

Problems of Working Mothers in Socializing Children:

A Study on Rajshahi Metropolitan City



Ph. D Dissertation

By

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A Dissertation Submitted to the Department of Social Work, University of Rajshahi,
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By
Syeda Afreena Mamun

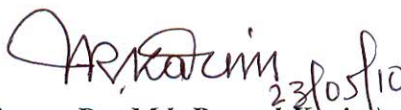
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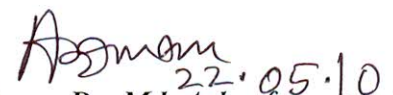
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Certificate of the Supervisors

We certify that the dissertation entitled “*Problems of Working Mothers in Socializing Children: A Study on Rajshahi Metropolitan City*” is an original work accomplished by Syeda Afreena Mamun, a Ph.D. Fellow in the Department of Social Work, University of Rajshahi, Bangladesh. The findings and views expressed in this dissertation are originated from empirical data and entirely her own contribution. She has prepared this dissertation under our supervision and guidance. As far as we know, the dissertation has not been submitted anywhere else for any purposes e.g. any degree or diploma or publication.

We also certify that we have gone through the draft dissertation thoroughly and found it satisfactory for submission. The dissertation is therefore recommended and forwarded to the University of Rajshahi for necessary formalities leading to its acceptance in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Social Work.


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Declaration by the Researcher

I hereby declare that the dissertation entitled “*Problems of Working Mothers in Socializing Children: A Study on Rajshahi Metropolitan City*” has been prepared by me. It is an original work done by me taking advices and suggestions from my honorable supervisors. I myself take all the responsibilities for all comments, statements and opinions articulated in the dissertation. The dissertation or any part of it has not been submitted partially or fully to any academic institution or university in pursuing any degree or diploma. My indebtedness to other works and publications has been duly acknowledged and cited at the relevant places of the dissertation.



23.05.10

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Abstract

Traditionally, responsibility of housekeeping and child rearing solely remain with the women in Bangladesh society. Nowadays, as increasing number of women are involving in earning activities outside home; this has become extremely difficult for them. This is mainly because of the fact that men in Bangladesh society hardly involve in responsibilities of housekeeping and child rearing. In fact, engagement in activities outside home is an additional new role for the Bangladeshi women as the responsibilities of housekeeping and child rearing still remain solely with them. Proper child rearing is extremely crucial as children are the future citizen of any country. Socialization is an important aspect of child development through which a child turns as a social being. The integrity of the society much depends on the proper socialization of children. Although there are agents of socialization family, exclusively mother, is the key among all. Hence, if mother fails to perform her duty, proper socialization may be hampered. This is not expected at all. As already mentioned women in Bangladesh society increasingly taking part in work outside home and men are hardly look after house and children how far the working women are able to play their role in the socialization process of children has become a prime issue. Particularly important is what are the problems faced by the working mothers in socializing their children. The present study focuses on this issue of problems working mother in socialization of their children. For the purpose, data were collected through face to face interview from the working mothers (both upper class and lower class) of a metropolitan city named Rajshahi of Bangladesh.

It is evident from the study findings that the working mothers have faced problems in their household activities like feeding, cooking, cleaning, bedding and shopping. It is also evident that the working mothers have greatly faced problems in socialization of their children. The problems are more prevalent among the upper class working mothers compared to lower class working mothers. In the absence of institutionalized socialization provisions, such as day care centers, upper class working mothers mostly depend on maid servant to look after their children while they are in work outside home. So the children of the upper class working mother become accustomed with the habits of maid servant. Especially the language skills, appreciation of the other's role, loyalty to the senior are being severely influenced by the maid servant in the absence of mother. Based on the findings it may be recommended that child care facilities like day care center, child home, nursery etc. should be established and leave of the working mothers such maternity leave, casual leave, children's rearing leave should be increased to ensure proper socialization of the working mothers to fulfill and minimize their needs.

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Acronyms

AAP	: American Academy of Pediatrics
AL	: Awami League
ADL	: Activities of Daily Living
ASEAN	: Association of South East Asian Nations
BCS	: Bangladesh Civil Service
BDT	: Bangladeshi Taka
BIDS	: Bangladesh Institute of Development Studies
BNP	: Bangladesh Nationalist Party
6yBPATC	: Bangladesh Public Administration Training Center
BRAC	: Bangladesh Rural Advancement Committee
CC	: Cabinet Committee
CIRDAP	: Center for Integrated Rural Development Asia Pacific
CLDU	: Central Library of Dhaka University
CWD	: Children and Women Development
DCC	: Day Care Center
DLF	: Domestic Labour Force
DSS	: Department of Social Services
ESCAP	: Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific
GOB	: Government of Bangladesh
HSC	: Higher Secondary Certificate
IBS	: Institute of Bangladesh Studies
ICDDRDB	: International Center for Diarrhoeal Diseases Research, Bangladesh
ILO	: International Labor Organization
ISWR	: Institute of Social Welfare and Research
LFS	: Labour Force Survey
MBBS	: Bachelor of Medicine and Bachelor of Surgery
MSE	: Microsoft Excel

MSS	: Master of Social Sciences
M.Phil.	: Master of Philosophy
NGO	: Non Government Organization
OECD	: Organization for the Economic Cooperation and Development
PCR	: Population Census Report
Ph. D	: Doctor of Philosophy
RCC	: Rajshahi City Corporation
SAARC	: South Asian Association for Regional Co-operation
SPSS	: Statistical Package for Social Sciences.
SSC	: Secondary School Certificate
TV	: Television
UN	: United Nations
UNESCO	: United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNIC	: United Nations Information Center
USA	: United States of America
WHO	: World Health Organization
ZPD	: Zone of Proximal Development

Glossary

<i>Beel</i>	: Marsh Land
<i>Dal</i>	: Name of food grain, one kind of pulse.
<i>Eidgah</i>	: A place of worship where the Muslims offer prayer mainly twice in a year on the occasion of religious festivals.
<i>Halua</i>	: One kind of food made of sugar, water and rice powder.
<i>Kacha</i>	: Mud made establishment (House, Latrine, etc.).
<i>Khargh</i>	: One kind of thatch used in roof.
<i>Konchi</i>	: Bamboo branch.
<i>Kua</i>	: A water reserver which is used for the supply of drinking water.
<i>Kupi</i>	: It is a synonym of lamp.
<i>Libido</i>	: Latin word means whim, caprice. It is instinctual energies and desired derived from the id. Another meaning of libido is psychic desire and energy especially that associated with strong sexual desire.
<i>Lungi</i>	: A skirt type cloth used by men to cover the lower part of the body.
<i>Madrasha</i>	: An Islamic Educational Institution.
<i>Masjid</i>	: Place of worship where the Muslims offer prayers.
<i>Mondir</i>	: Place of worship where the Hindus offer prayers.
<i>Rajshahi</i>	: Name of place, a division of Bangladesh.
<i>Sharie</i>	: A six yard long piece of clothe used by the women to cover the whole body

Chapter One

Background of the Study

Chapter One

Background of the Study

1.1. Introduction

Joint family is being split into nuclear family system as a result of significant rise in industrialization and urbanization. In nuclear families, wives alongside husbands are involving themselves with economic activities out side the home with a view to ameliorate their both social and economic condition. Women are getting involved in multifarious outdoor income earning activities in formal sector like banks, educational institutions, factories and other governmental and non-governmental agencies. Besides mothers are also involving themselves outdoor income earning activities like day laborer, hawkers, maid servant etc. It is evident that these working mothers need to spend a significant amount of time out side home. However, traditional household responsibilities including cooking, cleaning, child rearing, and so on, remains solely on these working mothers of Bangladesh. This creates various problems for them both in working place and in household. They can not accomplish their assigned tasks at workplace with comfort as they may have left their kids at home. Some of these mothers, specially the well off, can afford to keep their kids under the supervision of maid-servants, other family members or any kind of institutional services. But, most of these mothers who are manual worker and poor, usually cannot afford family support for their children. They do not have the economic ability also to make arrangements of socialization and care for their children. This is likely to hamper proper socialization and rearing

of their children. Socialization is such a process through which human being learn socially recognized mode of behavior and grow up as member of society. The process socialization kicks off at the inception of life and it continues without any interval up to the last breath. In practice, however it is the infancy from where the socialization process starts and remains active through out the whole life (Rao, 2006:205). In Bangladesh the socialization and caring of children still remain mainly as mother's responsibility. The proper socialization process is hampered and proper care and rearing becomes increasingly difficult to be maintained for these working mothers. Often problems in regard to security of a child come into existence. Even the future generation could not be developed properly due to lack of proper socialization of the children of working mothers. The present study has focused on this problem. The study was carried out on Rajshahi City Corporation area in order to know about the present situation of socialization process and child rearing problems of working mothers so that appropriate measures can be suggested to overcome this problem for the greater interest of our society.

1.2. Statement of the Problem

Bangladesh is a patriarchal and male dominated country in the world. Traditionally, roles of women in Bangladesh are domestic in nature and they have been downgraded primarily to play the role of a submissive daughter, an acquiescent wife and a dependent mother. That the women are inferior by nature and that motherhood, with its domestic role in the family, is their natural place is maintained by strong cultural, mythological and religious beliefs. These beliefs are

very strong in the women of Bangladesh. In a study, it is seen that 70 percent of rural and 80 percent of urban men, respectively considered women as inferior to men and motherhood as the most desirable role for a woman (Jahan, 1975: 32). But the status of women is an important factor affecting the socio-economic development of a country. The sustainable socio-economic development of a country can not be fully realized if women, who usually constitute half of the total population, enjoy a subordinate position to men; and their talents remain unexplored (Choudhury and Ahmed, 1980:1). Prevailing misconception of religion, superstition, limited female access to education, diffusion of family planning and reduction in fertility and lack of their control over means of production are mainly responsible for the subordination of women in our country. After independence in 1971, the rate of women's participation in social, economic and political sector is increasing in Bangladesh. Especially the women participation is increasing day by day in formal sector like social, economic and political sector. We can get a comprehensive idea about the participation of women in government services from the table 1.1.

**Table 1.1 Selected Candidates for the Civil Services in Different BCS
Examinations by Gender**

Name of the BCS	Year (held in)	Selected Candidates for the Services				Total	
		Male		Female			
		Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
22th BCS	2000	1903	81.50	432	18.50	2335	100.0
23th BCS	2000	46	64.79	25	35.21	71	100.0
24 th BCS	2002	3809	72.90	1416	27.10	5225	100.0
25 th BCS	2004	2029	74.54	693	25.46	2722	100.0
26 th BCS	2005	703	66.13	360	33.87	1063	100.0
27 th BCS	2006	2417	74.62	822	25.38	3239	100.0

Source: *Annual Report- 2003, 2008*, Bangladesh Public Service Commission, Dhaka: Government of People's Republic Bangladesh, 2009. Page-65.

The table reveals that 18.5 percent female were selected in 22th BCS examination followed by 35.21 percent, 27.10 percent, 24.46 percent, 33.87 percent and 25.38 percent female were selected in 23th, 24th, 25th, 26th and 27th BCS examination respectively. Along with this scenario, numbers of female worker are increasing in private sector in Bangladesh. Even most of the labour forces in garment sector are female (Majumdar and Zohir, 1995:83-112). This huge number of working mothers is involved in income earning activities out side the home. A mentionable time of the day they remain in working place and faced many problems such as lack of lounge, separate common room etc. in their working places. The worst effect of this unexpected situation falls on the working mothers which in turn hamper the socialization of their children. In the absence of mother, the children are influenced by the maid servant and other members of family. The children can

not properly learn the language skills, social values and norms of the society. For this reason, the working mothers can not fully attend in the official task. The working mothers feel anxiety regarding their children's socialization. This problem is severe in the urban area as the working mothers are found available in this location. However, there are several questions such as; the problems of working mothers, what is the socialization's pattern of children are remained unanswered. Many researches have been undertaken in the field of the women issue. But so far no studies have been carried out on the problem of working mothers specifically in the socialization's process of their children. Present study intends to look into the matter. I hope findings of this study will help to provide guideline to make a proper policy for the proper socialization of the children of working mothers which desires highest attention in any society.

1.3. Rationale of the Study

Women alongside the male are increasingly participating in outdoor income earning activities keeping pace with the development of the country and minimize their economic hardship. It is compulsory to ensure more women participation in all activities like economic, social, political etc. if we desire to have our rate of national development upgraded. For the patriarchal attitude, the participation of women in economic and political activities is very negligible. The role and involvement of women in political parties may be viewed as members, as party workers and as political leaders. Although there are a few women in leadership positions there is limited involvement in party hierarchical structures. With only

5.1 percent women in the decision-making bodies of all political parties. The Awami League and Bangladesh Nationalist Party (BNP) have the highest proportion of women in decision-making structures. Twenty Three percent of the members of the Awami League's Presidium are female, while 9.2 percent are on the executive committee. The BNP has 14.7 percent women on its executive committee. Both the Awami League and BNP have included women's issues on their agenda and aimed for gender equality. The third largest party, the Jatiyo Party also supports equal rights for men and women. On the other hand, the Jammat-e-Islam and the Communist Party of Bangladesh have no women in their top leadership (Huq, 2000:51). At present, the Prime Minister of Bangladesh is a woman. The leader of the Opposition in the Parliament is also a woman and it is significant that both have ascended to the position of leadership through the process of direct election. It is often alleged and argued by men in the society that both Prime Minister and Leader of the Opposition being women, the women related matters should be well addressed and fulfilled. But the reality is that, both of them have to operate within a political system that is predominantly male biased. The power of the Prime Minister emanates from the political parties that subscribe to the traditional "masculine" political culture and values and do not in general encourage active participation of women in politics (Begum, 2002:202). For this political culture, less participation of women is seen in the cabinet during different political regimes (Table 1.2). It is seen that highest percentage (13.95 percent) of women ministers is at the present time (2009 till now) of Honorable

Prime Minister of Sheikh Hasina followed by 4 percent in the period of Sheikh Mujibur Rahman (1972-1975), 6 percent in the Ziaur Rahman (1979-1982), 3 percent in the Hossain M. Ershad (1982-1990), 5 percent in the Begum Khaleda Zia (1991-1996), 8.69 percent in the Sheikh Hasina (1996-2001) and 3.5 percent in the Begum Khaleda Zia (2001-2006). It is mentionable that in Bangladesh, since 1991, the Prime Minister has continuously been a woman. Except the Prime Minister, women have very insignificant ministerial status has never been more than two in a cabinet of 40-60. Even their entry into higher position has depended on the wishes of male political bosses and elites. Most of the time they represented tokenism rather than any recognition of their talent. Generally this has been demonstrated by the fact that women ministers were employed only in the feminine or soft issue areas such as women's affairs, culture and social welfare (a change is seen in this sector at present government). Such powerlessness of women politicians demonstrated a correlation between the weaker statuses of women in the political party and as a whole.

Table 1.2. Number of Women Ministers in Bangladesh during Different Political Regimes

Government	Regimes	Total N. of Ministers	Total N. of Men Ministers	Total N. of Women M.	% of Women Minister
Sheikh Mujibur Rahman	1972-1975	50	47	02	4
Ziaur Rahman	1979-1982	101	95	06	6
Hossain M. Ershad	1982-1990	133	127	04	3
Begum Khaleda Zia	1991-1996	39	36	03	5
Sheikh Hasina	1996-2001	46	42	04	8.69
Begum Khaleda Zia	2001-2006	60	58	02	3.5
Sheikh Hasina	2009-	43	37	06	13.95

Source: Nazmunnessa Mahtab. 2007. *Women in Bangladesh from Inequality to Empowerment*, Dhaka: A. H. Development Publishing House, page. 55 & *Diary 2009*, Bangladesh Parliament.

Besides these, since 1982, women have been regularly appearing at the Bangladesh Civil Service Examinations and getting recruited on all the 29 cadre services. However, the position of women vis-a vis men in terms of number still insignificant. The number women holding Class 1 positions in ministries/divisions, departments/directories and autonomous bodies/corporations in only 5,066 compared to 73,619 men. This means that only 6.44 percent women are occupying Class 1 positions compared to 93.56 percent men (Mahtab, 2007:27). This situation indicates the negligibility and vulnerability of women in our country. In spite of remaining this situation, those women who are related in different types of economic, social and political activities due to their firm determination, they face many problems such as household activities, negative attitude of society, defective socialization of children etc. in Bangladesh. Even many of women, eligible for

economic activities, are keeping themselves outside from out door activities only for the sake of proper child rearing and socialization. So it is necessary to know about the socialization process and rearing pattern of children of the working mothers. So far as I know, any mentionable study has not yet been conducted on this issue. So, this study deserves attention. The findings of this study will contribute to a significant extent in formulation of multifarious program both at the Governmental and Non-Governmental level aimed at ensuring and remove the barriers in the way of taking active part in productive activities by the women. It is also expected that the findings of the study may evoke interest among the researchers, academics and practitioners for conducting further research in this field. The findings would help the social work professionals especially working with child and women welfare to understand their concern and assist them to reassess their role. The study therefore, may be a contribution to the field of social work.

1.4. Objectives of the Study

The general objective of the proposed study is to focus on the present socio-economic status of the working mothers, and problems which they are facing in socializing their children. Specific objectives of this study are as follows:

- i). To know the socio-economic condition of the working mothers.
- ii). To analyze the pattern of child care and child rearing of working mothers.
- iii). To know the different kind of agents involved in the socialization process of the children of the working mothers.

