).

Firstly, a list of all higher secondary schools of Raipur city was prepared and 15 schools were selected randomly. All the students of 10<sup>th</sup> and 11<sup>th</sup> classes of these schools were given a socio-economic status scale to be filled up by their fathers to ascertain socio-economic status of these student families, On the basis of  $Q_1$ –  $Q_3$  statistics on the obtained scores on this scale, only those families were selected whose scores lied in between  $Q_1$  and  $Q_3$  and were termed of the average socio-economic status. 130 fathers and 130 mothers were Selected randomly from the two working-status groups of parents i.e., both working and father working-mother housewife. Secondly, Attitude towards girls child test was administered on both the parents of these initially selected families with average socio-economic status.

A 4x2 factorial design was used to study independent and interaction effects of parental attitude towards girl child and working status of parents on adjustment of adolescent girl children in Study II. For the purpose, parents of average socio-economic status were classified into 4 sub-groups on the basis of attitude of both parents (father & mother) towards adolescent girl child i.e., both positive, father positive – mother negative, father negative – mother positive, and both negative groups. 30 families from each parental attitude group of two working status groups were randomly selected and adolescent girl children of these families were administered an adjustment inventory.

## **DATA ANALYSIS**

The obtained data were analyzed with the help of parametric statistics i.e., F-test, t test and Tukey's HSD test for 3 separate adjustment areas i.e., emotional, social, and educational along with for composite scores on the adjustment inventory.

## RESULTS & DISCUSSION

In regard to the effect of working status of parents on attitude towards adolescent girl child, it was hypothesized that both working parents would show more favourable attitude towards adolescent girl child than father working – mother housewife parental group. The findings confirmed the research hypothesis.

In regard to role of gender of parents in their attitude towards adolescent girl child, it was hypothesized that male parents would show more favourable attitude towards adolescent girl child. No genuine gender difference has been observed. In regard to interaction effect of working status and gender of parents in contrast to research hypothesis, no true interaction effect has been observed on attitude towards adolescent girl child.

In regard to the impact of attitude of parents towards adolescent girl child on adjustment of adolescent girl child, it was hypothesized that adolescent girl children of parents both with favorable attitude towards them would show the best adjustment while those of parents both with unfavourable attitude would be the most poorly adjusted. The findings confirmed the research hypothesis in regard to all the three areas of adjustment i.e., emotional, social, and educational. Apart of it, findings based on composite adjustment scores also confirmed the research hypothesis.

In regard to the impact of working status of parents on adjustment of their girl children, it has been expected that adolescent girl children of both working parents would be more adjusted than those whose fathers are only earning member of family while mothers are housewives. Findings of the present research were contrary to the hypothesis in case of composite adjustment scores and emotional adjustment wherein adolescent girl children of both working parents were found to be poorly adjusted in

comparison to father working-mother housewife parental group. However, no true differences in social, and educational adjustments of adolescent girl children of two working status parental groups were observed.

In regard to joint effect of attitude towards adolescent girl child and working status of parents on adjustment of adolescent girl children as has hypothesized, true joint effect of the two factors was observed on adjustment (in general), emotional adjustment social adjustment and educational adjustment of adolescent girl children.

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**Table. # 1: Attitude Towards Adolescent Girl Child Score Of Fathers And Mothers Belonging To Both Working Parental Group**

<b>S.No.</b>	<b>Father</b>	<b>Mother</b>	<b>S.No.</b>	<b>Father</b>	<b>Mother</b>
1	105	111	33	104	103
2	113	106	34	111	110
3	103	116	35	109	104
4	101	106	36	103	110
5	107	105	37	116	108
6	111	106	38	107	110
7	112	106	39	104	102
8	110	104	40	106	105
9	111	110	41	103	111
10	110	107	42	111	105
11	112	109	43	107	104
12	105	112	44	110	111
13	110	107	45	114	102
14	110	117	46	112	106
15	103	103	47	107	102
16	106	104	48	111	110
17	103	106	49	107	110
18	115	104	50	113	116
19	104	104	51	113	117
20	109	101	52	108	111
21	102	112	53	110	110
22	107	108	54	112	111
23	106	112	55	110	108
24	115	102	56	112	118
25	113	115	57	110	111
26	105	112	58	110	107
27	116	115	59	111	110
28	115	107	60	105	103
29	113	114	61	110	115



