

Impact of Women's Education Level and Employment Status on Parent-Child Relationship – A Case Study of Ludhiana city

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ABSTRACT The present study was undertaken exclusively at Ludhiana city to assess and compare parent-child relationship among families with employed and non-employed women across different educational levels. The sample comprised of 300 (N=300) Sikh families distributed equally according to the working status of woman in the family that is families with employed women ($n_1=150$) and families with non-employed women ($n_2=150$). The families with employed and non-employed women were selected by drawing equal numbers of families ($n_{11}, n_{21} = 50$) from each of the three levels of education (with reference to woman in the family) viz., post graduation and above (Level I), upto graduation (Level II) and matric and below excluding illiterate (Level III). A socio-demographic questionnaire was used to identify families for the sample under study. Parent-child relationship in the selected families was evaluated using Parent-Child Relationship Scale (Rao, 1989). Arithmetic mean, standard deviation and t-test were used to analyse the data. From the analysis it was found that fathers' and mothers' protective, rejecting and loving nature and use of symbolic reward was uninfluenced by mothers' educational level and employment status. So was mothers' indifferent attitude, but, fathers possessed highly indifferent attitude when mothers were non-employed and educated upto Level III. Demanding attitude, symbolic punishment and object reward was observed to be high and object punishment significantly low among fathers and mothers in families where mothers were educated upto Level I or Level II. Fathers were highly neglecting when mothers were educated only upto Level III. It was also noticed that fathers and mothers were more demanding and used more object reward and children were neglected most when mothers used to work outside.

INTRODUCTION

Family as a primary institution has survived through ages but has changed drastically over the years in its structure, functions and characteristics, especially in India. This change in Indian family set-up can be attributed to economic factors (industrialization, urbanization, mobility) or cultural factors (growth of democratic ideals, decline of religious orthodoxy etc).

Advent of industrialization completely changed the Indian family's economic structure. It brought about technological advancement that introduced various luxuries for human life and thus, opened an outlet for improved standard of living for the Indian families. Majority of the Indian families before industrialization were low or low middle-class single-earner (male) joint families in which the earning hands were less and the mouths to feed were comparatively more. So, in order to overcome the financial constraints to acquisition of improved standard of living

brought by industrialization and its adverse effects on the family environment, women of the Indian families joined hands with men in the labour market and started contributing to the family income. Since then, the percentage of women employed outside the home (The Census of India, 1991) is continually on the increase (Table 1). It is clearly evident from Table 1 that the total work participation rate of women in India raised from 14.22% in 1971 to 22.73% in 1991 and this upward trend is still continuing.

Industrialization brought changes in the social structure of the Indian family too. With industrialization and urbanization, numerous

Table 1: Work participation rate in India (The Census of India, 1991)

Year	Total Rural / Urban	Persons	Males	Females
1971	Total	34.17	52.75	14.22
	Rural	35.33	53.78	15.92
	Urban	29.61	48.88	7.18
1981	Total	36.70	52.62	19.67
	Rural	38.79	53.77	23.06
	Urban	29.99	49.06	8.31
1991	Total	37.68	51.56	22.73
	Rural	40.24	52.50	27.20
	Urban	30.44	48.95	9.74

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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 (Table 2). From the Table, 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 education and pursuing scientific and technical professions which were earlier considered to be the domains of men.

Table 2: Literacy rate in India (The Census of India, 2001)

<i>Year</i>	<i>Persons</i>	<i>Males</i>	<i>Females</i>
1951	18.33	27.16	8.86
1961	28.31	40.40	15.34
1971	34.45	45.95	21.97
1981	43.67	56.50	29.85
1991	52.21	64.12	39.25
2001	65.38	75.85	54.16

Education facilitates an increase in knowledge and widens the mental horizon of a person. That is, it brings about changes in the attitudes and values of a person about every realm of life and develops the desire to improve through introspection. So, the educated women are not satisfied with their role of a mere housewife. They have realized the importance of their existence and want to utilize their intellectual abilities and to do something which gives them satisfaction and secures for their identity in the family and the society as well. This can be accomplished only by becoming economically independent, that is, by contributing to the family income. So, more and more educated women per year are moving towards getting economically independent. The percentage of educated women job seekers among the total educated job seekers witnessed an increase from 72.6% in 1993 to 74.6% in 2002 (Directorate General of Employment and Training, Ministry of Labour, Govt. of India, 2002).