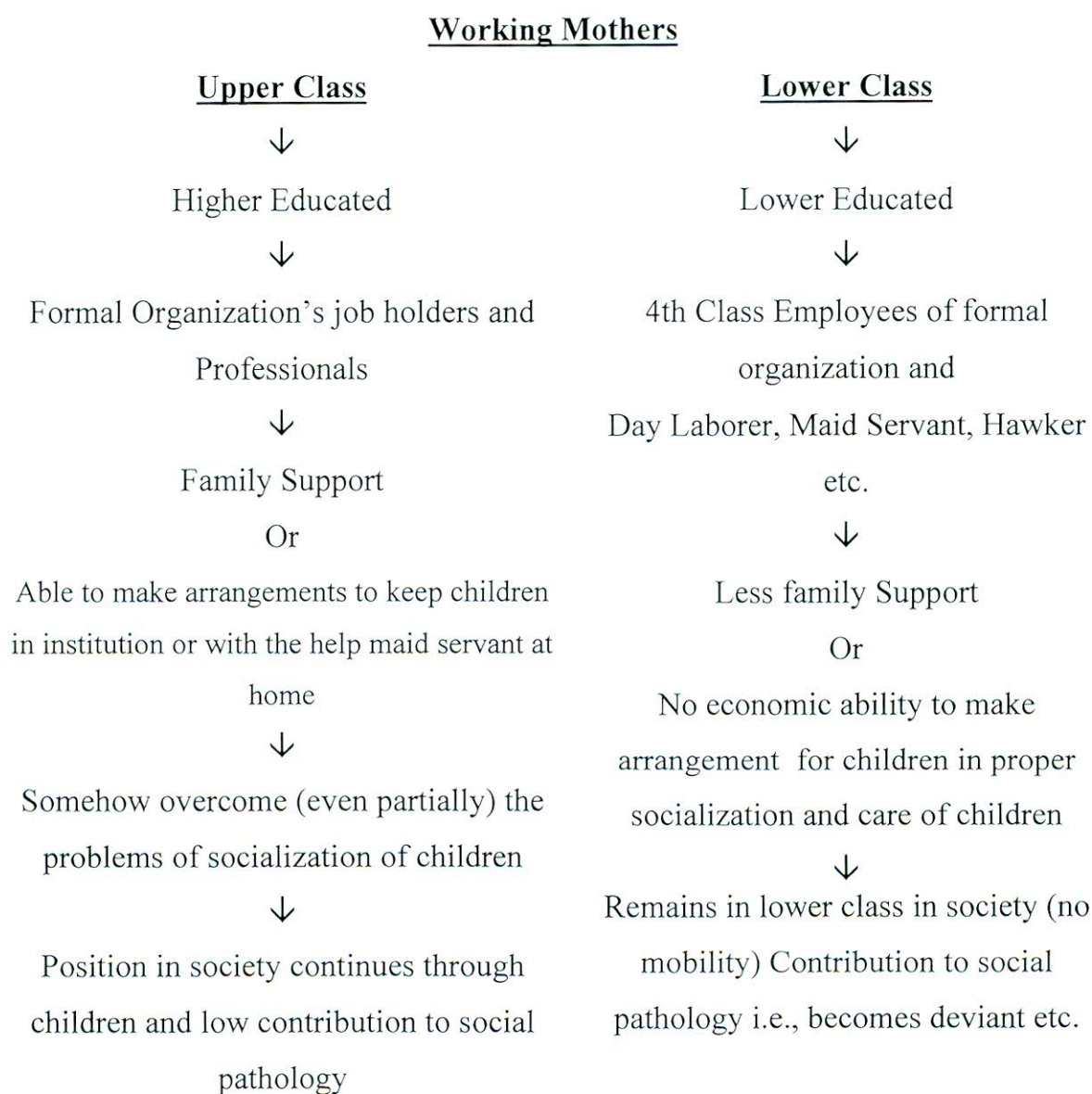
- iv). To identify the problems of working mothers in socializing their children.
- v). To put forward recommendations in order to proper socialization of the children of the working mothers.

1.5. Operational Definition of the Key Concepts

1.5.1. Working Mothers

The term work may be defined as a person's employment or occupation as well as a means of earning income. Working means a person who is engaged in some kind of work especially as manual or industrial labor. In this study working mothers are identified as those mothers who are working outside their home in order to earning money or livelihood. But, the reality is that, women in Bangladesh, especially who are married and mothers are engaged with household activities from very early morning to late night. Yet, they are not recognized as working mothers as well as they do not have any kind of remuneration. As such, in this study those women are entitled as working mothers who have one or more children and work outside the home for the purpose of earnings. Working mothers are divided into two categories as their problems of looking after and socializing their children are different. i) *Upper Class Working Mothers* includes; Class-I, and II job holders in formal organizations and professionals like Teachers, Bankers, Doctors, and Engineers etc. ii) *Lower Class Working Mothers* includes; III and IV Class employees in formal organizations; working as Day laborer, Factory worker, Garments worker, Maid Servants, Hawkers and so on.

Figure 1.1 *Flow Chart of Conceptual Framework of the Study*



1.5.2. Children

Generally the term 'Child' refers to those who are below 14 years of old. In Bangladesh, there prevails contradiction in this regarded to actual age structure of child. According to the Children Act 1974 "Child means a person under the age of sixteen years" (GOB, 1976:2). According to "The child Marriage Restraint Act 1929 "Child means a person who, if a male is under twenty one years of age and if

a female is under eighteen years of age” (Choudhury 1987:59). In this study offspring below 14 years age of the working mothers have been considered as children.

1.5.3. Socialization

Human Being's behavior is instinctive. Rather, human behavior is 'learnt' behavior. The human child comes into the world as a biological organism with biological and psychological needs. He or she is gradually molded in society as a social being by learning social ways of acting and feeling. The continued existence of society would have impossible without this process. No individual could exist in society without socialization. The process of molding and shaping the personality of the human infant is called socialization. Socialization is the complex process through which individuals learn and adopt the attitudes, values and norms that they need to function appropriately in their social environment (Watson 1977:120). John A. Clausen highlights the socialization as a process of inheriting norms, customs and ideologies. It may provide the individual with the skills and habits necessary for participating within their own society; a society itself is formed through a plurality of shared norms, customs, values, traditions, social roles, symbols and languages. Socialization is thus the means by which social and cultural continuity are attained (Clausen, 1968:5). Joel Charon also says that socialization refers to all learning regardless of setting or age of the individual. Socialization is the process by which we learn the ways of a particular group. It is the process where by people acquires personality and learns the way of life of their

society. Essentially, one has to learn culture. Learning culture encompasses all the truths, values, rules, and goals that people share with one another (Charon, 1987:63-69). In the study, the process by which any one from infancy to old age acquires her or his social skills, roles, norms, values and personality pattern have been meant by socialization.

1.5.4. Rajshahi Metropolitan City or Rajshahi City

Located in the northern Bangladesh Rajshahi City stands on the bank of the river the Padma. The area of the Rajshahi Metropolitan City is 96.69 sq. km. It consists of four thanas, 39 wards and 169 mahallas (Islam, 2003:334). The town has a population of 3,83,655; male 52.92 percent, female 47.09 percent. Density of population is 3,968 per sq km. (GOB, 2003). The city as Rajshahi municipality was established in 1876 and it was turned into a City Corporation in 1991. In this study, Rajshahi Metropolitan City has been meant by the total City Corporation area with 39 wards (Appendix 3).

1.6. Utility of the Study

It is needless to say that any academic endeavor or formal research work should have a social relevance and theoretical aspects. The present study has some utility from the view of social, economic, academic and policy-planning contexts. The utility of the present study are explained below:

Firstly, working mother is rapidly increasing in Bangladesh. They are facing multi-dimensional problem in their working life. It has become a national issue and academic matter in our country. As a part of academic work the present study

has been carried out for the partial fulfillment of a Ph. D. dissertation. It is expected the findings of the study will put some light on socialization problems of the working mothers.

Secondly, it is clearly noticed that a mentionable proportion of women of Bangladesh are involving in the income generating activities out side home. For this reason the children of working mother are affected severely in respect of proper socialization. From the time immemorial the joint family system has been a unique feature in the sub-continent and it played an important role in the rearing and caring of the children. But due to rapid social changes, the traditional joint family system is disappearing from the scene and nuclear family is coming up. Under these circumstances, the proper socialization of the children has become hampered. As a growing problem, it should be studied, analyzed and understood. So it is expected that the present study can reflect some ideas on the issue.

Thirdly, women are the indispensable part of the population structure of a country. Socio-economic development is not possible ignoring this huge number of population. At present the women are engaging in the different income generating activities out side the home. Under this condition they can not take care of their children properly. As a result, the children of the working mothers are not being socialized properly. Even they are being involved in deviant behaviour or anti-social behaviour. So this problem deserves immediate attention of the experts and academics for greater interest of the nation. Hence, the present study has a utility for providing some suggestions regarding this issue.

Fourthly, in spite of insufficiency, there are some welfare services (like Day Care Centre) that are provided by the government for the children of working mothers. It plays a role to solve the problem of working mothers in socialization of their offspring. The present study has been carried out to know how these welfare services play its role in Bangladesh.

Fifthly, there is a lack of research and in-depth study in respect of problems of working mothers especially in the area of socialization of their children in Bangladesh. Non-availability of adequate data and sufficient information may stand as a great barrier to undertake a broad based women related child welfare policy and rehabilitation program. So there is an urgent need for stepping up such research in this specific field so that the policy makers may gather available data and information in this respect.

Sixthly, children are the future of a nation. All success of a country depends on the proper socialization or development of this prospective section of the population. If the national government has to approach the issue in an appropriate manner it requires in-depth and continuous research in this area. So the knowledge and insight derived out of the research may help to formulate an integrated national policy and planning for supporting the welfare of the children of the country as a whole.

1.7. Limitations of the Study

The study has been conducted on the various aspects of working mothers of Bangladesh at a minimum scale. So it is not unlikely that there remain limitations.

Some of the limitations are mentioned below:

Firstly: The respondents of this study were mainly two kinds of the working mothers living in urban area; one is upper class working mother and another is lower class working mothers. Upper class working mothers were able to articulate their problem properly but lower class working mothers were not so. So there may be remained gap in data given by the two classes of the respondents.

Secondly: It was too difficult to collect information regarding their problem from the respondents who are involved in lower class activities like day labourer in construction, maid servant and so on. So the researcher had to meet this section of respondents frequently.

Thirdly: The questions about the problems of their working place like services or behavior of the female boss of their office; they felt fear to express their opinion. This may have influence on the data given by them.

Fourthly: Before starting the actual interview for collection of data, researcher had to collect the list of upper class working mothers from different office like; government divisional headquarters' office, office of the Vice Chancellor of University and so on. But the record keeping system of those offices were not good. So it is needless to say how difficult it was to find out the proper list of the respondents.

Fifthly: The researcher has gathered information only from the working mothers. She could not contact with their spouse and non-working mothers. So, the study

would have been more representative and comprehensive if had the spouses and non-working mothers been interviewed.

Sixthly: There are inherent weaknesses in the study design. Without control of the extraneous variables, it may not be possible to say absolutely that the working mothers are facing the socialization problems about their children.

Seventhly: Any study ushers the door for new research and compare with previous research works. But no research had been found on the issue the present study focused. So it was not possible to compare the present research evidence with any previous work or facts.

Chapter Two

Methodology of the Study

Chapter Two

Methodology of the Study

2.1. Introduction

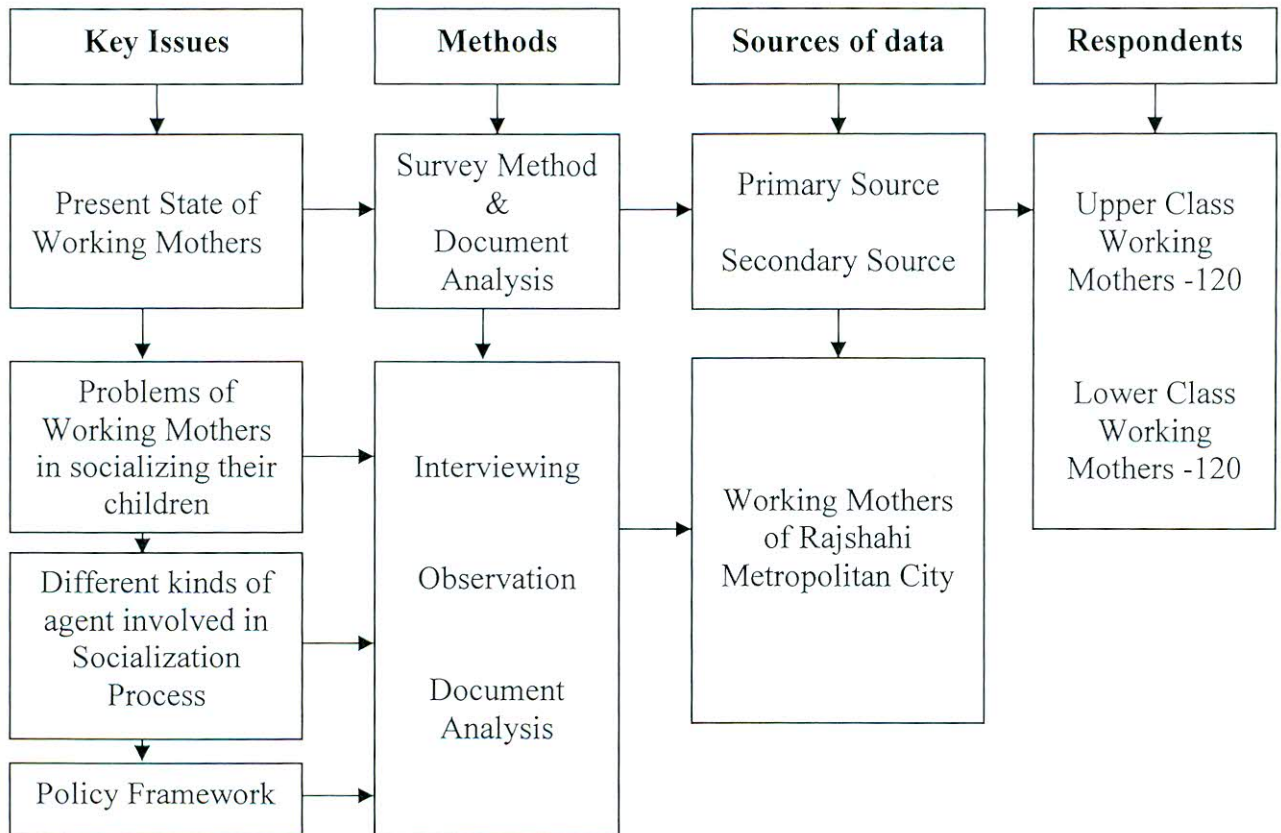
The general objective of the present study was to focus on problems of working mothers in socialization of their children in Bangladesh. To achieve the study objectives the following methods were used.

2.2. Study Design

To realize the study objectives descriptive techniques have been used to state the situation and problems faced by the working mothers in socializing their children. Data have been collected from two categories of working mothers, i.e., upper class working mothers and lower class working mothers as the problems faced by the two classes of working mothers, regarding the socialization of their children are different in nature. Pattern of socialization and the problems have been presented in comparative manner to depict the differences between upper class working mothers and lower class working mothers.

Data have also been collected from Government and Non-Government organizations and from related documents. Empirical social survey was conducted among the working mothers to collect data. Comparative analysis has been made among the upper class and lower class working mothers. Appropriate statistical techniques have been used to analyze data. The research issues and research design are presented in the Figure -1.

Figure-2.1 Key issues of Research and Design to achieve the objectives



2.2.1 Selection of the Study Area

The study has been carried out within the Rajshahi City Corporation area of Bangladesh. Because, Rajshahi is one of the oldest and biggest cities of Bangladesh and usual working places of women in Government and Non-Government offices as well as educational institutions, hospitals, banks, court, construction workers. Although having some unique characteristics, Rajshahi city is similar with rest of the cities of the country. The cultural values and socio-economic activities and status of the working women are similar with the rest women residing in urban areas of Bangladesh where most working mothers stay. So, the findings of the study are expected to represent the problems of urban

working mothers of Bangladesh in socializing their children.

2.2.2 Sample Size and Sampling Procedure

As evident from the above discussion there were two categories of respondents.

These two categories of respondents were selected as follows;

First: Upper Class Working Mothers:

Upper class working mothers includes class I, II government and autonomous organization employee and professionals like teachers, bankers, businessmen, doctor and engineers. A list of all female employees of government and autonomous offices prepared having information from the divisional headquarters. It is needed to mention that the number of female employee of the government office is always changeable due to transfer all the year round. From the list I selected 110 working mothers purposively and interviewed them.

Second: Lower Class Working Mothers:

Lower class working mothers includes class III and IV employee of government office and autonomous institutions, day labourers, factory workers, maid servants, petty businessmen such as food sellers, shopkeepers etc. and hawkers. It is observed that a mentionable number of female folk engaged in different types of manual work in the urban area outside home. They earned money for their households'. I had selected 110 working mothers purposively and interviewed all of them.

By this way, 220 working mothers of two categories were selected and interviewed for this study. Total sample size has been shown at a glance in the table1

Table-2.1 Study Sample at a Glance

Respondent Category	Sample Size
Upper Class	110
Lower Class	110
Total	220

2.2.3. Data Collection

Primary data were collected from the selected sample through face-to-face interviewing using interview schedule. An interview schedule for the working mothers was prepared according to the study objectives. Both open-ended questions and close-ended questions were included in questionnaire. The questionnaire was finalized through pre-test. Two trained interviewers having Master of Social Science (M.S.S) degree and experienced in data collection under the supervision of the researcher collected data from the respondents.