<b>S.No.</b>	<b>Father</b>	<b>Mother</b>	<b>S.No.</b>	<b>Father</b>	<b>Mother</b>
30	111	112	62	110	103
31	105	103	63	112	112
32	118	104	64	105	108
65	108	110	98	109	111
66	107	107	99	112	105
67	104	105	100	112	113
68	102	113	101	103	104
69	113	110	102	112	110
70	104	113	103	104	113
71	104	104	104	103	108
72	107	106	105	117	104
73	107	115	106	103	104
74	110	113	107	104	103
75	114	118	108	114	106
76	111	111	109	113	104
77	104	103	110	103	105
78	106	115	111	103	108
79	110	110	112	117	115
80	110	110	113	115	103
81	105	112	114	114	116
82	108	104	115	102	103
83	101	101	116	104	104
84	114	108	117	103	111
85	110	110	118	104	106
86	107	117	119	113	114
87	114	114	120	115	103
88	102	106	121	102	113
89	104	107	122	113	113
90	115	107	123	103	106
91	108	116	124	115	110
92	102	102	125	114	112
93	106	112	126	103	114

<b>S.No.</b>	<b>Father</b>	<b>Mother</b>	<b>S.No.</b>	<b>Father</b>	<b>Mother</b>
<b>94</b>	<b>103</b>	<b>115</b>	<b>127</b>	<b>112</b>	<b>111</b>
<b>95</b>	<b>104</b>	<b>110</b>	<b>128</b>	<b>103</b>	<b>110</b>
<b>96</b>	<b>113</b>	<b>105</b>	<b>129</b>	<b>104</b>	<b>107</b>
<b>97</b>	<b>114</b>	<b>108</b>	<b>130</b>	<b>102</b>	<b>110</b>

**Table # 2: Attitude Towards Adolescent Girl Child Score Of Fathers And Mothers Belonging To Father Working-Mothers Housewife Parental Group**

<b>S.No.</b>	<b>Father</b>	<b>Mother</b>	<b>S.No.</b>	<b>Father</b>	<b>Mother</b>
1	110	115	32	108	102
2	113	112	33	108	101
3	102	104	34	111	106
4	104	114	35	104	102
5	103	110	36	106	101
6	105	116	37	105	103
7	106	108	38	105	106
8	113	117	39	106	114
9	104	103	40	107	106
10	110	107	41	103	101
11	103	104	42	116	106
12	110	110	43	104	105
13	116	110	44	112	108
14	114	117	45	102	113
15	113	112	46	102	111
16	111	101	47	111	101
17	106	102	48	104	113
18	111	109	49	108	102
19	112	104	50	116	101
20	109	110	51	115	102
21	103	103	52	104	106
22	107	104	53	110	104
23	115	106	54	105	108
24	103	109	55	107	110
25	105	112	56	114	111
26	106	113	57	113	106
27	107	102	58	105	105
28	109	113	59	107	101
29	114	103	60	103	110