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's 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 and 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 and 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

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 and Staines, 1985).

The research papers reviewed on the topic reflected that researchers were mostly concerned with how women's employment influences the development of children and the interaction duration between parents and children but no study could be found that focused on how mothers' education and employment determines the various dimensions of parent-child relationship that is of their own and their husbands'. So, the present study was undertaken by Singh (2005) in Ludhiana city of Punjab with the objective to assess and compare parent-child relationship among families with employed and non-employed women across different educational levels hypothesizing that there will be no significant differences in the parent-child relationship among families with employed and non-employed women across different educational levels.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Locale of the Study

The families purposively selected to study parent-child relationship among families with employed and non-employed women across different educational levels were drawn exclusively from Ludhiana city. In order to arrive at the specific kind of families required for the research study, firstly the list of all the institutes of higher/technical education located in Ludhiana city was prepared. Then from that list, so as to get an ideal sample, only those colleges/ institutes were drawn that had 7-8 hours of work schedule. Further, from this list those colleges/institutes were dropped where majority of the employees used to work even after the regular 7-8 hours of job at the institute like medical colleges. Finally, from this prepared list about fifty percent of the colleges/ institutes were randomly picked up for the drawl of the specific kind of families required

for the present study. The colleges/institutes, thus, finally selected were Government College for Women, Polytechnic College for Women, College of Agriculture, Punjab Agricultural University, College of Veterinary Sciences, Punjab Agricultural University and College of Basic Sciences, Punjab Agricultural University. These five colleges basically formed the link from which the specific kinds of families required for the research study were located.

Selection of Sample

A list of all the staff members from each selected college was prepared. From this list, firstly, the female staff members were drawn and distributed self-designed socio-demographic questionnaire to be filled by them in their office itself. It was meant to identify those female employees whose families met the essential criteria for inclusion in the sample under study. The criteria for selecting families were:

1. The selected family should belong to Sikh religion.
2. The selected family should be essentially nuclear.
3. The selected family must have one of its children in the age group of 12-18 years and he/she must be residing with the family.
4. All the members of the selected family should be apparently healthy-physically and mentally.

Those employed women's families which fulfilled the above mentioned essential criteria for inclusion in the sample were firstly enlisted and then sorted under three groups of families made with reference to the education level of the "woman" in the family viz., post graduation and above (Level I), upto graduation (Level II), and matric & below excluding illiterate (Level III). From each of the above mentioned three groups of families, 50 families were randomly selected and were named as GROUP 1, GROUP 2 and GROUP 3 respectively. These three equal sized groups of families altogether were labeled as CATEGORY A (n=150) which represented families with employed women.

After this, all the male staff members of the selected colleges were drawn and handed over self-designed socio-demographic questionnaire to be filled by them in their office itself. With its help those employed men's families which met the essential criteria for inclusion but had

essentially non-employed women (referring to wives of male staff members) were drawn, and enlisted and finally divided into three groups of families on the basis of three identified levels of women's education (Level I, Level II and Level III) as in CATEGORY A. From each of these three groups of families fifty families were randomly selected and labeled as GROUP 4, GROUP 5 and GROUP 6 respectively. These three equal sized group of families altogether formed CATEGORY B ($n=150$) which represented families with non-employed women. A clear description of division of sampled families for the present study is presented in Figure 1.

The target respondents in each selected family were husband, wife and the eldest child among children between 12-18 years of age. Thus, the present study was based upon a total sample size of 900 respondents (300 husbands, 300 wives and 300 children between 12-18 years of age).