In addition secondary data were collected from published books, articles, research reports, thesis, dissertations and official documents; from the libraries of Department of Social Work, Department of Economics, Department of Public Administration, Department of Population Science and Human Resource Development, Institute of Bangladesh Studies (IBS), Central Library of Rajshahi University. Information were collected from Directorate of Social Services (DSS), Dhaka, from the libraries of Institute of Social Welfare and Research (ISWR), Central Library of Dhaka University, United Nations Information Centre (UNIC),

Center for Integrated Rural Development Asia Pacific (CIRDAP), Bangladesh Institute of Development Studies (BIDS) and other information centers. Various website were also searched for the secondary information about the working mothers.

2.2.4. Data Processing and Analysis

Data were computerized and analyzed using SPSS and MS Excel software. Data have been presented through univariate, bi-variate and multivariate Tables and pictures (Graphs and Diagrams). Various statistical techniques such as frequency distribution, central tendency, correlation and test of significance have been used to analyze the data.

2.2.5. Validity and Reliability of the Data

The researcher believes that all sorts of data, which had been collected for this study, were reliable, true and unbiased. Various strategies were used with utmost care as much as possible during data collection. The researcher tried to ensure the quality of data during collection and processing. To ensure validity and reliability of data, the interview schedule had been pre-tested three times before sending final data collection. Observation was made to ensure the validity and reliability of data. The researcher had also maintained a notebook to keep her personal observations on the respondents.

Chapter Three

Theories of Child Development

Chapter Three

Theories of Child Development

3.1. Introduction

A human child comes from the almighty into the world as an animal with biological needs. Gradually he learns many aspects of human life like norms, values, culture, tradition and customs. He has to pass different developmental stages from the very beginning of his life to the adulthood. In every stages of proper development of a child gives perfection as an adult in later life. Many social scientists, philosophers have developed many special explanation and theories regarding the child development. This chapter has been written about the conceptual analysis about child development, stages of child development and theories of child development.

3.2. Concept of Child development

Child development is a synonym of human development. The term ‘development’ is closely related to psychological and physiological aspects of a child. Development refers to growth, to a progression through certain stages (Boud, Keogh and Walker (1985:8). Sometimes ‘growth’ and ‘development’ are used as synonyms. But it has a special connotation. Growth more often is used to describe biological changes in an organism as it moves from conception to adulthood. Development means the psychological changes which parallel to biological growth (Nanda, 1998:20). This concept includes the expansion of abilities of individuals

to learn through their perceptions, to achieve judgments based upon their experience, and to think for themselves in imaginative, creative and exploratory manner. According to E. B. Hurlock, development refers to qualitative and quantitative changes. It may be defined as a progressive series of orderly, coherent changes. The goal of development is to enable the individual to adapt to the environment in which he lives (Hurlock, 1974:23). Rutter and Rutter have explained the child development as a process of systematic, organized, intra-individual change that is clearly associated with generally expectable age-related progressions and which is carried forward in some way that has implications for a person's pattern or level of functioning at some later time (Rutter and Rutter, 1992:64). B. B. Sharma also says, child development refers to the changes in physical, psychological and social behavior that occur systematically with increasing age throughout childhood. The study of child development is concerned with both structural or maturational and environmental (learning and experience) influences, with much emphasis placed on the relationship between events in early childhood and later behavioral effects (Sharma, 1999:119). Suraj Sen Gupta highlights the maturity in child development. He says that development is a measure of functional or physiological maturation. It signifies accomplishment of mental (acquisition of skills etc.) emotional (development of attitudes etc.) and social (adaptation to family and society etc.) abilities. Unlike growth, it is rather difficult to assess development (Gupta, 1985:20).

In the view of above discussions, it can be said that child development refers to

growth, to a progression through certain stages from infancy to adulthood. It is frequently linked to an unfolding, a movement toward a certain fixed point e.g. physical growth, language skills, mental maturation etc.

3.3. Principles of Child Development

Child development is a complex process of integrating many structures and functions. Development of skeleton and muscles, brain and nervous system, internal organs and total functioning are being considered as the aspects of biological growth of a child. But how is a child developed with physical growth and mental maturation. Many psychologists and scientists have mentioned some principles in the child development. According to J. Pikunas and E. J. Allbrecht child development principles are; i). The growth pattern follows a genetic sequence; ii). All individuals are different; iii). Various systems and functions of the organism and personality have different developmental rates and phases; iv). Behavioral activities are largely directed by functional capacities and the fundamental needs of life; v). Unfolding abilities and skills are spontaneously expressed; vi). Behavioral tendencies follow the maturational sequence; vii). Each phase of development has characteristic traits and features; viii). The developmental course is continuous; ix). Human life is segmented; x). Forthcoming growth and behavior are predictable; xi). The individual develops as a unified whole (Pikunas and Allbrecht, 1961:23-31). E. B. Hurlock has mentioned some principles of child development. These are; i). Development involves change; ii). Changes in proportionate way; iii). Disappearance of old feature; iv).

Acquisition of new features (Hurlock, 1974:22-44). Principles which are commonly functioned in child development;

3.3.1. The Principle of Developmental Direction

Development directions are an important principle of child development. The main theme of this principle is growth, both in physical structure and in functioning, tends to proceed along head-to-foot and centre-to periphery gradients. Thus, the head reaches adult size first, the legs last, and internal organs like the heart reach full capacity to function. This principle may be observed most readily in the development of embryo and fetus, but it also appears to be generally true during childhood.

3.3.2. The Principle of Continuity

Another principle of child development is principle of continuity. According to this principle, physical growth of a child proceeds in continuous fashion. It is not reversible and never stops-except when a child is affected with disease or severe malnutrition. However, corporal growth does not always proceed at the same rate; it may erupt or slow down. But it is continuous process.

3.3.3. The Principle of Developmental Sequence

As a general rule, steps of physical growth follow one another in a somewhat uniform and predictable order. That is almost all children lose certain baby teeth first, certain others last; almost all reach puberty before they attain full physical size. Not all children operate according to the same timetable, but the sequence of events tends to be predictable.

3.3.4. The Principle of Maturation or Readiness

Most accomplishments of a child require a certain level of skeletal-muscular-neurological development. When this level of development has been reached, we say that a child biologically is ready to perform a certain task. Although he may not perform it even when he is ready, he cannot perform it before that time. Thus, a child of 6 months appears to be unable to control his bladder, no matter how he may try. Nor can a child of 6 months learn to walk. It remains a controversial matter whether attempts to induce a child to perform a task before physiological readiness have any effect in speeding up the rate of growth toward readiness. Some psychologists feel that, within limits, if a child can be brought to feel a strong desire to learn a new task the physiological development required will appear sooner than otherwise.

3.3.5. The Principle of Individual Growth Pattern

A unique principle of a child development is the individualization of growth pattern. Although developmental direction and sequence are roughly the same for all children, individual children differ greatly with respect to their own time schedules. One baby is able to pick up a ball much sooner than another; one child loses his first incisors earlier than another. Furthermore, the old beliefs that a slow grower will catch up by spurting later on and that a given child will grow faster in some respects than in others seem highly questionable. A child who grows fast in one physical feature is likely to grow fast in all features; and it is also true for a slow grower.

3.4. Stages of Child Development

Human life is a combination of many stages of development. Development stages mean the processes of becoming a functioning member of society throughout the whole life. It describes the systematic progression in certain order through a series of phases. Thus the children move to closer to some form of adult status. This movement can be seen as involving changes in intellectual and physical powers (for example around changes in intelligence, expertise and ability to reason); and the impact of life events and experiences (Humphries, 1988:4). Many scientists, psychologists, philosophers have identified different stages of human development. Aristotle proposed a three-stage model, Solon divided life into seven stages, Confucius identified six stages of development, The Sayings of the Fathers contain fourteen stages and Shakespeare proposed seven stages of development (Tennant and Pogson, 1995:69). Famous philosopher Levinson argues that the life cycle comprises a sequence of four stages like; childhood and adolescence, early adulthood, middle adulthood and late adulthood. Freudian theory emphasized into five stages of development; oral stage, anal stage, phallic stage, latency stage and genital stage. Piaget focused on cognitive mechanisms in the progression from the sensorimotor stage of infancy through the pre-operational and concrete operations stage (in which logical reasoning comes to the fore) or adolescence onwards. Kohlberg extended the approach to moral development, with stages representing different levels of moral maturity (pre-conventional, conventional etc.). Gesell charted development in terms of a series of milestones in physical, motor and

perceptual domains. Erikson classified the child development into eight stages. His focus was on psycho-social transitions, with stages characterized by age-defined social tasks and crises involving features such as identity, intimacy and generativity (Rutter and Rutter, 1992:1-2). Difference views are found about the development stages of human being among the different psychologist, scientist and philosopher. Most of them have been reached in a consensus that development stage of human being divided into ten stages. Stages of human development are;

3.4.1. Pre-natal Stage

The life of a human being does not begin with birth. It begins from the fetal in the womb of a mother. Pre-natal stage includes from fetal to the birth. A healthy child may be born by proper caring in this stage. It is well established that certain abnormalities which may appear in a child, and which once were believed to be a consequence of faulty heredity, are caused by unfavorable conditions in the uterine environment of an embryo or fetus. It is customary to divide the human prenatal period into three parts. These are;

a) The Germinal Period

Germinal period begins from the fertilized ovum stage and continues up to one or two weeks. In this period, a fertilized ovum divides and subdivides many times, forming a tiny blob of cells. This globular mass then forms an outer layer and separated inner cluster of cells. The outer cells develop into a placenta and embryonic sac; some of the inner, into an embryo. While this is occurring, the fertilized ovum has been unattached and free moving. When it reaches the uterus

wall, it implants itself there and becomes dependent upon the mother for nourishment and oxygen.

b) The Embryonic Period

The embryonic period starts from the second week and extends to about eighth week. Beginning with the second week of life an embryo rapidly loses its egg like appearance. It begins to elongate like a tiny tadpole and differentiation of parts soon becomes evident. The cell mass first develops three layers, which grow unequally with a folding in and out of various parts. Each layer gives rise to separate groups of organs. Embryonic development is in many respects quite similar in all vertebrates. Embryonic vertebrate development also shows certain similarities to the developmental sequences of most of the animal kingdom. For example, at the beginning of the fourth week, an embryo shows a segmented structure, characteristic of many creatures relatively low on the evolutionary scale, such as earthworms. Another embryonic structure to interest is a rod of tissue called the notochord-an organ which is found in some primordial creatures in place of a jointed backbone. An embryo also develops fishlike gill pouches and a tail. Later, the fetus will be covered with a dense growth of hair.

c) The Fetal Period

The fetal period launches from the eighth week and continues up to birth. By the eighth week, an embryo is as much as two inches long and weights two-thirds of an ounce. By this time it has become distinctively human in appearance, except for its short tail. When human characteristics appear, we call the growing organism a

fetus. The fetal period is characterized by further growth of parts that emerged during the embryonic period and by full functional development of many organs. Near the beginning of the fetal period there occurs a rapid increase in body length followed by a lessening rate of growth. Proportions change, the head becoming smaller and the arms and legs longer in relation to the trunk, so that a fetus becomes more and more "baby like" in appearance. Detectable heart beat usually appears during the fourth month. The mother also begins to feel movement about this time. Before the end of the gestation period a fetus is able to cease its parasitic ways and begin an independent existence.

3.4.2. Infancy Stage

Second stage of human development is infancy stage. The term infant derives from the Latin word *infans*, meaning "unable to speak." It is typically applied to children between the ages of 1 month to 12 months. "Infant" is also a legal term referring to any child under the age of legal adulthood (Webster, 2007:12). In general contexts, a newborn is an infant who is within hours, days, or up to a few weeks from birth. In medical contexts, newborn or neonate (from Latin, *neonatus*, newborn) refers to an infant in the first 28 days of life (less than a month old) (Webster, 2007:13). The majority of a newborn infant's time is spent in sleep. At first this sleep is evenly spread throughout the day and night, but after a couple of months, infants generally become diurnal. Development of a child can be seen to have six stages, grouped into pairs; quiet sleep and active sleep, quiet waking and active waking, fussing and crying. Infant also respond to stimuli differently in these different

stages (Bremner, 1994:41).

3.4.3. Early Childhood

Another stage of child development is early childhood. Early childhood is the time from birth to eight years (Allen, Eileen and Marotz, 1989:40). It is a time of tremendous growth across all areas of development. Physically, between birth and age three a child typically doubles in height and quadruples in weight. Bodily proportions also shift, so that the infant, whose head accounts for almost one-fourth of total body length, becomes a toddler with a more balanced, adult-like appearance. Despite these rapid physical changes, the typical three-year-old has mastered many skills, including sitting, walking, toilet training, using a spoon, scribbling and sufficient hand-eye coordination to catch and throw a ball (Bowman, Donovan and Burns, 2001:7). In this stage, by age eight children are able to demonstrate some basic understanding of less concrete concepts, including time and money. However, the eight years old children have difficulty to understand abstract ideas (Chall, Jacobs and Baldwin, 1990:3).

3.4.4. Childhood Stage

Generally after eight years childhood stage begins and continues up to twelve or thirteen years (Shonkoff and Phillips, 2001:41). It is also called the 'middle childhood'. Historically this stage has not been considered an important stage in human development. Sigmund Freud's labeled this period of life the latency stage, a time when sexual and aggressive urges are repressed (Bransford, Brown and Cocking, 1999:53). In middle childhood, intelligence is demonstrated through

logical and systematic manipulation of symbols related to concrete objects. Operational thinking, personality, motivation and inter-personal relationships develop and learn the values of their societies in this stage. Children go through the transition from the world at home to that of school and peers. Children learn to make things, use tools, and acquire the skills to be a worker and a potential provider. Children can now receive feedback from outsiders about their accomplishments (Collins, 1984: 29). If children can discover pleasure in intellectual stimulation, being productive, seeking success, they will develop a sense of competence. If they are not successful or cannot discover pleasure in the process, they may develop a sense of inferiority and feelings of inadequacy that may haunt them throughout life. This is when children think of themselves as industrious or as inferior.

3.4.5. Adolescence Stage

Adolescence is the period of life between the onset of puberty and the full commitment to an adult social role, such as worker, parent, and/or citizen. It is the period known for the formation of personal and social identity and the discovery of moral purpose. It can be defined in physiologically, culturally, cognitively. Adolescence is defined as a culturally constructed period that generally begins as individuals reach sexual maturity and ends when the individual has established an identity as an adult within his or her social context (Wolman, 1998:56). In this stage, a child can grow up to four inches and gain eight to ten pounds per year. By the end of adolescence, children may gain a total of seven to nine inches in height

and as much as forty or fifty pounds in weight. Development during this period is governed by the pituitary gland through the release of the hormones testosterone (males) and estrogen (females) (Gullotta, Adams and Markstrom, 2000:32). Different roles, behaviors, ideologies, complex cognitive skills, ability to solve more abstract and hypothetical problems are developed in this stage.

3.4.6. Early Adulthood

After the upheaval of the early 30s, the middle to late 30s (roughly ages 34-39) are often characterized by early adulthood. Early adulthood extends from age eighteen to approximately age forty, when the physical and psychological changes with accompany the beginning of the loss of reproductive capacity appear (Hurlock, 1974:228). According to Erikson, the young adult stage involves the personal need for intimacy and sex (Goldberg, Roy and John, 1995:14). In modern societies, young adults in their late teens and early 20s encounter a number of issues as they finish school and begin to hold full-time jobs and take on other responsibilities of adulthood. The person must learn how to form intimate relationships, both in friendship and love in this stage. The development of this skill relies on the resolution of other stages (Orenstein, 1994:44). It may be hard to establish intimacy if one has not developed trust or a sense of identity. If this skill is not learned the alternative is alienation, isolation, a fear of commitment, and the inability to depend on others.

3.4.7. Middle Age Stage

Middle adulthood generally refers to the period between ages 40 to 65 (Newman

and Newman, 1997:32). During this period, the middle-aged experience a conflict between generativity and stagnation. They may either feel a sense of contributing to the next generation and their community or a sense of purposelessness. Physically, the middle-aged experience a decline in muscular strength, reaction time, sensory keenness, and cardiac output. Also, women experience menopause and a sharp drop in the hormone estrogen. Men do have an equivalent to menopause; it is called "Andropause," which is a hormone fluctuation with physical and psychological effects similar to menopause (Baltes, Reese and Lipsett, 1980:65-110). Lowered testosterone levels result in mood swings and a decline in sperm count and speed of ejaculation and erection. Most men and women remain capable of sexual satisfaction after middle age.

3.4.8. Old Age Stage

This stage generally refers to those over 75 years. During old age, people experience a conflict between integrity vs. despair. When reflecting on their life, they either feel a sense of accomplishment or failure (Brookfield, 1986:203). Physically, older people experience a decline in muscular strength, reaction time, stamina, hearing, distance perception, and the sense of smell. They also are more susceptible to severe diseases such as cancer and pneumonia due to a weakened immune system. Mental disintegration may also occur, leading to Dementia or Alzheimer's disease (Knowles, 1970:21). However, partially due to a lifetime's accumulation of antibodies, the elderly are less likely to suffer from common diseases such as the cold.