<b>S.No.</b>	<b>Father</b>	<b>Mother</b>	<b>S.No.</b>	<b>Father</b>	<b>Mother</b>
<b>30</b>	<b>109</b>	<b>108</b>	<b>61</b>	<b>109</b>	<b>107</b>
<b>31</b>	<b>103</b>	<b>108</b>	<b>62</b>	<b>105</b>	<b>116</b>
<b>63</b>	<b>115</b>	<b>106</b>	<b>97</b>	<b>104</b>	<b>114</b>
<b>64</b>	<b>106</b>	<b>102</b>	<b>98</b>	<b>105</b>	<b>101</b>
<b>65</b>	<b>111</b>	<b>110</b>	<b>99</b>	<b>112</b>	<b>105</b>
<b>66</b>	<b>113</b>	<b>113</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>111</b>	<b>106</b>
<b>67</b>	<b>109</b>	<b>115</b>	<b>101</b>	<b>112</b>	<b>102</b>
<b>68</b>	<b>110</b>	<b>108</b>	<b>102</b>	<b>106</b>	<b>101</b>
<b>69</b>	<b>103</b>	<b>113</b>	<b>103</b>	<b>104</b>	<b>103</b>
<b>70</b>	<b>109</b>	<b>107</b>	<b>104</b>	<b>102</b>	<b>111</b>
<b>71</b>	<b>105</b>	<b>114</b>	<b>105</b>	<b>110</b>	<b>115</b>
<b>72</b>	<b>107</b>	<b>115</b>	<b>106</b>	<b>106</b>	<b>105</b>
<b>73</b>	<b>108</b>	<b>112</b>	<b>107</b>	<b>104</b>	<b>104</b>
<b>74</b>	<b>110</b>	<b>104</b>	<b>108</b>	<b>106</b>	<b>112</b>
<b>75</b>	<b>110</b>	<b>103</b>	<b>109</b>	<b>113</b>	<b>110</b>
<b>76</b>	<b>107</b>	<b>105</b>	<b>110</b>	<b>112</b>	<b>105</b>
<b>77</b>	<b>105</b>	<b>103</b>	<b>111</b>	<b>112</b>	<b>110</b>
<b>78</b>	<b>105</b>	<b>101</b>	<b>112</b>	<b>104</b>	<b>106</b>
<b>79</b>	<b>106</b>	<b>112</b>	<b>113</b>	<b>113</b>	<b>103</b>
<b>80</b>	<b>111</b>	<b>110</b>	<b>114</b>	<b>111</b>	<b>105</b>
<b>81</b>	<b>110</b>	<b>110</b>	<b>115</b>	<b>105</b>	<b>103</b>
<b>82</b>	<b>115</b>	<b>107</b>	<b>116</b>	<b>104</b>	<b>105</b>
<b>83</b>	<b>110</b>	<b>113</b>	<b>117</b>	<b>102</b>	<b>103</b>
<b>84</b>	<b>106</b>	<b>112</b>	<b>118</b>	<b>104</b>	<b>115</b>
<b>85</b>	<b>102</b>	<b>110</b>	<b>119</b>	<b>102</b>	<b>111</b>
<b>86</b>	<b>107</b>	<b>108</b>	<b>120</b>	<b>102</b>	<b>101</b>
<b>87</b>	<b>112</b>	<b>110</b>	<b>121</b>	<b>104</b>	<b>104</b>
<b>88</b>	<b>106</b>	<b>114</b>	<b>122</b>	<b>110</b>	<b>103</b>
<b>89</b>	<b>110</b>	<b>112</b>	<b>123</b>	<b>104</b>	<b>102</b>
<b>90</b>	<b>102</b>	<b>113</b>	<b>124</b>	<b>115</b>	<b>101</b>
<b>91</b>	<b>105</b>	<b>101</b>	<b>125</b>	<b>103</b>	<b>104</b>
<b>92</b>	<b>113</b>	<b>115</b>	<b>126</b>	<b>102</b>	<b>115</b>

<b>S.No.</b>	<b>Father</b>	<b>Mother</b>	<b>S.No.</b>	<b>Father</b>	<b>Mother</b>
<b>93</b>	<b>112</b>	<b>110</b>	<b>127</b>	<b>105</b>	<b>103</b>
<b>94</b>	<b>105</b>	<b>110</b>	<b>128</b>	<b>112</b>	<b>103</b>
<b>95</b>	<b>109</b>	<b>109</b>	<b>129</b>	<b>103</b>	<b>102</b>
<b>96</b>	<b>103</b>	<b>103</b>	<b>130</b>	<b>105</b>	<b>101</b>

**Table # 3: Adjustment Scores Of Adolescent Girl Children Belonging To Both Positive Attitude – Both Working Parental Group**