Research Instruments

The following tools were employed for conducting the present research study:

i) Socio-demographic Questionnaire: The self-designed socio-demographic questionnaire was used to identify the families for the six groups of families under study. It consisted of questions pertaining to the socio-personal characteristics of the families like religion of the family, family type, place of residence, physical and mental health status of family members, etc.

ii) Parent-child Relationship Scale (Rao, 1989): The present scale is a standardized scale that measures the characteristic behaviour of the parents as experienced by their children, that is, it measures the paternal and maternal relationship with children. The scale contains 100 items categorized into the following ten dimensions:

- Protecting (Pro.):** The defending attitude overtly expressed in the acts of guarding, sheltering and shielding the child from situations or experiences perceived to be hostile, oppressing and harmful.
- Symbolic Punishment (SP):** It is the symbolic means by which parents show their temporary annoyance with the child.
- Rejecting (Rej.):** Behaviour evident in renouncing the child in aversion. The disposition is indicated in being disdainful and in outright refusal of the child.
- Object Punishment (OP):** It is the physical means by which parents show their temporary annoyance with the child.
- Demanding (Dem.):** Expression of authority and claim with imperious command over the child, executed in the exercise of over all control.
- Indifferent (Ind.):** The expression of unconcerned apathetic, passive behaviour and functioning without either importance or interest in the child.
- Symbolic Reward (SR):** Symbolic expression of appreciation for emotional and psychological security of the child.
- Loving (Lov.):** Expression of fondness,

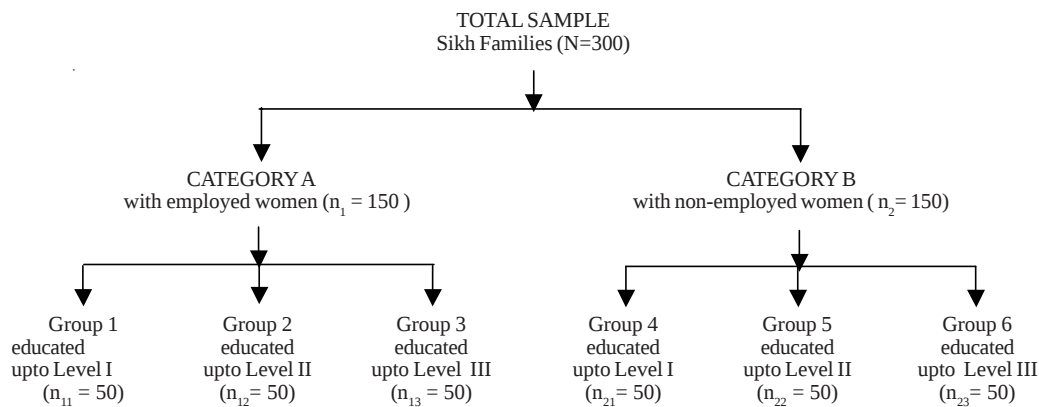


Fig. 1. Flow chart showing division of sampled families.

devoted attachment and amiableness shown to the child.

- i) *Object Reward (OR)*: Physical, tangible and concrete expression of warmth. Both SR and OR indicate parents' acceptance of the child which is a precursor for the child to achieve, aspire and advance.
- j) *Neglecting (Neg.)*: A careless slighting treatment indicated in accustomed omission and deliberate disregard towards the child which might leave the child to devalue himself.

Each dimension discussed above consists of ten items. Items of the scale are arranged in the same order as the dimensions and they rotate in a cycle through the scale. Each respondent score the tool for both "Father" and "Mother" separately. It is a five point rating scale ranging from: If you see it "ALWAYS" mark 5, if you see it "MANY TIMES" mark 4, if you see it "SOMETIMES" mark 3, if you see it "RARELY" mark 2 and if you see it "VERY RARELY" mark 1. The scale is scored separately for each of the parent. Each subscale yields a score found by summing the scores of the ratings on each item of the subscale. Thus, every respondent obtains ten scores for "Father form" and ten scores for "Mother form" on the ten dimensions of the scale.

Pre-testing of Research Instrument: The available standardized Parent-child Relationship Scale was in English. Since, study was to be conducted in Ludhiana (Punjab) where Punjabi is the first language it was translated in Punjabi to help respondents have the option to answer it comfortably in any of the two languages they prefer. In order to find the reliability of the tool in Punjabi language test-retest method was used. Ten non-sampled families were administered the English version of the tools and two weeks later they were again asked to answer the same tool in Punjabi version. Their responses on both the versions were compared and its reliability was calculated as 0.93.

Data Collection

The investigator approached the sampled families at their homes and before distributing the tools to the respondents the purpose of the study was made clear to them and they were asked whether they wanted the English or Punjabi version of the tools to answer. Then

respondents were provided with the instructions regarding how to answer each tool and were requested to give honest responses assuring that their identity would be kept confidential and information provided by them would be used exclusively for the purpose of research work. The tools were answered by all the respondents of the selected families independently in the presence of the investigator.