3.5. Child Development: Different Perspectives

Several theories of child development and learning have influenced discussions of their development. Three perspectives have used to explain the child development and school readiness. The main purpose of these perspectives is to develop a child for the schooling stage. These three include the maturationist, environmentalist, and constructivist perspectives of development (Powell, 1991: 13).

3.5.1. Maturationist Perspective

The maturationist perspective was advanced by the work of Arnold Gessell. Maturationists believe that development is a biological process that occurs automatically in predictable, sequential stages over time (Hunt, 1969: 9). This perspective leads many educators and families to assume that young children will acquire knowledge naturally and automatically as they grow physically and become older, provided that they are healthy (Demarest, Reisner, Anderson, Humphrey, Farquhar, & Stein, 1993: 3).

School readiness, according to maturationists, is a state at which all healthy young children arrive when they can perform tasks such as reciting the alphabet and counting; these tasks are required for learning more complex tasks such as reading and arithmetic. Because development and school readiness occur naturally and automatically, maturationists believe that the best practices are for parents to teach young children to recite the alphabet and count while being patient and waiting for children to become ready for kindergarten. If a child is developmentally unready for school, maturationists might suggest referrals to transitional kindergartens,

retention, or holding children out of school for an additional year (DeCos, 1997:29). These practices are sometimes used by schools, educators, and parents when a young child developmentally lags behind his or her peers. The young child's underperformance is interpreted as the child needing more time to acquire the knowledge and skills needed to perform at the level of his or her peers.

3.5.2. Environmentalist Perspective

Theorists such as John Watson, B.F. Skinner, and Albert Bandura contributed greatly to the environmentalist perspective of development. Environmentalists believe that the child's environment shapes learning and behavior; in fact, human behavior, development, and learning are thought of as reactions to the environment. This perspective leads many families, schools, and educators to assume that young children develop and acquire new knowledge by reacting to their surroundings.

Kindergarten readiness, according to the environmentalists, is the age or stage when young children can respond appropriately to the environment of the school and the classroom (e.g., rules and regulations, curriculum activities, positive behavior in group settings, and directions and instructions from teachers and other adults in the school). The ability to respond appropriately to this environment is necessary for young children to participate in teacher-initiated learning activities. Success is dependent on the child following instructions from the teacher or the adult in the classroom. Many environmentalist-influenced educators and parents believe that young children learn best by rote activities, such as reciting the

alphabet over and over, copying letters, and tracing numbers. This viewpoint is evident in kindergarten classrooms where young children are expected to sit at desks arranged in rows and listen attentively to their teachers. At home, parents may provide their young children with workbooks containing such activities as coloring or tracing letters and numbers--activities that require little interaction between parent and child. When young children are unable to respond appropriately to the classroom and school environment, they often are labeled as having some form of learning disabilities and are tracked in classrooms with curriculum designed to control their behaviors and responses.

3.5.3. Constructivist Perspective

The constructivist perspective of readiness and development was advanced by theorists such as Jean Piaget, Maria Montessori, and Lev Vygotsky. Although their work varies greatly, each articulates a similar context of learning and development. They are consistent in their belief that learning and development occur when young children interact with the environment and people around them (Hunt, 1969:9). Constructivists view young children as active participants in the learning process. In addition, constructivists believe that young children initiate most of the activities required for learning and development. Because active interaction with the environment and people are necessary for learning and development, constructivists believe that children are ready for school when they can initiate many of the interactions they have with the environment and people around them. Constructivist-influenced schools and educators pay a lot of attention to the

physical environment and the curriculum of the early childhood classroom. Kindergarten classrooms often are divided into different learning centers and are equipped with developmentally appropriate materials for young children to play with and manipulate. Teachers and adults have direct conversations with children, children move actively from center to another, and daily activities are made meaningful through the incorporation of children's experiences into the curriculum. At home, parents engage their young children in reading and storytelling activities and encourage children's participation in daily household activities in a way that introduces such concepts as counting and language use. In addition, parents may provide young children with picture books containing very large print, and toys that stimulate interaction (such as building blocks and large puzzles). When a young child encounters difficulties in the learning process, the constructivist approach is neither to label the child nor to retain him or her; instead, constructivists give the child some individualized attention and customize the classroom curriculum to help the child address his or her difficulties.

Today, most researchers have come to understand child development and the learning process as articulated by the constructivists. However, this view has not been widely translated into practice. Many kindergarten teachers and parents still believe that young children are not ready for school unless they can recite the alphabet, count, and have the ability to follow instructions from adults.

3.6. Theories of Child Development

Child development theories are an organized set of principles that are designed to

explain and predict something. Theories of child development provide a useful framework for thinking about human growth, development and learning. Over the years, psychologists and other scientists have devised a variety of theories with which to explain observations and discoveries about child development. Major Child development theories are;

3.6.1. Psychoanalytic Theory of Child Development

A famous and well known child development theory is psychoanalytical theory. This theory originated with the work of Sigmund Freud (Rice, 1990:9). Through his clinical work with patients suffering from mental illness, Freud came to believe that childhood experiences and unconscious desires influenced behaviour. According to Freud, child development is described as a series of 'psychosexual stages; oral, anal, phallic, latency and genital. Each stage involves the satisfaction of a *libidinal* desire and conflicts can have a lifelong influence on personality and behavior (Gresser, 1994:225).

3.6.2. Theory of Psychosocial Development

Psychosocial development theory proposed by Erik Erikson is one of the best-known theories of child development. In this theory, Erikson describes the impact of social experience across the eight stages; Trust vs. Mistrust, Autonomy vs. Shame and Doubt, Initiative vs. Guilt, Industry vs. Inferiority, Identity vs. Confusion, Intimacy vs. Isolation, Generativity vs. Stagnation and Integrity vs. Despair of whole lifespan of a child. For this reason, it is also called a eight-stage of man theory (Erikson, 1950: 170). One of the main elements of Erikson's theory

is the development of ego identity. According to Erikson, ego identity is the conscious sense of self that develop through social interaction. It is constantly changing due to new experience and information in our daily interactions with others. In addition to ego identity, Erikson also believed that a sense of competence also motivates behaviours and actions. Each stage in Erikson's theory is concentrated with becoming competent in an area of life. If the stage is handleed well, the person will feel a sense of mastery, which he sometimes referred to as ego strength or ego equality and if the stage is managed poorly, the person will emerge with a sense of inadequacy ((Erikson, 1950: 178-179).

3.6.3. Theory of Cognitive Development

Cognitive development theory is a famous child development theory proposed by Piaget who was a French speaking Swiss theorist. He pointed out in his theory that children learn through actively constructing knowledge through hands-on experience (White and Livesay, 2005:9). Piaget's theory describes the cognitive development of children. Cognitive development involves changes in cognitive process and abilities. He suggested that the adult's role in helping the child learn was to provide appropriate materials for the child to interact and construct (White and Livesay 2005:11).

3.6.4. Cultural-Historical Theory of Child Development

Cultural-Historical Theory developed by Vygotsky, a theorist of the former Soviet Union. He posited that children learn through hands-on experience, as Piaget suggested. However, unlike Piaget, he claimed that timely and sensitive

intervention by adults when a child is on the edge of learning a new task (called the Zone of Proximal Development) could help children learn new tasks (Kohlberg, 1987:34). This technique is called "scaffolding," because it builds upon knowledge children already have with new knowledge that adults can help the child learn (Wood, 1978:9). Vygotsky, strongly focused on the role of culture in determining the child's pattern of development. He argued that "Every function in the child's cultural development appears twice: first, on the social level, and later, on the individual level; first, between people (inter psychological) and then inside the child (intra psychological). This applies equally to voluntary attention, to logical memory, and to the formation of concepts. All the higher functions originate as actual relationships between individuals (Maslow, 1987:27).

3.6.5. Ecological Systems Theory

Another important child development theory is ecological systems theory. It is also called "Development in Context" or "Human Ecology" theory. Ecological Systems Theory, originally formulated by Urie Bronfenbrenner specifies four; Microsystem, Mesosystem, Exosystem, and Macrosystem types of nested environmental systems (Bronfenbrenner, 1979:4). The micro system refers to the activities, roles and interactions of the child and his immediate single setting such as the home, day-care center, or school. For example, in the home, the child's development may be encouraged by the mother's sensitivity to his moves toward independence. In turn, his moves toward independence may encourage the mother to think of new ways to promote this kind of behaviour (Craig and Kermis,

1995:17). The mesosystem, or second level, comprises the interrelations among two or more micro systems. Thus, the child's development is affected by the formal and informal connections between home and school, or among home, school, and his neighborhood peer group. For example, a child's progress at day care may be affected positively by his parents' close communication with the teachers there. Similarly, the attentiveness of his day care teachers is likely to benefit the child's interactions at home (Craig and Kermis, 1995:18). The exosystem, or third level, refers to the social settings or organizations beyond the child's immediate experience that nevertheless affect him. For example, his mother may be employed by a company that allows her to work at home several days a week. Such flexibility may enable her to spend more time with her child and so indirectly promotes his developments. At the same time, her being able to be with him more may make her less tense and therefore, more productive on the job (Craig and Kermis, 1995:18). The macro system, or outermost level, does not refer to a specific setting, but comprises the values, laws, and customs of the culture or society the child lives in. For example, laws providing for the inclusion of handicapped children in mainstream classes are likely to profoundly affect the educational and social development of both 'disabled' and 'normal' children in such classes (Craig and Kermis, 1995:18). Each system contains roles, norms and rules that can powerfully shape development and greatly help the children to become socialized (Bronfenbrenner, 1979:4). Since its publication in 1979, Bronfenbrenner's major statement of this theory, *The Ecology of Human*

Development has had widespread influence on the way psychologists and others approach the study of human beings and their environments. As a result of this conceptualization of development, these environments from the family to economic and political structures have come to be viewed as part of the life course from childhood through adulthood (Smith, 1983:15).

3.6.6. Attachment Theory

Attachment theory, originally developed by John Bowlby, focuses on close, intimate, emotionally meaningful relationships (Bowlby, 1969:194). Bowlby believed that attachment is a biological system or powerful survival impulse that evolved to ensure the survival of the infant. A child who is threatened or stressed will move toward caregivers who create a sense of physical, emotional and psychological safety for the individual (Bowlby, 1988:3). Attachment feeds off of body contact and familiarity. During the 1970's psychologist Mary Ainsworth further expanded upon Bowlby's groundbreaking work in her now famous "Strange Situation" study. He concluded in his study that there were three major styles of attachment: secure attachment, ambivalent-insecure attachment and avoidant-insecure attachment (Ainsworth, 1978:25). Unfortunately, there are situations that inhibit a child from forming attachments. Some babies are raised without the stimulation and attention of a regular caregiver, or locked away under conditions of abuse or extreme neglect (Myers, 2008:29). The possible short-term effects of this deprivation are anger, despair, detachment, and temporary delay in intellectual development. Long-term effects include increased aggression, clinging

behavior, detachment, psychosomatic disorders, and an increased risk of depression as an adult (Hill, 2001:3).

3.6.7. Kohlberg's Theory of Moral Development

Moral development theory is an interesting theory in both psychology and education. Psychologist Lawrence Kohlberg modified and expanded upon Piaget's work to form a theory that explained the development of moral reasoning (Kohlberg, 1987:12). Piaget described a two-stage process of moral development, while Kohlberg theory of moral development outlined six-stages within three different levels. In this theory, he proposed that moral development is a continual process that occurs throughout the lifespan.

On the above review, it can be said that human development is a lifelong process. It starts from the embryonic period and continues up to death. To analyzing the development stage of human being, different theories have introduced by the psychologist and scientist. Major theories have been discussed in the above section in this chapter. It is clear that no single theory could explain all aspects of child development. Different theories have highlighted the different aspects of a child like; psychosexual aspect, cognitive development aspect, ecological aspect and so on. It is evident that these theories are important for analysis of child socialization. Thus the researcher, to understand the proper socialization of the child considered these aspects of child development.

Chapter Four

Theoretical Explanation about Socialization of Children

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Theoretical Explanation about Socialization of Children

4.1. Introduction

Socialization is a powerful factor that helps the human child to bring about social conformity. It is an effective instrument of creating a new generation of our expectations. Without socialization, a human child can not be a social being from biological being. When a human child comes from the almighty into the world, he does not know anything about society. Gradually he learns values, norms, rules and regulation of society. Thus he becomes a functioning member of society. The process of becoming social being is called socialization. Working mothers are usually faced the socialization's problem of their children. So, the theoretical explanations like concept, types, process about socialization have been described in this chapter.

4.2. Concept of Socialization

Human infants are born without any culture. They must be transformed by their parents, teachers, and others into cultural and socially adept animals. The general process of acquiring culture is referred to as socialization. According to C. N. Shankar Rao-Man is not social but also cultural. It is the culture that provides opportunities for man to develop the personality. Development of personality is not an automatic process. Every society prescribes its own ways and means of giving social training to its new born members so that they may develop their own personality. This social training is called socialization (Rao, 2006:205). John A.

Clausen highlights the socialization as a process of inheriting norms, customs and ideologies. It may provide the individual with the skills and habits necessary for participating within their own society; a society itself is formed through a plurality of shared norms, customs, values, traditions, social roles, symbols and languages. Socialization is thus the means by which social and cultural continuity are attained (Clausen, 1968:5). Joel Charon also says that socialization refers to all learning regardless of setting or age of the individual. Socialization is the process by which we learn the ways of a particular group. It is the process where by people acquires personality and learns the way of life of their society. Essentially, one has to learn culture. Learning culture encompasses all the truths, values, rules, and goals that people share with one another (Charon, 1987:63-69). Mortimer and Roberta have explained that socialization is seen as a process of acquisition of appropriate norms, attitudes, self-images, values, and role behaviors that enable acceptance in the group and effective performance of new roles; in this framework, socialization is seen as a conservative force, permitting the perpetuation of the social organization in spite of the turn-over of individual members through time (Mortimer & Roberta, 1978: 54). According to David Holland- socialization is the process of self develops as a result of cognitive evaluations of costs and benefits; this understanding assumes that the socialize, in approaching new roles, is an independent and active negotiator for advantages in relationships with role partners and membership groups (Holland, 1970:415-427). Long & Jeffrey have mentioned that socialization is a series of stages in which the individual learns to participate

in various levels of organization of society; this theory contends that the child internalizes a cognitive frame of reference for interpersonal relations and a common system of expressive symbolism in addition to a moral conscience; this approach was advocated by Talcott Parsons (Long & Jeffrey, 1985: 39-49).

In the above review it can be said that socialization is a process of inducting the child into the social world. It consists of the complex processes of interaction through which the individual learns the habits, beliefs, skills and standards of judgement that are necessary for his effective participation in social groups and communities.

4.3. Types of Socialization

Socialization is a life long process that begins after birth of a human child and continues up to the death. It takes place at different times and places throughout life. The socialization that a person undergoes in the course of his lifetime may be one or more different types. The types of socialization are:

4.3.1. Primary Socialization

The most essential and basic type of socialization is primary socialization. It takes place in the early years of life of the newborn individual. According to James M. Henslin-Primary socialization is the process whereby people learn the attitudes, values, and actions appropriate to individuals as members of a particular culture (Henslin, 2004:71). It concentrates on the teaching of language and cognitive skills, the internalization of cultural norms and values, establishment of emotional ties, and the appreciation of other roles and perspectives (Rao, 2006:208).

Internalization of norms is the most important aspect of primary socialization. Internalization of norms refers to the process in which the norms of society become a part of the personality of the individual. The main purpose of the primary socialization is to help the human child to internalize the social norms and values.

4.3.2. Secondary Socialization

Secondary socialization refers to the process of learning what appropriate behavior is as a member of a smaller group within the larger society. It is usually associated with teenagers and adults, and involves smaller changes than those occurring in primary socialization e.g. entering a new profession, relocating to a new environment or society.

4.3.3. Anticipatory Socialization

Men not only learn the culture of the group of which they are immediate members. They may also learn the culture of groups to which they do not belong. Such a process whereby men socialize themselves into the culture of a group with the anticipation of joining that group is referred to as anticipatory socialization. Appelbaum & Chambliss explains that anticipatory socialization refers to the processes of socialization in which a person rehearses for future positions, occupations, and social relationships (Appelbaum & Chambliss, 1997:76). For example; a person who intends to join the army may start doing physical exercises to toughen his body and learning the manners of army personnel to become one with them later.

4.3.4. Developmental Socialization

This kind of socialization is based on the achievements of primary socialization. It builds on already acquired skills and knowledge as the adult progresses through new situations such as marriage or new jobs. These require new expectations, obligations and roles (Chinoy, 1961:23). The main theme of this socialization is to help the human being to adjust in new learning and blend with old in a relatively smooth and continuous process of development.

4.3.5. Re-Socialization

Re-socialization refers to the process of discarding former behavior patterns and accepting new ones as part of a transition in one's life. This occurs throughout the human life cycle (Westen, 2002: 113). Re-socialization can be an intense experience, with the individual experiencing a sharp break with their past and needing to learn and be exposed to radically different norms and values. An example might be the experience of a young man or woman leaving home to join the military, or a religious convert internalizing the beliefs and rituals of a new faith. An extreme example would be the process by which a transsexual learns to function socially in a dramatically altered gender role.