S.No.	Adjustment Scores			
	Composite	Emotional	Social	Educational
1	10	2	4	4
2	9	2	3	4
3	9	2	4	3
4	11	3	5	3
5	12	4	4	4
6	12	4	2	6
7	10	3	2	5
8	12	1	5	6
9	12	3	4	5
10	10	2	3	5
11	10	2	4	4
12	11	4	2	5
13	12	2	6	4
14	12	3	4	5
15	9	2	4	3
16	11	4	2	5
17	12	3	4	5
18	12	3	6	3
19	9	1	4	4
20	9	4	3	2
21	9	2	5	2
22	8	2	4	2
23	11	4	5	2
24	11	2	5	4
25	10	3	2	5
26	12	2	4	6
27	9	3	3	3
28	10	4	3	3
29	13	2	6	5
30	9	1	6	2



**Table # 4: Adjustment Scores Of Adolescent Girl Children Belonging To Both Positive – Father Working-Mother Housewife Parental Group**

S. No.	Adjustment Scores			
	Composite	Emotional	Social	Educational
1	13	2	7	4
2	13	4	4	5
3	13	2	8	3
4	14	5	5	4
5	13	4	4	5
6	15	4	5	6
7	12	2	5	5
8	17	4	7	6
9	12	2	5	5
10	16	4	7	5
11	12	2	4	6
12	14	3	7	4
13	13	2	5	6
14	14	5	7	2
15	13	3	5	5
16	16	2	8	6
17	14	4	7	3
18	12	2	5	5
19	14	2	6	6
20	15	4	6	5
21	12	2	5	5
22	13	3	7	3
23	13	3	5	5
24	13	2	8	3
25	12	2	5	5
26	13	3	4	6
27	15	3	7	5
28	10	3	4	3
29	13	2	6	5
30	14	4	5	5



**Table # 5: Adjustment Scores Of Adolescent Girl Children Belonging To Father Positive-Mother Negative Attitude – Both Working Parental Group**

S.No.	Adjustment Scores			
	Composite	Emotional	Social	Educational
1	17	4	8	5
2	13	3	6	4
3	13	3	6	4
4	13	4	4	5
5	14	2	8	4
6	18	5	7	6
7	17	4	8	5
8	15	4	6	5
9	13	2	4	7
10	17	3	8	6
11	17	3	8	6
12	13	2	4	7
13	17	4	7	6
14	18	5	6	7
15	18	5	5	8
16	13	2	7	4
17	14	2	5	7
18	18	3	8	7
19	13	3	6	4
20	17	2	7	8
21	14	2	5	7
22	17	4	7	6
23	15	2	6	7
24	13	2	4	7
25	14	4	6	4
26	19	3	8	8
27	19	4	7	8
28	13	3	6	4

<b>29</b>	<b>14</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>8</b>
<b>30</b>	<b>13</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>4</b>

**Table # 6: Adjustment Scores Of Adolescent Girl Children Belonging To Father Positive- Mother Negative – Father Working-Mother Housewife Parental Group**

S.No.	Adjustment Scores			
	Composite	Emotional	Social	Educational
1	15	4	6	5
2	14	3	7	4
3	14	2	4	8
4	13	5	5	3
5	12	2	4	6
6	14	2	8	4
7	17	4	8	5
8	12	2	4	6
9	14	5	5	4
10	15	2	7	6
11	18	4	9	5
12	12	2	6	4
13	18	4	9	5
14	12	5	5	2
15	14	2	5	7
16	15	2	8	5
17	17	4	7	6
18	16	3	5	8
19	12	3	5	4
20	15	2	7	6
21	17	3	7	7
22	12	3	6	3
23	14	3	7	4
24	17	5	9	3
25	16	4	6	6
26	14	3	6	5
27	16	3	6	7
28	14	3	6	5
29	13	2	7	4

30	15	2	9	4
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**Table # 7: Adjustment Scores Of Adolescent Girl Children Belonging To Father Negative-Mother Positive Attitude – Both Working Parental Group**