Statistical Analysis: The collected data were classified and tabulated in accordance with the objectives to arrive at the meaningful and relevant inferences by using arithmetic mean, standard deviation and t-test.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The objective of the present study was to assess and compare parent-child relationship among families with employed and non-employed women across different educational levels. For the study it was hypothesized that there will be no significant differences in the parent-child relationship among families with employed and non-employed women across different educational levels. The existing level of each dimension of parent-child relationship among families with employed and non-employed women across different educational levels is presented in terms of mean scores and standard deviation and these parameters are tested for their difference across groups of families by applying student's t-test.

Children's Perception of Parent (Father)-Child Relationship: Comparison Among Families with Employed and Non-Employed Mothers Across Different Educational Levels:

The quality of father-child relationship among families with employed and non-employed mothers across different educational levels is presented in Table 3. From the Table, it is clear that non-significant relation exists between fathers' protecting, symbolic reward, rejecting and loving attitude towards their children and the mothers' employment status and education level. It may be attributed to the fact that all these dimensions are the foundation stones of parent-child relationship. Parents may differ in their child-rearing attitudes or on their children upbringing approaches but not on the basic characteristics of parent-child relationship.

Father-child relationship across mothers' employment status brings to the notice that

employment status of mothers significantly influenced fathers' demanding, object reward, indifferent and neglecting attitude towards their children but only when mothers had education equivalent to Level I and Level II. In the families where mothers were employed and educated upto Level I or Level II, fathers were significantly more demanding (t-value A vs A': 2.848 and t-value B vs B': 2.789 respectively) and used object reward (t-value A vs A': 3.012 and t-value B vs B': 2.628 respectively) more than the fathers in families where mothers were non-employed with the corresponding level of education. Whereas, in the families where mothers were educated only upto Level III, their employment status didn't influence fathers' demanding nature and use of object reward. The reason behind it may be that at this level of mothers' education fathers consider child-rearing to be primarily mothers' task.

On the contrary, fathers in the families where mothers were employed and educated upto Level I or Level II had significantly less indifferent (t-value A vs A': 3.031 and t-value B vs B': 3.127 respectively) and neglecting attitude (t-value A vs A': 2.089 and t-value B vs B': 2.756) towards their children than the fathers in families having non-employed mothers from corresponding levels of education. This finding is in accordance with that of Crouter et al. (1999) who reported that fathers were more knowledgeable about children's daily lives in middle childhood when their wives worked long hours a day. It may be due to the reason that fathers with employed wives don't have the liberty to think that there is a mother at home who is always available for childcare as in case of fathers with non-employed wives. However, in families where mothers were educated upto Level III, fathers did not differ on these two dimensions of parent-child relationship with the mothers' employment status.

A close review of the table clearly shows that education level of mothers is much more important determinant of the father-child relationship than is their employment status. Though there did not exist significant difference on any dimension of the parent-child relationship between fathers in the families where mothers were educated upto Level I or Level II irrespective of their employment status, but, interesting results were obtained when these were compared with fathers in the families where mothers were educated upto Level III. Fathers in

the families where mothers were educated upto Level I or Level II were significantly high on symbolic punishment (t-value A vs C: 3.615, t-value B vs C: 2.405, t-value A' vs C': 3.334, t-value B' vs C': 2.898) and object reward (t-value A vs C: 2.773, t-value B vs C: 2.190, t-value A' vs C': 2.785, t-value B' vs C': 2.055) and were significantly more demanding (t-value A vs C: 6.314, t-value B vs C: 4.843, t-value A' vs C': 3.753, t-value B' vs C': 2.569) than fathers in families where mothers were educated upto Level III irrespective of mothers' employment status. This finding gets support from that of Chanchalor and Sansanwal (1998) who reported that higher level of parental education was associated with love type raising of children. Purang and Sharma (2000) indicated that highly educated parents are highly demanding and encourage their children to aspire for more challenging goals in life.