4.4. Stages of Socialization

The new born child is not taught all the things about social life at once. It proceeds from simplicity to complexity. During the early stages of life (infancy and childhood) socialization takes place within the simple limited social world. Gradually this social world becomes broader and broader and the child is

confronted with several things to learn and to adjust through different stages. Socialization consists of four stages from infancy to adulthood (Rao, 2006:215). These are as follows;

4.4.1. The First Stage

This stage begins with the birth of the child and continuous up to the completion of 1 year. Before birth the child in the mother's womb is in the foetal form and is warm and comfortable. At birth the little infant must breathe, must exert him, to be fed and he must be protected from cold, wet and other discomforts. For everything the child cries a great deal. By means of crying the child establishes its oral dependency. The child here develops some definite expectations about the feeding time. The child also learns to give signals for his felt needs. In this stage the child is involved in himself and his mother. For the other members of the family, the child is little more than a possession.

4.4.2. The Second Stage

The second stage normally begins soon after the 1 year and is completed during the 3 year. It is here that the child learns that he cannot depend entirely on the mother and he has to take some degree of care for himself. Toilet training is the main focus of new concern. The child is taught to do some tasks such as toileting, keeping clothes clean etc. The child in this stage internalizes two separate roles-his own role and that of his mother. The child receives 'care' and also 'love' from the mother and learns to give love in return. The child is enabled to distinguish between correct and incorrect actions. In this stage the socializing agents, that is

the mother plays the dual role. The dual role of the mother helps the child to participate in a more complex social system. The mother 'represents' the larger social system in relation to the smaller. Further the mother as a socializing agent mediates between the sub-system and the larger system sometimes yielding to the child's demands and some other times resisting its tendencies.

4.4.3. The Third Stage

This stage mostly starts from the fourth year of the child and extends up to puberty (the age of 12 or 13 years). It is in the stage the child becomes the member of the family as a whole. It is here the child has to identify himself with the social role ascribed to him on the basis of his sex. According to Freud, the boy develops the 'Oedipus complex'-the feeling of jealousy towards father and love towards mother. In the same way, the girl develops the 'Electra Complex' the feeling of jealousy towards the mother and love towards the father (Fisher, 1977:39). In this stage sufficient social pressures are brought on the child to identify with the right sex. Boys begin to be rewarded, for behaving like boys and girls are rewarded for acting like girls. After the age of six the child is able to understand the sexual difference. The boy tries to identify himself with the father and the girl with the mother. In this stage the boy makes three kinds of identification- i) He identifies with his father and brother (sex-role identification) ii) He identifies with all his siblings (role of child in the family) iii). He identifies with the whole family as a member. Thus in this stage the child internalizes clearly his role-the role of the father, mother and siblings of each sex.

4.4.4. The Fourth Stage

The fourth stage starts with the period of adolescence. Due to the physiological changes that take place within the individual this stage assumes importance. During this stage the boys and girls try to become free from parental control. At the same time they cannot completely escape from their dependence on their parents. Hence they may experience a kind of strain or conflict in themselves. They want to be free in doing various activities. But the parents continue to control many of their activities. This is particularly true of sexual activity.

4.5. Agents of Socialization

Social maturity is molded or shaped through the process of socialization. The process of socialization is operative not only in childhood but throughout the whole life. It is a process which begins at birth and continues till the death of the individual. Agents of socialization are people and/or groups that influence self concepts, emotions, attitudes and behavior. Different sociologists have pointed out the different types of agents. James M. Henslin has mentioned the family, the school, peer groups, mass media, religion and work place as the agents of socialization (Henslin, 1999:76-81). According to Talcott Parsons and Robert Bales-The family, Education, religion, peer groups, mass media, work place and public institutions are the basic agents of socialization (Parsons and Bales, 1956:3). The following agents that have been established by culture which socialize the new born child:

4.5.1. Family and Parents

The process of socialization begins for every human being in the family. Here the parental and particularly the maternal influence on the child are very great. The intimate relationship between the mother and the child has a great impact on the shaping of child's abilities and capacities. As the first persons parents introduce to the child the culture of his group (Johnson, 1961:5). The child receives additional communications from his older siblings, i.e. brothers and sisters.

4.5.2. Peer Group or Age mates

Peers refer to people who are roughly the same age and/or who share other social characteristics (e.g., students in a college class). It also includes those groups made up of the contemporaries of the child, his associates in school, in playground and in street (Robertson, 1989:35). He learns from these children, facts and facets of culture that they have previously learnt at different times from their parents. The members of peer groups have other sources of information about the culture. It is very influential in the socialization of child compared to other agents of socialization.

4.5.3. Teachers

The highly significant and important agent of socialization is the teachers. The teachers play their role in socialization when the child enters the school. It is in the school that the culture is formally transmitted and acquired, in which the wisdom and the learning, the science and art, of one generation is passed on to the next generation. It is only the formal knowledge of the culture that is transmitted there

but most of its premises as well-its ethical sentiments, its political attitudes, its customs and taboos. The children may uncritically absorb the culture to which their teachers give expression.

4.5.4. Literature

Another important agent of socialization is literature. This is, of course, found only in literate societies and that is the literature. The civilization that we share is constructed of words or literature. It influences the behaviour and increase the knowledge of human child.

4.5.5. Mass Media

The powerful agent of socialization is mass media of communication. The media can teach norms and values by way of symbolic reward and punishment for different kinds of behaviour as represented in the media. An alternative view is that it is a learning process whereby we all learn how to behave in certain situations and the expectations which go with a given role or status in society. Thus the media are continually offering pictures of life and models of behaviour in advance of actual experience (McQuail 2005: 494).

4.6. Theories of Socialization

Socialization is very important factor in the process of personality formation. While much of human personality is the result of our genes, the socialization process can mold it in particular directions by encouraging specific beliefs and attitudes as well as selectively providing experience. In the middle of the twentieth century, socialization was a key idea in the dominant American functionalist

tradition of sociology. Talcott Parsons and a group of colleagues in the US developed a comprehensive theory of society that responded to the emergence of modernity in which the concept of socialization was a central component. One of their interests was to try to understand the relationship between the individual and society – a distinctive theme in US sociology since the end of the nineteenth century (Parsons and Bales 1956:12). Ely Chinoy, in a 1960s standard textbook on sociology, says that socialization serves two major functions: On the one hand, it prepares the individual for the roles he is to play, providing him with the necessary repertoire of habits, beliefs, and values, the appropriate patterns of emotional response and the modes of perception, the requisite skills and knowledge. On the other hand, by communicating the contents of culture from one generation to the other, it provides for its persistence and continuity (Chinoy, 1961: 75). In this way, on the basis of personality formation of individual, different theories of socialization have been developed by the sociologist and psychologist. Major theories of socialization are:

4.6.1. Theory of 'Looking-Glass Self'

A famous theory of socialization is 'Looking-Glass Self' theory. It is proposed by a brilliant American social psychologist Charles Horton Cooley. He has discussed in this theory that the 'self' might be regarded as the internalized object representing one's own personality. In this theory, he has placed two primary propositions-(i). The mind is social, and (ii). Society is mental. Cooley has mentioned that self and social are two sides of the same coin. Our ideas, loyalties,

attitudes, and points of view are derived from others. One means of their transmission Cooley called the 'looking-glass self'. According to him, self-ideas or self-attitudes develop by a process of imagining what others think of us by a kind of 'looking-glass' process (Rao, 2006:212). A self-idea of this sort seems to have three main elements; (i) The imagination of our appearance to the other person (ii) The imagination of his judgement that (imagined) appearance (iii) Some kind of self-feeling such as pride or mortification (Parke & Buriel, 1998:32). Cooley has stated that the individual develops the idea of self through contact with the primary group, particularly with the members of the family. In other words, the child gets his conception of his self, and later of the kind of person he is, by means of what he imagines others take him to be. Cooley, therefore called the child's idea of himself the 'looking-glass self' (Pillemer and Bugental and Goodnow, 1998:7). The child conceives of himself as better or worse in varying degrees, depending upon the attitudes of others towards him. Thus, the child's view of himself may be affected by the kind name given by his family or friends. A child called 'angel' by his mother gets a notion of himself which differs from that of a child called 'rascal'. The 'looking-glass self' assures the child which aspects of the assumed roles will bring him praise, which blame; which ones are acceptable to others, which ones unacceptable. People normally have their own attitudes towards social roles and adopt the same. The child first tries out these on others and in turn adopts towards his self. The self thus arises when the person becomes an 'object' to himself. He is now capable of taking the same view of himself that he infers others

do. The moral order which governs the human society, in large measure, depends upon the 'looking-glass self'. Thus it is clear that we are prone to look at ourselves through other's eyes.

4.6.2. Theory of 'Self'

Another important theory of socialization is 'theory of self' proposed by the famous philosopher and psychologist at the University of Chicago, George Herbert Mead. He described in this theory that the society is the determining factor in the socialization of the individual. The individual becomes aware of himself through interaction (Peterson & Haan, 1999: 7). According to Mead, children typically pass through three stages in developing a full sense of selfhood: the play stage, in which the child plays roles, modeled on a significant other; the game stage; and the generalized other stage (Michael & Zanden, 2000:3).

Role-Playing Stage:

Mead has said that the individual in order to get a picture of himself plays the roles of others. In seeing himself as others see him, the individual is actually putting himself in the place of others and imagining what their response might be. This is role playing stage of self development.

Significant Others

The new born infant has needs like those for food, clothing that press for satisfaction. The mother satisfies these needs and the child comes to depend upon her and 'identifies himself' with her emotionally. But in course of time, the child differentiates himself from his mother and comes to know that he has a sub-

ordinate role to the superior role of the mother. He differentiates his father from his mother and then integrates him into the social system. In this way, the number of significant others increase for the child.

The Generalized Others

The child not only differentiates itself from others but also begins to act towards himself from the viewpoint of the whole group. The child tries to understand the relative roles of various individuals involved in the same social context. The child begins to anticipate the behaviour of all the members of a group in a particular context. In other words, the child generalizes the roles of others. For example, if the child is playing the role of a bridegroom in its game of marriage, he must know not only the role of the bridegroom but also that of the bride, the father in law, priest, relatives etc. In this way the child learns to generalize the other roles.

4.6.3. The Theory of the 'Definition of the Situation'

The theory of the 'definition of the situation' anticipated by W. I. Thomas (Thomas and Chess, 1977:3). The views of Thomas concerning the process of socialization can be understood by an analysis of his theory of the "the definition of the situation". According to Thomas, the situation in which the child finds himself has already been defined for him. The rules according to which he must behave are determined by the group into which he is born. The child can not behave according to his own whims and fancies. He must act according to the expectations of the group and compromise his wishes with those of the group. Thomas has described in this theory that any deliberate action calls for an appraisal

of the situation within which the person finds himself. Once the situation is defined for him, he can act appropriately in it in the normal course of life. He has also pointed out that in infancy situations are defined for the infant by the mother and other members. The parents define the situation through speech and other signs and pressures. They may instruct; “*Be quiet*”, “*Mind your mother*”, “*Pray to god*” and so on (Rao, 2006:214). The child’s wishes and activities are inhibited by these instructions or definitions. Thomas has argued that by definitions within the family, by playmates, in the school, by formal instruction and by sign of approval and disapproval, the child that is the growing member, learns the norms of his society.

4.6.4. The Theory of ‘Collective Representations’

The theory of ‘Collective representations’ proposed by Durkheim. In this theory Durkheim has emphasized that the individuals becomes socialized by adopting the behaviour of his group. By ‘collective representation’ he meant the body of experiences, ideas and ideals of a group upon which the individual unconsciously depends for ideas, attitudes, and behaviour (Rosenbaum, 1975:48). Durkheim has stated that the collective representation have a great force because they are collectively created and developed. These collective representations or social values directly or indirectly mould the character and the behaviour of the new born child.

4.7. Socialization of Children in Bangladesh

Bangladesh is one of the front line underdeveloped countries in the world. In

Bangladesh population structure children represent a good proportion. In the composition of Bangladesh population children below the age of 14 years represent a good proportion i.e. 39.4 percent (Taher, 2006:1). Children naturally constitute a dependent group and in many cases they are vulnerable too. Since they are the products of nature and nurture, the society has the obligation to recognize the right to a carefree and happy time for them in addition to having policies for their regular career provisions. Therefore, the responsibility of fulfilling their fundamental needs and drives rests with the society and with the family in particular for their proper growth and development. Apart from the bare and common human needs such as food, shelter, clothing, health, education and recreation some socio-psychological needs also require to be consciously fulfilled for better growth and development. By parents, family member, peer group, teacher and mass media are transmitted culture to the new born child and socialized the human child. At present the agents are not properly perform their role in the process of socialization of the children in our country. Parents are the main agent of the children's socialization not only in our country but also all over the world. But this agent is not performing proper role for socialization of children, due to conflicts around dowry and other reasons like extra marital relations, divorce, separation or remarriage. Often it takes place between the parents leading the children to desertion or afloat (Sarker, 2001:86). In addition, lack of nutritious food, inadequate schooling, poor group support, bad housing, poor health facilities, lack of constructive recreational facilities, and often the presence of good many

children in a family make it unmanageable for the parents to properly take care of children. A host for such factors, therefore, influences the growing children implicitly or explicitly for dragging into antisocial or delinquent behaviour (Mia and Alauddin, 1973:5). As an agent, education system also fails to make the needed adjustment of the children to the social norms and values of Bangladesh. The courses or curricula of our education system having been outdated seldom meet the needs of the present day. As a result the children are not being able to complete the proper socialization. Mass media is a powerful and influential agent of socialization. At present, communication media particularly movie, obscene film, the availability of pornographic materials and the widespread VCR shows the country are constantly influencing the existing social norms and moral values. Western influence on super culture and the inadequacy or disintegration of social control measures also tends to divert the children from our conventional norms, beliefs and practices. So it creates a problem in the socialization of children in our country. The Asian and Pacific Regional Meeting singled out unemployment, under employment, problems related to urban migration, exploitation, illiteracy, inadequate education and vocational training, juvenile delinquency, drug abuse, the breakdown of traditional relationship and support systems and the progressive disappearance of spiritual, cultural and family and community oriented values as the substantial problems confronting the children today (United Nations, 1983:2). In the above review, it can be concluded that socialization is a powerful factor that helps to bring about social conformity. It is equally true that socialization is an

effective instrument of creating a new generation of our expectations. But failures of socialization on the one hand, and inappropriate or wrong way of socialization often lead to serious consequences including problems of personality. As a whole it can be said that the children of our country are not being properly socialized due to the absence of proper functioning of socialization's agents.

Chapter Five

Socio-economic Status of the Working Mothers in Bangladesh

Chapter Five

Socio-economic Status of the Working Mothers in Bangladesh

5.1. Introduction

About fifty percent people of Bangladesh are women. Most of them are not involved in income generating activities. They are involved in household work. After liberation, the numbers of working mother are increasing by every year in Bangladesh. Due to involvement in formal jobs, their socio-economic status is being improved. This chapter has been composed of the socio-economic status of working mothers in Bangladesh. Age, education, family size, occupation, monthly income, economic status, household's facilities of working mothers is being considered as parameter of their socio-economic condition.

5.2. Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents

5.2.1. Age Structure

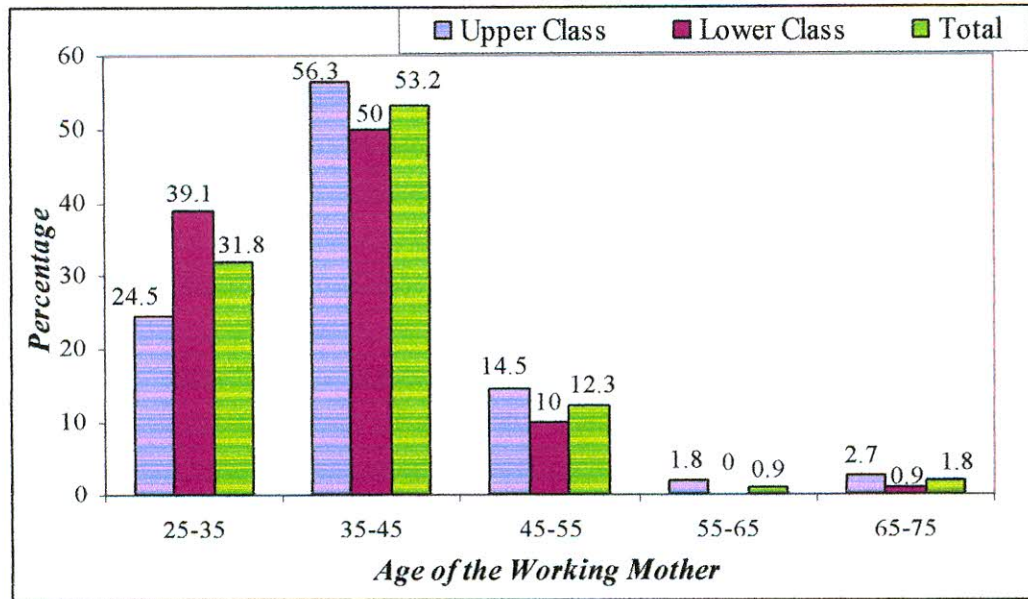
Age is an important factor to identify the socio-demographic situation of a man or woman. Because the working ability absolutely depends on the age structure. Those who are young in age, they are more active and capable of working and who are older in age; they are comparatively incapable of working. The upper class working mothers have mentioned their actual age, but the lower class working mothers totally could not mention their actual age. They reported their approximate age on the basis of the historical event like, year of marriage, war of independence and the born of their first child. It is seen from the Table and chart 5.1 that highest percentage (56.3 percent) of upper class respondent working

mothers of this study belongs to the age group of 35-45 years followed by the age groups of 25-35 years, 45-55 years, 55-65 years and 65-75 years and their percentage being 24.5, 14.5, 1.8 and 2.7. On the other hand, the highest percentage of Lower Class working mothers to the age group 25-45 years (79.1 percent). A clear difference is found in the age structure between the two classes of working mothers. Average age of the upper class working mothers is 41.1 years and the Lower Class working mothers is 38.09 years. Standard deviation of the upper class working mothers is higher compared to the Lower Class working mothers, 8.28 and 7.17 respectively. It indicates that the upper class working mothers is more aged compared to the Lower Class working mothers. As the upper class working mothers involved in work after completion their study, so naturally they are aged than the Lower Class working mothers.