S.No.	Adjustment Scores			
	Composite	Emotional	Social	Educational
1	17	5	7	5
2	14	3	6	5
3	16	3	6	7
4	18	5	8	5
5	15	4	7	4
6	17	4	8	5
7	12	3	6	3
8	15	4	5	6
9	19	4	9	6
10	17	3	7	7
11	19	6	7	6
12	16	3	8	5
13	20	6	8	6
14	19	5	9	5
15	17	3	8	6
16	17	5	7	5
17	12	5	4	3
18	20	5	9	6
19	16	6	4	6
20	15	3	7	5
21	17	5	8	4
22	20	5	9	6
23	14	2	6	6
24	15	3	9	3
25	19	4	7	8
26	15	3	9	3
27	16	2	7	7

<b>28</b>	<b>18</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>5</b>
<b>29</b>	<b>18</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>6</b>
<b>30</b>	<b>18</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>9</b>	<b>5</b>

**Table # 8: Adjustment Scores Of Adolescent Girl Children Belonging To Father Negative-Mother Positive – Father Working-Mother Housewife Parental Group**

S.No.	Adjustment Scores			
	Composite	Emotional	Social	Educational
1	15	6	4	5
2	15	4	5	6
3	11	5	3	3
4	18	6	6	6
5	13	4	5	4
6	19	4	9	6
7	12	3	4	5
8	17	4	7	6
9	11	3	5	3
10	16	6	6	4
11	14	3	6	5
12	14	3	5	6
13	13	4	4	5
14	13	2	5	6
15	13	4	4	5
16	17	4	7	6
17	11	3	5	3
18	15	5	6	4
19	16	4	6	6
20	15	3	6	6
21	10	2	5	3
22	13	3	6	4
23	17	3	8	6
24	16	4	7	5
25	16	3	7	6
26	15	2	8	5
27	15	5	6	4
28	16	4	7	5
29	13	4	7	2

30	16	5	5	6
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**Table # 9: Adjustment Scores Of Adolescent Girl Children Belonging To Both Negative – Both Working Parental Group**

S.No.	Adjustment Scores			
	Composite	Emotional	Social	Educational
1	20	6	6	8
2	20	6	7	7
3	23	5	9	9
4	22	8	6	8
5	19	6	7	6
6	23	7	7	9
7	23	4	10	9
8	19	5	7	7
9	24	8	8	8
10	18	6	7	5
11	19	6	6	7
12	23	7	9	7
13	21	6	10	5
14	21	7	6	8
15	25	6	10	9
16	23	8	9	6
17	24	9	10	5
18	19	6	9	4
19	24	8	10	6
20	24	9	7	8
21	24	8	10	6
22	22	7	10	5
23	20	6	9	5
24	19	7	6	6
25	25	8	10	7
26	20	6	6	8
27	19	7	7	5

<b>28</b>	<b>21</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>9</b>	<b>6</b>
<b>29</b>	<b>22</b>	<b>8</b>	<b>9</b>	<b>5</b>
<b>30</b>	<b>24</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>10</b>	<b>8</b>



**Table # 10: Adjustment Scores Of Adolescent Girl Children Belonging To Both Negative – Father Working-Mother Housewife Parental Group**

S.No.	Adjustment Scores			
	Composite	Emotional	Social	Educational
1	20	7	7	6
2	17	3	6	8
3	19	7	6	6
4	18	3	8	7
5	18	4	6	8
6	16	3	9	4
7	18	3	7	8
8	16	4	5	7
9	18	3	9	6
10	21	7	7	7
11	19	6	7	6
12	20	7	9	4
13	20	6	8	6
14	20	7	9	4
15	18	3	8	7
16	17	7	6	4
17	17	5	4	8
18	18	3	9	6
19	16	3	5	8
20	20	6	6	8
21	19	5	9	5
22	19	4	9	6
23	18	4	8	6
24	18	3	9	6
25	20	4	8	8
26	18	3	9	6
27	20	5	8	7
28	20	6	7	7
29	18	5	7	6
30	20	6	9	5