It was also noticed that irrespective of mother's employment status, fathers in the families where mothers were educated upto Level I or Level II were significantly low on the negative dimensions of parenting like object punishment (t-value A vs C: 3.029, t-value B vs C: 2.221, t-value A' vs C': 4.554, t-value B' vs C': 4.917), indifferent (t-value A vs C: 4.675, t-value B vs C: 4.126, t-value A' vs C': 2.492, t-value B' vs C': 2.215) and neglecting attitude (t-value A vs C: 3.056, t-value B vs C: 2.652, t-value A' vs C': 2.393, t-value B' vs C': 1.998) in comparison to the fathers in families where mothers were educated upto Level III. This observation is in line with that of Kang (2004) who reported that mean scores on the negative parenting dimension tended to be higher at lower levels of parental education as compared to higher levels of parental education.

Children's Perception of Parent (Mother)-Child Relationship: Comparison Among Families with Employed and Non-Employed Mothers Across Different Educational Levels:

The data presented in Table 4 clearly indicates that mother-child relationship is influenced by mothers' employment status and education level in almost the same manner as is the father-child relationship except for the few cases.

Mothers like fathers, were found to vary insignificantly on the protecting, rejecting, symbolic reward and loving dimension of parent-child relationship across their employment status

and educational levels. However, on the indifferent dimension of parent-child relationship, mothers and fathers showed entirely different trend. While fathers varied significantly on their indifferent attitude towards children with mothers' employment status and education level it had no significant effect on mothers' indifferent attitude.

When analysed across the employment status of mothers it was found that out of ten only three dimensions of parent-child relationship namely demanding, object reward and neglecting were determined by it. On all the three dimensions that is demanding (t-value A vs A': 2.233, t-value B vs B': 2.149 and t-value C vs C': 1.995), object reward (t-value A vs A': 2.000, t-value B vs B': 2.212 and t-value C vs C': 2.039) and neglecting (t-value A vs A': 2.155, t-value B vs B': 2.486 and t-value C vs C': 2.389), employed mothers were observed to be significantly higher than their corresponding counterparts at all the three identified levels of mothers' education. These results are in agreement with that of Manimeklai (2002) and Muller (1995). Manimeklai (2002) observed that working mothers had greater role in decision making than non-working mothers as far as education and marriage of their children was concerned thereby indirectly indicating that working mothers are more demanding than non-working mothers. In another study, Muller (1995) reported that mothers imposed less structure or regulation on the child's out of school activities when they were employed full-time. She stated that these children spent more time in unsupervised activities after school and were less restricted in the amount of time they watched television. It was thus concluded that children are neglected in homes where mothers are employed.

According to Wilson et al. (1995) there is a direct relationship between mother's educational level and her child-rearing behaviour. They proposed that maternal education contributes uniquely to the factors of child-centered parenting and letting a situation go and a similar relationship was observed in the present study too. When mothers with Level I and Level II education were compared, no significant difference on any dimension of parent-child relationship was observed within both employed and non-employed mothers' category. However, comparison of mothers having Level I or Level II education with the mothers having Level III

education in both the categories supported Wilson et al. (1995) study. Mothers employed and educated upto Level I or Level II were significantly higher user of symbolic punishment (t-value A vs C: 2.638 and t-value B vs C: 2.045) and object reward (t-value A vs C: 2.906 and t-value B vs C: 2.337) and were more demanding (t-value A vs C: 3.555 and t-value B vs C: 2.638) than mothers employed but educated upto Level III. The similar trend was observed on these dimensions among non-employed mothers too. Whereas, on the object punishment dimension, a reverse relation was found. Both employed and non-employed mothers with Level III education were significantly high in comparison to mothers educated upto Level I or Level II.

After close perusal of the findings of the study it can be stated that the hypothesis formulated under it, that is, there will be no significant differences in the parent-child relationship among families with employed and non-employed women across different educational levels stands rejected.