Table 5.1 Age of the Working Mothers by Categories

Age (Year)	Working Mothers				Total	
	Upper Class		Lower Class			
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
25-35	27	24.5	43	39.1	70	31.8
35-45	62	56.3	55	50.0	117	53.2
45-55	16	14.5	11	10.0	27	12.3
55-65	2	1.8	0	.0	2	.9
65-75	3	2.7	1	0.9	4	1.8
Total	110	100.0	110	100.0	220	100.0
Average	41.1		38.09		39.60	
STD	8.28		7.17		7.88	

Chart-5.1 Age of the Working Mothers by Categories



5.2.2. Religious Affiliation

Religion is a great concern of human being. It is most important factor to influence total social system. Table-5.2 & Chart-5.2 presents the religious affiliation of respondents of the study.

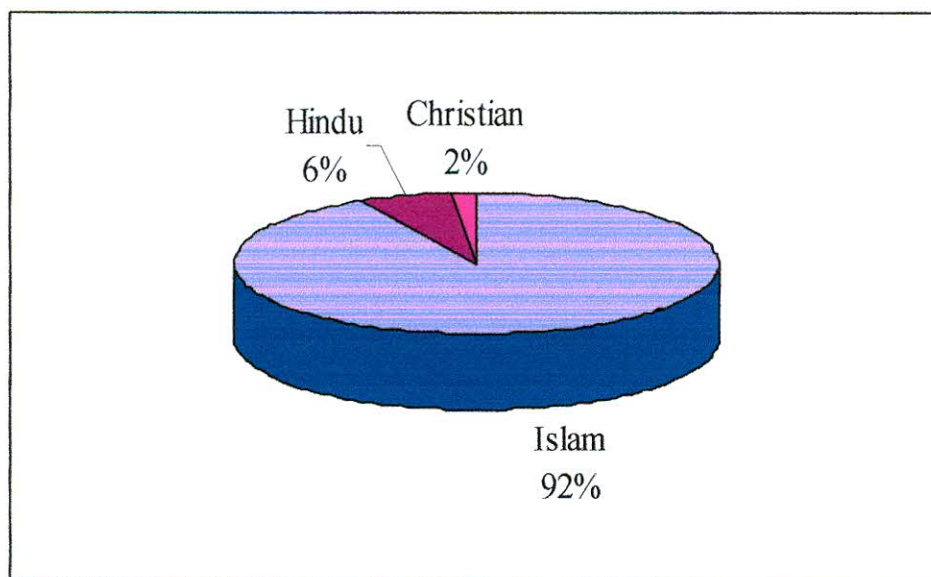
Table 5.2 Religious Status of the Working Mothers by Categories

Religion	Working Mothers				Total	
	Upper Class		Lower Class			
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Islam	107	97.3	96	87.3	203	92.4
Hindu	2	1.8	11	10.0	13	5.9
Christian	1	0.9	3	2.7	4	1.8
Total	110	100.0	110	100.0	220	100.0

It is clearly seen that majority of the working mothers are Muslims in both the class. About 97.3 percent upper class working mother is Muslim followed by 1.8 percent Hindu and 0.9 percent Christian. On the other hand, there are 87.3 percent Muslims, 10.0 percent Hindu and 2.7 percent Christian working mother in Lower

Class. Traditionally, Bangladesh is Muslim dominated country. Therefore, it has been reflected in the present study.

Chart-5.2 Religious Affiliation of the Working Mothers



5.2.3. Marital Status

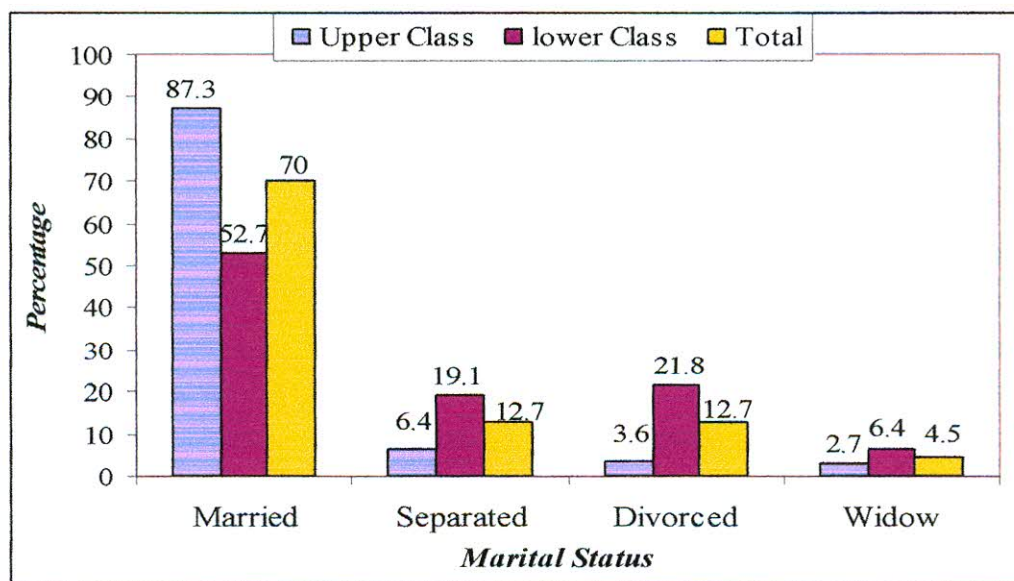
Marriage is a universal social institution that is composed by an adult man and woman to control and regulate their sexual life. All data have been collected from the working mothers who are absolutely married. In spite of being married, a mentionable number of working mother in upper class is living single (Table 5.3 & Chart 5.3).

Table 5.3. Marital Status of the Working Mothers by Categories

Marital Status	Working Mothers				Total	
	Upper Class		Lower Class			
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Married	96	87.3	58	52.7	154	70.0
Separated	7	6.4	21	19.1	28	12.7
Divorced	4	3.6	24	21.8	28	12.7
Widow	3	2.7	7	6.4	10	4.5
Total	110	100.0	110	100.0	220	100.0

About 12.7 percent of the upper class working mothers are found living single in the forms of deserted divorced, and widow and the rate of the Lower Class working mothers are higher (46.3 percent) in these categories. If more single living (deserted, separated, divorced and widow) is considered as the more vulnerability, the findings indicate that Lower Class working mother is more vulnerable compared to the upper class working mothers.

Chart-5.3: Marital Status of the Working Mothers by Categories



5.3. Socio-economic Characteristics of the Respondents

5.3.1. Educational Status

Education is a powerful tool in augmenting women's economic opportunities and self esteem through constructive interaction both within and outside the household (CIRDAP, 1998:17). Working facilities and socio-economic status of a mother are mostly depends on the level of education. Those mother are highly educated, they are involved in good job. It is seen from the table 5.4 and Chart 5.4.

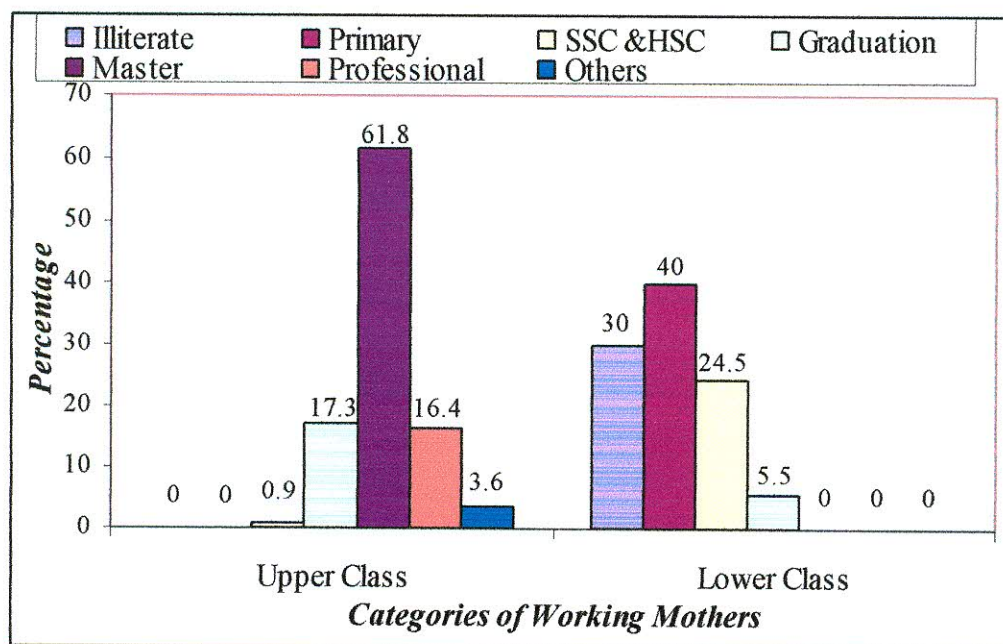
Table 5.4. Educational Status of the Working Mothers by Categories

Educational Status	Working Mothers				Total	
	Upper Class		Lower Class			
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Illiterate	0	.0	33	30.0	33	15.0
Primary	0	.0	44	40.0	44	20.0
S.S.C & H.S.C	1	.9	27	24.5	28	12.7
Graduation	19	17.3	6	5.5	25	11.4
Master Degree	68	61.8	0	.0	68	30.9
Professional Degree	18	16.4	0	.0	18	8.2
Others	4	3.6	0	.0	4	1.8
Total	110	100.0	110	100.0	220	100.0

**Professional degree includes MBBS, Engineering and others includes M.Phil, Ph.D*

Data indicate (Table-5.4) great difference between the two categories of working mother in terms of education. It is found that upper class working mother is higher educated (Graduation & Master degree) compared to the lower class working mother. It is 79.1 percent for the upper class and 5.5 percent for the lower class working mother. Most of the upper class working mother are master degree holder (61.8 percent) followed by 17.3 percent, 0.9 percent 16.4 percent and 3.4 percent have completed the graduation level, higher secondary, professional degree and others respectively (other includes Ph. D, M. Phil etc.). On the other hand, most of the lower class working mother has completed the primary education (40 percent) followed by 24.5 percent, 5.5 percent have completed the secondary & higher secondary and graduation level respectively. A significant number of working mother in this category is illiterate (30 percent). So in terms of education, the upper class working mothers are better off than the lower class working mothers.

Chart-5.4: Educational Status of the Working Mothers by Categories



5.3.2. Occupational Status

Occupation is an important factor of measuring status of an able bodied person. Working mothers pursue the different types of occupation on the basis of their educational level. It is seen from the table-5.5 that most of the upper class working mothers are 1st class service holder, 39.1 percent professional service holder (Doctor, Engineer and Teacher etc.), 13.6 percent businessman and 5.5 percent 2nd class service holder. On the other hand, the highest number (34.5 percent) of lower class working mothers involved in day labour, followed by 27.3 percent, 25.5 percent and 12.5 percent are maid servant, 3rd & 4th class service holder and businessman respectively.

Table 5.5. Occupation of the Working Mothers by Category

Occupational Status	Working Mothers				Total	
	Upper Class		Lower Class			
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
1st Class Service	46	41.8	0	.0	46	20.9
Professional Service	43	39.1	0	.0	43	19.5
Day Labourer	0	.0	38	34.5	38	17.3
Maid Servant	0	.0	30	27.3	30	13.6
Business	15	13.6	14	12.7	29	13.2
3rd & 4th Class Service	0	.0	28	25.5	28	12.7
2nd Class Service	6	5.5	0	.0	6	2.7
Total	110	100.0	110	100.0	220	100.0
Chi-Square	Value=191.03		D.F=6		Significance=.000	

**Professional Service includes doctor, engineer and teacher.*

A chi-square test was done to examine statistically whether the difference of upper class and lower working mother are remained or not. It is found that there is difference between two categories of working mothers and it is statistically significant as the value is 191.03, degree of freedom 6 and significance .000.

5.3.3. Monthly Income

Income is an important index of measuring socio-economic condition of a person or a family. But it is generally difficult to figure out the monthly income properly. There is a word like proverb in Bangladesh that “it should not to ask about the salary”. For this reason, many of the people in Bangladesh considered their income as confidential matter. Since, with very few exception, maximum working mother are in formal job, they were able to mention their monthly income. It is seen from the table and chart 5.6 & 5.5 that maximum (52.7 percent) working mother’s monthly income is between BDT. 1-10,000, while only 3 working mothers’ monthly income is above BDT. 50,000/=. A significant number (45.9 percent) of

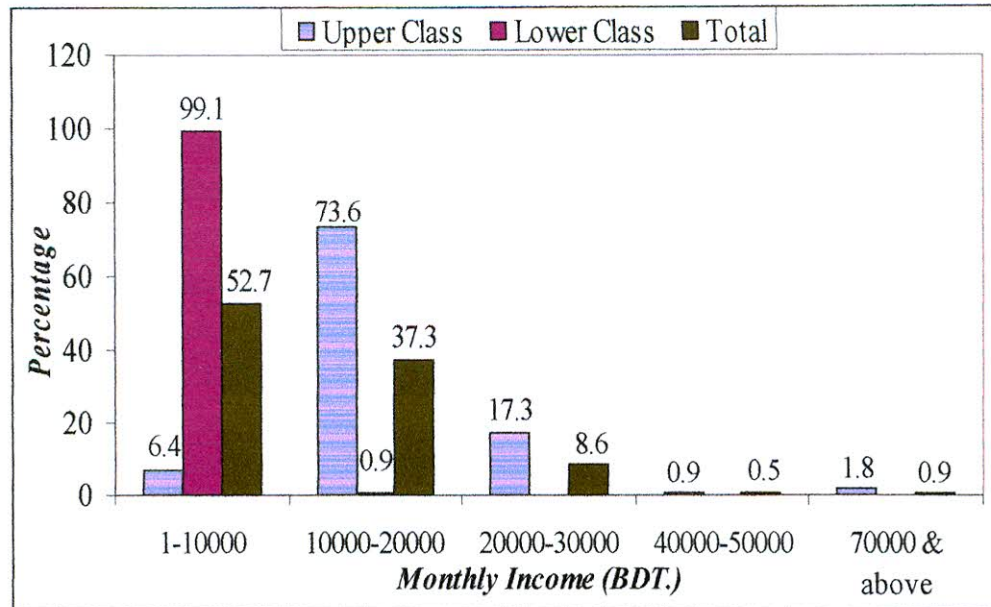
working mothers have monthly income range between BDT. 10,000-30,000. But the monthly income of working mothers have varied from class to class. The estimated average income is highly different from upper class to lower class working mothers. It is BDT. 19,284.15 for the upper class and BDT. 3,834.09 for the lower class working mothers. On the basis of chi-square test, this difference is statistically significant. As the chi-square value is 189.74, degree of freedom 4 and significance level .000.

Table 5.6. Monthly Income of the Working Mothers by Categories

Monthly Income (Tk.)	Working Mothers				Total	
	Upper Class		Lower Class			
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
1-10000	7	6.4	109	99.1	116	52.7
10000-20000	81	73.6	1	.9	82	37.3
20000-30000	19	17.3	0	0	19	8.6
40000-50000	1	.9	0	0	1	.5
70000 and above	2	1.8	0	0	2	.9
Total	110	100.0	110	100.0	220	100.0
<i>Average (BDT.)</i>	19,284.15		3,834.09		11,559.12	
<i>STD.</i>	10,061.53		2,706.98		10,673.23	
<i>Chi-Square</i>	Value=189.74		D.F=4		Significance=.000	

If income is considered as the criterion of better position of working women in society, it can be said that the upper class working mothers are in better position and the lower class working mothers are in vulnerable position in terms of monthly income.

Chart-5.5. Monthly Income of the Working Mothers by Categories



5.4. Family and Household Characteristics of the Respondents

5.4.1. Family Structure

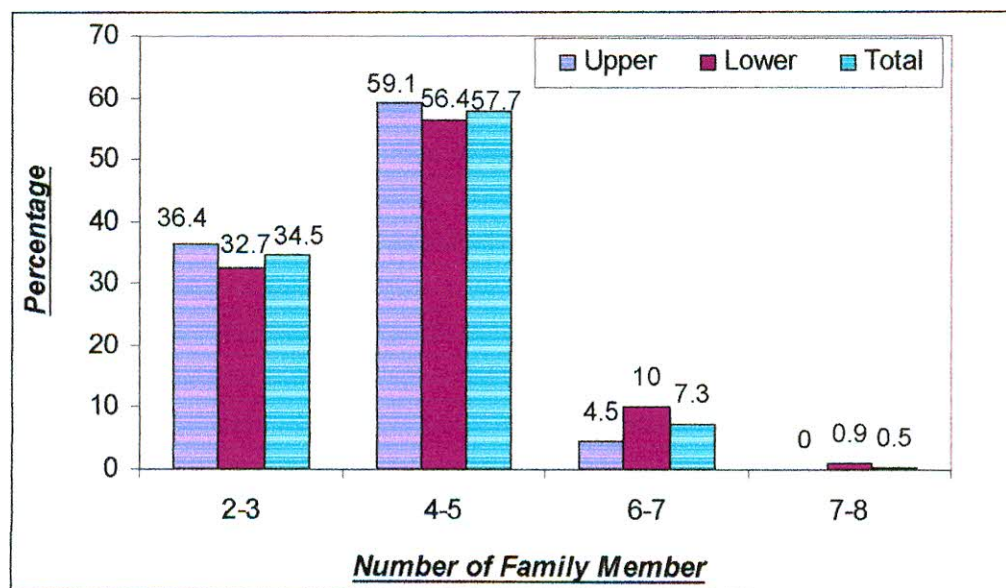
Family is the most and simplest elementary form of society. It is an outstanding primary group, because, it is in the family that the child develops its basic attitudes and considered as the source of socialization. So it was necessary to know their family structure. It is evident from Table-5.5 that the family size of upper class and lower class working mothers are different. The average number of family member is 3.89 and 4.15 for the upper class and lower class working mothers respectively. It is also seen that the highest proportion (59.1 percent) of upper class working mother's family is consisted of more than four members. Rest of the upper class working mothers has 2 to 3 (36.4 percent) members and 4.5 percent working mother have 6 to 7 family members. On the other hand, the highest number (56.4 percent) of lower class working mother have 4 to 5 family members, followed by

32.7 percent, 10 percent and 0.9 percent have 2-3, 6-7 and 7-8 family members respectively. In earlier section of this chapter, it was known (Table-5.4) that the upper class working mother are more conscious, educated and empowered compared to the lower class working mother. They know the demerits of large scale of family. So their family size is smaller than that of lower class working mothers.

Table 5.7. Family Size of the Working Mothers by Categories

Family Size	Working Mothers				Total	
	Upper Class		Lower Class			
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
2-3	40	36.4	36	32.7	76	34.5
4-5	65	59.1	62	56.4	127	57.7
6-7	5	4.5	11	10.0	16	7.3
7-8	0	.0	1	.9	1	.5
Total	110	100.0	110	100.0	220	100.0
Average	3.89		4.15		4.02	
STD	.839		1.151		1.013	

Chart-5.6. Number and Percentage of Family Member by Categories



5.4.2. Housing Status

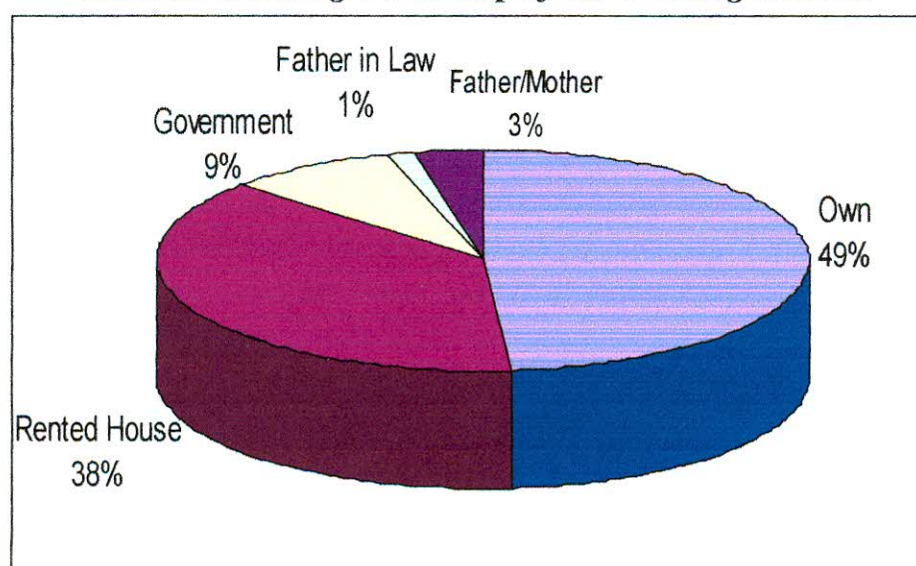
Housing is one of the six basic human needs and access to safe and adequate housing is guaranteed by the constitution of the Peoples Republic of Bangladesh (article-15) and the United Nations Universal Declaration, 1948 (Choudhury, 1998). Housing means a habitable shelter. It is not merely a shelter or a house alone, it embraces the total living environment including dwelling units, land, environs, the neighborhood and other services and utilities required for the physical, social, psychological and economic well being of the inhabitants. Good accommodation capacity indicates the healthy socio-economic condition of the people. Even everybody tries to build a shelter in terms of housing by his earnings in the later life. For this reason, I inquired to the respondent about their housing. A clear difference is found between the housing status of the upper class and lower class working mothers. It is evident from the Table-5.6 and Chart-5.7 that the highest proportion (55.5 percent) of the upper class working mother live in the rented house. A mentionable percentage of (39.4 percent) upper class working mother lives in their own house. The remaining upper class working mothers live in the house of father and father in law. On the other hand, the maximum (58.2 percent) lower class working mothers live in their own house. The remaining 41.8 percent lower class working mothers live in the different types of house like rented house, government place (it includes the side of the road, railway station and slum) and in the houses of father/father in laws. It is need to be mentioned that the maximum upper class working mothers are in government jobs. They come to

Rajshahi City for their service and after three or four years, they transferred from this city to anywhere of the country. As a result, they did not build their own house. Besides these, the lower class working mothers come from the periphery of the Rajshahi City; they have their own house with land. So, reviewing the discussion, it can be said that the lower class working mothers are in better situation in terms of ownership of housing compared to that of the upper class working mothers.

Table 5.8 Ownership of House of the Working Mothers by Categories

Ownership of House	Working Mothers				Total	
	Upper Class		Lower Class			
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Own	43	39.1	64	58.2	107	48.6
Rented	52	47.3	32	29.1	84	38.2
Government	9	8.2	10	9.1	19	8.6
Father in Law	2	1.8	1	0.9	3	1.4
Father/Mother	4	3.6	3	2.7	7	3.2
Total	110	100.0	110	100.0	220	100.0

Chart-5.7 Housing Ownership of the Working Mothers



5.4.3. Water Facilities

Pure drinking water is one of the most essential items of maintaining good health. It also bears a sign or indication of good socio-economic condition. Once upon a time, there was shortage of the pure drinking water in Bangladesh. The people used ponds, river/*beel* (marsh land) and *kua* (a ring well) as the source of water. Now most of the households of our country use of tube wells as the sources of water (Rahman, 2002:89). It indicates the improving socio-economic situation all over the country regarding the water facilities. I wanted to know the sources of drinking water of the working mothers.

Table 5.9 Source of Drinking Water of the Working Mothers by Categories

Sources	Working Mothers				Total	
	Upper Class		Lower Class			
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Tap	49	44.5	39	35.5	88	40.0
Tube well	61	55.5	71	64.5	132	60.0
Total	110	100.0	110	100.0	220	100.0
Chi Square	Value=1.894		D.F=1		Significant=.215	

It is seen from the study (Table-5.9) that about 60 percent of the working mothers have used tube well as the source of water. Rest of the working mothers (40 percent) have used tap as the source of water. If we consider the categories of working mother, it is seen that both categories of the working mothers are in better position in regard to use the drinking water. Data indicate that 55.5 percent and 44.5 percent upper class hand 64.5 percent and 35.5 percent lower class working mothers used the tube well and tap as the source of water respectively. It is clear from the above observations that no significant difference is found between the upper class and lower class working mother in the source of drinking water. It is

statistically justified, as the value 1.89, degree of freedom 1 and significance is .215.

5.4.4. Lighting Facilities

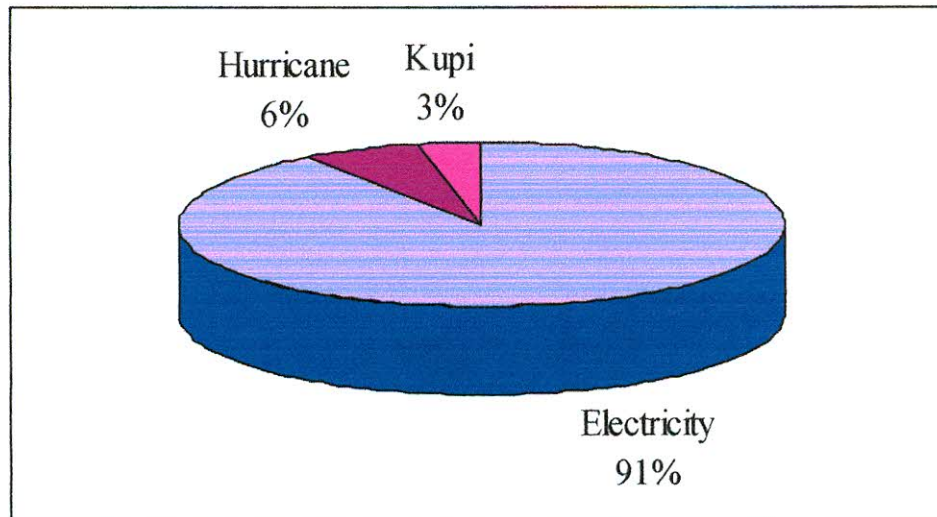
In modern period electrification represent the developed or underdeveloped status of a particular community and a society. Connection of electricity is considered as the sign of improved socio-economic status. Electricity is used as source of light, instrument of recreation and as the means of standard of living. It is seen from the table 5.10 and chart 5.8 that both classes of the working mothers have used electricity as the source of light. All the upper class working mothers got the electric facilities where the 80.9 percent of lower class working mother enjoy this facility. Rest of the lower class working mother has used hurricane (12.7 percent) and *Kupi* (6.4 percent) as the source of light. If we consider that the electric facilities ensure the better living standard of people, it can be said that the upper class working mother are in well off compared to lower class working mother.

Table 5.10 Source of Light in the House of the Working Mothers by Categories

Source of Light	Working Mothers				Total	
	Upper Class		Lower Class			
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Electricity	110	100.0	89	80.9	199	90.5
<i>Hurricane</i>	0	.0	14	12.7	14	6.4
<i>Kupi</i>	0	.0	7	6.4	7	3.2
Total	110	100.0	110	100.0	220	100.0
<i>Chi Square</i>	<i>Value</i> =23.22,		<i>D.F</i> =2		<i>Significant</i> =.000	

A difference is also found between the two classes of working mothers as the chi square value is 23.22, degree of freedom 2 and significant is .000. It is statistically significant.

Chart-5.8 Sources of Light of the Working Mothers



5.4.5. Economic Solvency of Family

The modern civilized society is highly characterized by the basis of economic statuses. It is generally belief in almost every society that economic condition plays a vital role to determine the social status. As usual I collected the information regarding the economic solvency of the working mothers. It is clearly shown in the table 5.11 and Chart 5.9 that maximum (48.2 percent) working mothers are economically insolvent.

Table 5.11 Solvency Status of the Working Mother's Family by Categories

Economic Status	Working Mothers				Total	
	Upper Class		Lower Class			
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Surplus	79	71.8	13	11.8	92	41.8
Easy Going	29	26.4	57	51.8	86	39.1
Deficit	2	1.8	40	36.4	42	19.1
Total	110	100.0	110	100.0	220	100.0

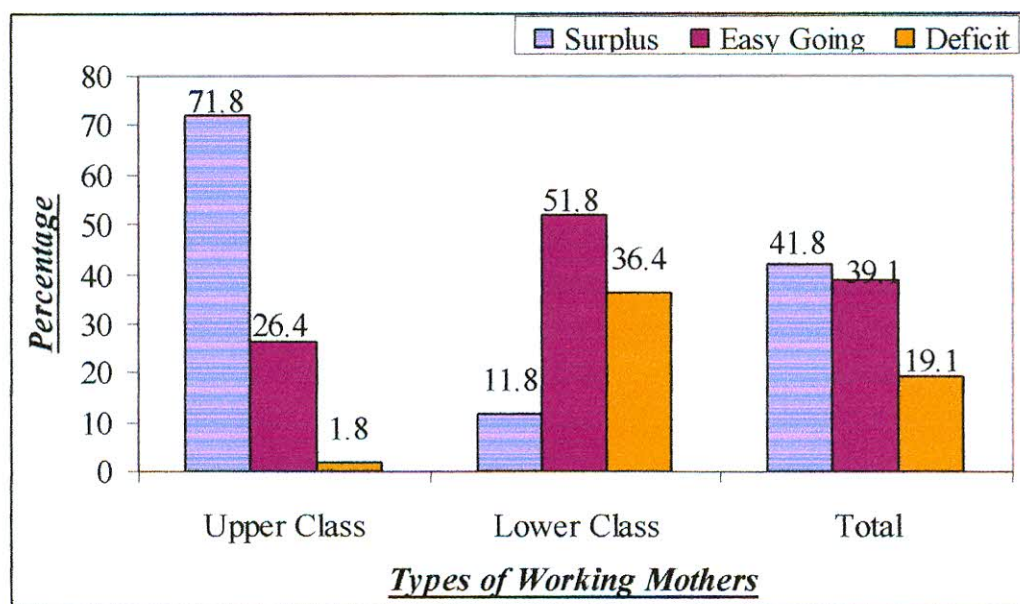
If the class of working mothers is considered, the mentionable upper class working mothers (71.8 percent) carried out their life economically surplus position

followed by 26.4 percent and 1.8 percent working mothers carried out their life economically easy going and deficit situation. On the other hand, maximum lower class working mothers are economically insolvent. It is 88.2 percent. Only an insignificant proportion (11.8 percent) of lower class working mothers carried out their life economically surplus position. If economic insolvency is considered as an indication of vulnerability in their child rearing, the lower class working is more vulnerable compared to the upper class working mothers. The working mothers who have surplus money, they utilize their money in different ways for different purposes.

Table 5.12 Use of Surplus Money of the Working Mothers by Types

Use of Surplus Money	Working Mothers				Total	
	Upper Class		Lower Class			
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Save in Bank	73	92.4	11	84.6	84	91.3
Land Purchase	5	6.3	2	15.4	7	7.6
Tour	1	1.3	0	0	1	1.1
Total	79	100.0	13	100.0	92	100.0

Chart-5.9 Economic Solvency of the Working Mothers



The working mothers who have the surplus money were asked what they do with their surplus money. Most of the working mothers (91.3 percent) in both the classes replied that they had deposited their money in bank; it is 92.4 percent and 84.6 percent for the upper class and lower class working mothers respectively. Rest of the working mothers spent their surplus money of purchasing land (7.6 percent) and tour (1.1 percent). On the other hand, the working mothers who faced the problem of economic deficiency in family were asked, how did they survive or cope with the deficit situation. A great similarity is seen (Table-5.13) between the upper class and lower class working mothers in terms of coping mechanism. It is found that all respondents of upper class working mothers had minimized this situation by loan and 82.5 percent lower class working mothers coped with this situation by loan too, followed by 10 percent become unfed and 7.5 percent take help from others.

On the basis of these data, it may be said that the upper class working mothers are in better position compared to the lower class working mothers in terms of economic solvency of their family. But the coping mechanisms are almost same with the deficit situation of the both classes of working mothers.

Table 5.13 Means of minimize the Economic Deficit of the Working Mothers by Types

Means of Fulfilling Deficit	Working Mothers				Total	
	Upper Class		Lower Class			
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Starve	0	.0	4	10.0	4	9.5
Loan	2	100.0	33	82.5	35	83.3
Help	0	.0	3	7.5	3	7.1
Total	2	100.0	40	100.0	42	100.0

On the basis of the above fact, it can be concluded that the overall socio-economic situation of the upper class working mothers is better compared to the lower class working mothers. The present study indicates that the lower class working mothers are not so good in the occupation, income, family size, sanitary facilities, water facilities and electric facilities compared to those of the upper class working mothers.

Chapter Six

Problems of Working Mothers in Bangladesh

Chapter Six

Problems of Working Mothers in Bangladesh

6.1. Introduction

The status of women is an important factor affecting the socio-economic development of a country. The long term socio-economic development of a country cannot be fully realized if women, who usually constitute 50 percent of the total population, enjoy a subordinate position to men; and their talents remain unexplored. The problems affecting the economic and social status of women in Bangladesh are vast and complex. Poverty, lack of education, training and job opportunities has forced them to a state of complete dependency within the family as a daughter, wife or mother of their family in the society. Besides, negative attitudes of society in general and men in particular, towards women working outside the home are also responsible for low female participation in the labour force and low status. After independence of Bangladesh, the number of working women is increasing outside the home. But the working women or mothers have been facing various problems in their households' activities, in socialization of their children and at their working place. This chapter has been focuses on the problems of working mothers on the basis of empirical study. Problems related to cooking, cleaning, shopping, households activities are described in this chapter.

6.2. Reasons of Engaging in Job

Generally it is customary concept in our society that a man is considered to be

engaged in productive activities since he works on the farm and brings home the products he has harvested or his wage. As a result, a man is considered the principal bread-earner of the family and the main source of the family's income. In recent times especially after independence, there has been a significant change found in the attitude towards women taking up outside the home. Women have determined to work in different challenging professions out side the home. Many reasons are influenced the working women in this regard. It is seen from the Table 6.1 that maximum working mothers (68. 2 percent) are engaged in work in both the classes for bringing about solvency in their family and 0.9 percent are engaged for satisfying their hobby.