CONCLUSION

Parent-child relationship is significantly determined by the education level and employment status of woman in the family. Education on the part of women brings about positive changes in their own and their husbands' parenting style. Highly educated women and their husbands believe in symbolic punishment, object reward and are more demanding and discourage negative parenting practices like object punishment. They consider child rearing to be a joint responsibility so indifferent attitude and neglect by fathers in such homes is comparatively less. Employment of women makes them and their husbands more demanding and more follower of object reward with their children. It also makes fathers have less indifferent attitude towards their children but only when mothers are highly educated too. The only problem associated with employment of women is the neglect children face due to it but it can be reduced significantly if the grandparents also live with the family. So, we must encourage joint family set up not only to deal with the problem associated with women's employment but also when the women of the families are not employed. They not only act as a bond between the two generations but also serve as guiding hands for

Table 4: Children's perception of parent (mother)-child relationship: Comparison among families with employed and non-employed mothers across different educational levels

Dimensions of parent-child relationship (mothers)	Mean scores and ($\pm$ SD)									t-values					
	CATEGORY A (Employed mothers)			CATEGORY B (Non-employed mothers)			CATEGORY A (Employed mothers)			CATEGORY B (Non-employed mothers)			Across educational levels of mothers (within two categories of family)		
	Level I (A)	Level II (B)	Level III (C)	Level I (A)	Level II (B)	Level III (C)	A vs B	B vs C	A vs C	A' vs B'	B' vs C'	A' vs C'	Level I A vs A'	Level II B vs B'	Level III C vs C'
Protecting	45.20 (± 0.670)	45.06 (± 0.424)	45.10 (± 0.364)	45.06 (± 0.470)	45.18 (± 0.388)	45.14 (± 0.606)	1.248	0.506	0.927	1.392	0.393	0.737	1.209	1.476	0.399
Symbolic	40.52 (± 0.580)	40.44 (± 0.501)	40.24 (± 0.476)	40.48 (± 0.505)	40.42 (± 0.498)	40.20 (± 0.404)	0.738	2.045*	2.638*	0.598	2.424*	3.062**	0.368	0.200	0.453
Punishment	10.44 (± 0.704)	10.56 (± 0.733)	10.50 (± 0.505)	10.38 (± 0.602)	10.48 (± 0.505)	10.52 (± 0.505)	0.852	0.477	0.489	0.899	0.396	1.260	0.458	0.636	0.198
Rejecting	25.14 (± 0.404)	25.10 (± 0.303)	25.38 (± 0.725)	25.12 (± 0.328)	25.06 (± 0.240)	25.44 (± 0.675)	0.559	2.519*	2.043*	1.043	3.751**	3.015**	0.272	0.732	0.428
Object	35.60 (± 0.495)	35.52 (± 0.544)	35.24 (± 0.517)	35.38 (± 0.490)	35.30 (± 0.614)	35.06 (± 0.373)	0.769	2.638*	3.555**	0.938	2.275*	3.673**	2.233*	2.149*	1.995*
Punishment	10.06 (± 0.314)	10.10 (± 0.303)	10.18 (± 0.388)	10.12 (± 0.385)	10.16 (± 0.468)	10.22 (± 0.582)	0.648	1.149	1.700	0.467	0.568	0.811	0.854	0.761	0.404
Indifferent	47.04 (± 0.698)	47.10 (± 0.580)	47.16 (± 0.912)	47.20 (± 0.833)	47.14 (± 0.904)	47.18 (± 0.873)	0.467	0.393	0.739	0.345	0.225	0.117	1.041	0.263	0.112
Symbolic	47.26 (± 0.443)	47.36 (± 0.485)	47.32 (± 0.471)	47.28 (± 0.453)	47.30 (± 0.505)	47.24 (± 0.625)	1.076	0.418	0.656	0.208	0.528	0.366	0.223	0.605	0.723
Reward	34.12 (± 0.746)	34.02 (± 0.685)	33.68 (± 0.768)	33.84 (± 0.650)	33.72 (± 0.671)	33.34 (± 0.895)	0.698	2.337*	2.906**	0.908	2.402*	3.197**	2.000*	2.212*	2.039*
Object Reward	10.46 (± 0.542)	10.50 (± 0.647)	10.40 (± 0.495)	10.24 (± 0.476)	10.22 (± 0.465)	10.16 (± 0.509)	0.335	0.868	0.578	0.212	0.615	0.811	2.155*	2.486*	2.389*
Neglecting															

Note: 1. * indicates 5% level of significance; ** indicates 1% level of significance

2. Educational levels of mothers:- Level I (A, A'); Up to Graduation; Level II (B, B'); Matric or below excluding illiterate

the family and, in turn, themselves get a family to relish their remaining life.

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