Table 6.1 Reasons of Engaging in Job of the Working Mothers by Categories

Reasons	Working Mothers				Total	
	Upper Class		Lower Class			
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
As Educated	52	47.3	1	0.9	53	24.1
To Bring Solvency	45	40.9	105	95.5	150	68.2
Own Work	7	6.4	0	.0	7	3.2
Hobby	2	1.8	0	.0	2	0.9
For Empowerment	4	3.6	4	3.6	8	3.6
Total	110	100.0	110	100.0	220	100.0
Chi Square	Value=82.075		D.F= 4		Significance=.000	

If the class of working mothers is considered, it is found that 47.3 percent upper class working mothers are engaged in job of being educated, 40.9 percent for bring solvency, 6.4 percent for herself, 3.6 percent for her empowerment and 1.8 percent for satisfying their hobby. On the other hand, most of the lower class working mothers (95.5 percent) are engaged in job to bring the solvency of their family, 3.6 percent for their empowerment and only 0.9 percent for being educated. There is

significant difference between the upper class and lower class working mothers as the chi square value is 82.07, degree of freedom 4 and significance is .000. So it is statistically significant. Data indicate that the working mothers in both the classes are bound to engage in job for their economic solvency. It is also commented that for the eradicating the economic hardship, woman, are compelled to engage in job.

6.3. Use of Income

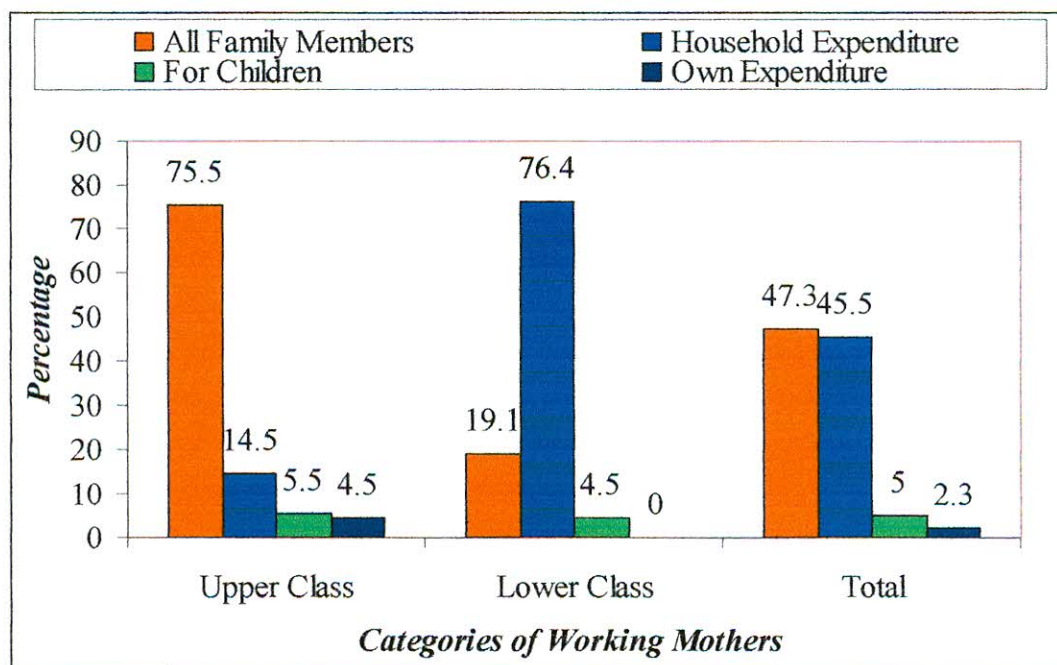
Traditionally we know that female live under the control of male from their early life to death. In the childhood they have to live under father, in adulthood under husband and in elderly life under son. That means all the time of their life, the male in various form dominates them. So the working mothers were asked to mention how their income (which is earned from their job) was being spent. They replied that they had to spend their income for multiple purposes. It is found that mostly income of working mothers is exclusively used for all members (47.3 percent) of the family. Almost all the respondents mentioned that they (by themselves or by family head) used their income for household expenditure (45.5 percent) followed by 5 percent for children, 2.3 percent for own purpose (own clothing, cosmetics and whatever they feel, spent their income) (Table-6.2 & Chart 6.1).

Table 6.2 Use of Own Income of the Working Mothers by Categories

Use of Own Income	Working Mothers				Total	
	Upper Class		Lower Class			
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
For All Family Members	83	75.5	21	19.1	104	47.3
Household Expenditure	16	14.5	84	76.4	100	45.5
For Children	6	5.5	5	4.5	11	5.0
Own Expenditure	5	4.5	0	00	5	2.3
Total	110	100.0	110	100.0	220	100.0

If category is considered, highest proportion (75.5 percent) of the upper class working mothers spend their money for all members of the family, followed by 14.5 percent in household expenditure, 5.5 percent for children's needs, 4.5 percent to meet up their own necessity. The order is almost same for the lower class working mothers.

Chart 6.1. Use of Income of the Working Mothers by Categories



From the data it is clearly seen that most of the working mothers in both the categories spend (47.3 percent) their money for all members of the family, which

indicates their crisis of fulfilling all the needs in their family. If authority of spending income is considered as the indication of empowerment in all section of people, findings can be drawn that the working mothers are more empowered in social position compared to non-working mothers.

6.4. Problems related to the Working Mothers

6.4.1. Problem in Work Place

No society can develop morally, socially, culturally and economically without the participation of women. Gender discrimination and sexual harassment in the working environment are the two major problems that every working women face in Bangladesh (Mahtab, 2007:65). My interest was to know, whether the working mothers face problem or not in working or job place in the study area. It is seen (Table 6.3 & Chart 6.2) that the maximum working mothers (82.7 percent) of both the classes have faced problem in their working place.

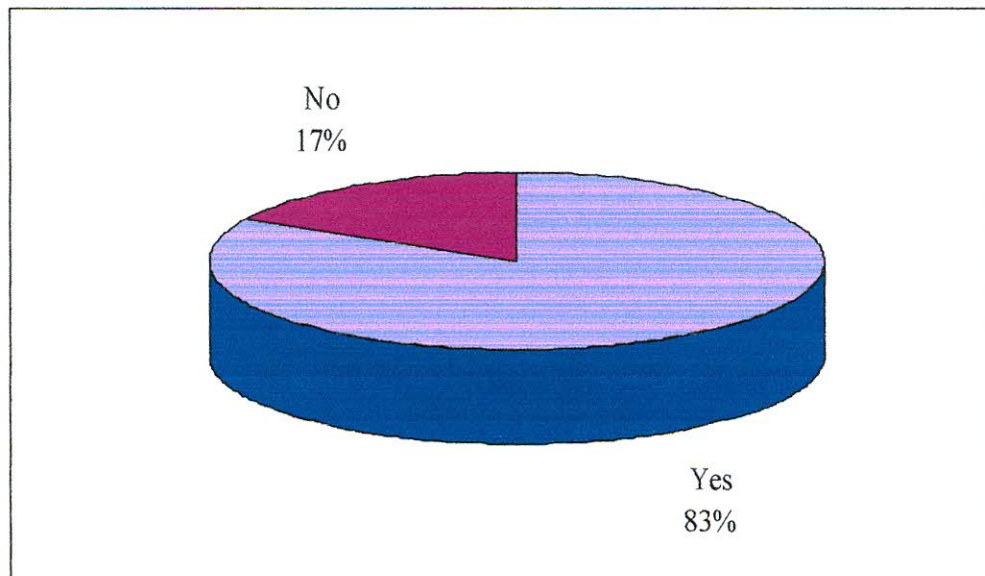
Table 6.3 Whether the Working Mothers Feel Problem in Work or Not by Categories

Feel Problem in Work	Working Mothers				Total	
	Upper Class		Lower Class			
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Yes	88	80.0	94	85.5	182	82.7
No	22	20.0	16	14.5	38	17.3
Total	110	100.0	110	100.0	220	100.0

On the basis of category of working mothers, it is also seen that 80 percent of upper class working mothers face the problem in working place and 20 percent of working mothers did not face the problem. On the other hand, 85.5 percent of lower class working mothers face the problem in working place and 14.5 percent

working mothers did not face any problem. If more percentage is considered as the more severity of problem, it can be said that the problem of working place is comparatively severe for the lower class (85.5 percent) working mother compared to upper class working mothers (80 percent).

Chart. 6.2 *Whether the Working Mothers Face the Problem in Work Place or Not?*



Again the working mothers are inquired about the nature of problems in working place (Table 6.4). Most of the working mothers have replied that the major problem (56 percent) in their work place is tensed situation for their children which creates problem. They have also mentioned other problems in work place as too much laborious work (22.5 percent), long time stay out side the home (10.4 percent), bad environment (6 percent), negative attitude of boss (3.8 percent) and husband's insult (1.1 percent).

If the category of working mothers is considered, data indicates that the lower class working mothers seriously faced the problem in work place like bad

environment (8.5 percent), bad behave of boss (5.3 percent), excessive laborious work (28.7 percent) compared to the upper class working mothers. It is 3.4 percent, 2.3 percent, and 15.9 percent.

Table 6.4 Nature Problems of the Working Mothers in Working Place by Categories

Problems in Job Place	Working Mothers				Total	
	Upper Class		Lower Class			
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Bad Environment	3	3.4	8	8.5	11	6.0
Long Time Stay	15	17.0	4	4.3	19	10.4
Bad Behave of Boss	2	2.3	5	5.3	7	3.8
Too much Labour	14	15.9	27	28.7	41	22.5
Husband's Insult	1	1.1	1	1.1	2	1.1
Becomes Tensed for Children	53	60.2	49	52.1	102	56.0
Total	88	100.0	94	100.0	182	100.0
Chi Square	Value=14.023		D.F=5		Significance=.015	

6.4.2. Problem in Cooking

One of the major problems of the working women have to face is the double burden of work. Due to economic reasons as well as cultural practice even a full time job does not excuse Bangladeshi women from their regular domestic chores. The food habit of people involves elaborate cooking which is always done by women. Women are also responsible for washing, cleaning and child rearing. All these take away a large part of their productive energy. Domestic labour saving tools and implements are nearly non-existent and except a handful of fortunate women, it is economically not feasible to hire domestic helps. The burden of jobs and family and the social view that a woman's first responsibility is to her home work as detriments to achieving equal opportunity in the labour market. (Khan,

1993:77). Two sets of conflicting demands affect the performance standard of Bangladeshi women at home and at the work place. In a study, it is found that women's time allocation in rural Bangladesh as a consequence of patriarchy and found that household requirements increased with wealth and that few production opportunities were available for women outside the household (Hamid, 1996:16). So the working mothers were asked about their problem of cooking in this study (Table 6.5 & Chart 6.3).

Table 6. 5 Whether the Working Mothers Feel Problem in Cooking or Not by Types

Feel Problem in Cooking	Working Mothers				Total	
	Upper Class		Lower Class			
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Yes	60	54.5	71	64.5	131	59.5
No	50	45.5	39	35.5	89	40.5
Total	110	100.0	110	100.0	220	100.0
Chi Square	Value=2.283		D.F= 1		Significance=.131	

It is evident from the study that the most of the working mothers (59.5 percent) in both the categories have faced the problem in their cooking. It is also seen that the 54.5 percent upper class and 64.5 percent lower class working mothers face the cooking problem. The chi square value is 2.283, degree of freedom 1 and significance .131. There is no significant difference is found between the upper class and lower class working mothers. So the difference between upper class and lower class working mothers is statistically insignificant in terms of cooking problem.

Chart 6.3 Whether the Working Mothers Face the Cooking Problem or Not by

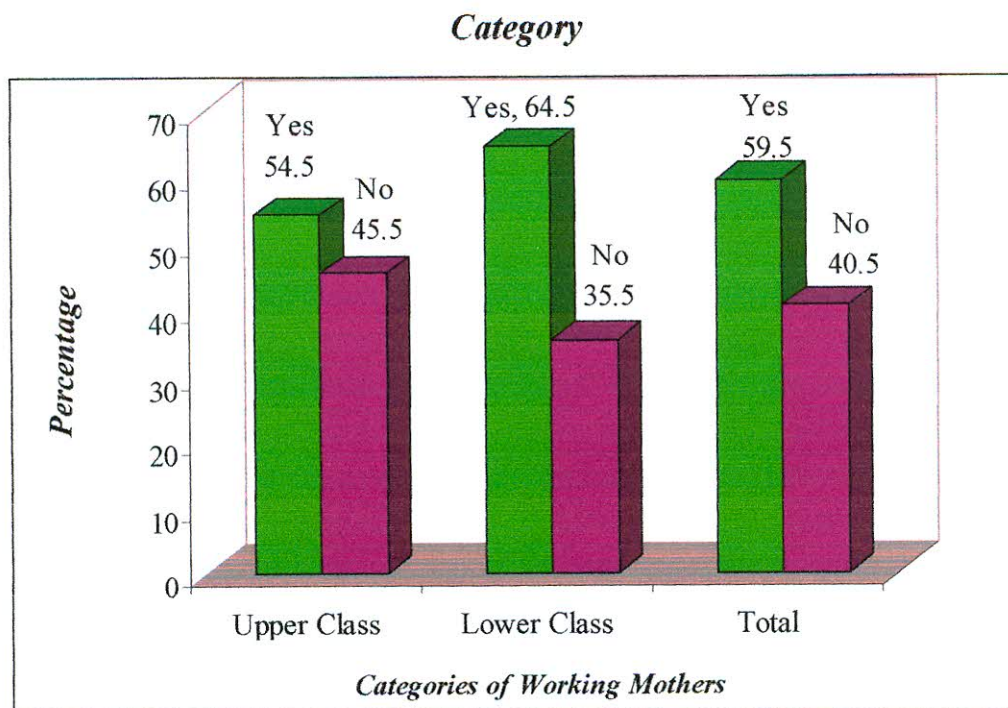


Table 6.6 Nature of Problems of the Working Mothers in Cooking by Categories

Nature of Problems in Cooking	Working Mothers				Total	
	Upper Class		Lower Class			
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Failed to cook timely	31	51.7	69	97.2	100	76.3
Sometimes to eat in hotel	11	18.3	1	1.4	12	9.2
Fail to cook quality food due to hurry	8	13.3	1	1.4	9	6.9
Husband becomes angry	7	11.7	0	.0	7	5.3
Sometimes remain unfed	3	2.7	0	.0	3	2.3
Total	60	100.0	71	100.0	131	100.0

Further the working mothers were asked about the nature of their cooking problem (Table 6.6). Most of the working mothers (76.3 percent) in both the categories replied that they failed to cook timely for their family members. Rest of the working mothers have mentioned that sometimes they eat in hotel (9.2 percent), fail to cook quality food (6.9 percent), husband becomes angry (5.3 percent) and sometimes remain unfed (2.3 percent) as the nature of cooking

problem.

On the basis of above review, findings indicate that the lower class working mothers are in poorer situation (64.5 percent) compared to the upper class working mothers (54.5 percent) in terms of cooking. It may be mentioned that upper class working mothers can minimize this problem by the maid servant than lower class working mothers. So data reveal that lower class working mothers are more problematic compared to upper class working mothers.

6.4.3. Problem in Cleaning

Cleaning is the most important household's work of a woman. According to the traditional attitude of our society, woman is absolutely responsible for the cleaning matter of household activities. Cleaning includes the total house arrangements, to wash the toilet, kitchen, feeding items and so on. It assumes that the working women face the problem in this regard. So the working mothers were asked about their cleaning problem (Table 6.7).

Table 6.7 Whether the Working Mothers Feel Problem in Cleaning or Not by Types?

Feel Problem in Cleaning	Working Mothers				Total	
	Upper Class		Lower Class			
	<i>Number</i>	<i>Percentage</i>	<i>Number</i>	<i>Percentage</i>	<i>Number</i>	<i>Percentage</i>
No	78	70.9	54	49.1	132	60.0
Yes	32	29.1	56	50.9	88	40.0
Total	110	100.0	110	100.0	220	100.0
Chi Square	<i>Value=10.909</i>		<i>D.F=1</i>		<i>Significance=.001</i>	

Data indicate that the maximum working mothers (60 percent) in both the categories had not feel the problem in cleaning. It is also seen that a basic difference is found between upper class and lower class working mothers in their cleaning activities. The chi square value is 10.90, degree of freedom 1 and

significance .001. This difference is statistically significant. It is observed from the study that most of the upper class working mothers (70.9 percent) did not feel problem as they have the capacity to alternative arrangement for their cleaning compared to the lower class working mothers (50.9 percent). If the category is considered, it can be said that lower class working mothers are more problematic (50.9 percent) compared to the upper class working mothers in terms of cleaning items. Most of the working mothers have mentioned the multiple agents or helping hand to manage the cleaning problem (Table 6.8). They have mentioned maid servant (47.3 percent), wife of son (21.8 percent), daughter (19.1 percent), husband (6.4 percent), mother in law (6.4 percent), husband's sister (4.5 percent), mother (3.2 percent), sister (1.8 percent) and son (0.9 percent) as the helper in this regard. It is evident that maid servant (89.1 percent) is the main source of help for the upper class working mothers and wife of son (41.8 percent) is the main source of help for the lower class working mothers.

Table 6.8 Who Help the Working Mothers in Cleaning by Categories

Who Help in Cleaning	Working Mothers				Total	
	Upper Class		Lower Class			
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Maid Servant	98	89.1	6	5.5	104	47.3
Wife of Son	2	1.8	46	41.8	48	21.8
Daughter	6	5.5	36	32.7	42	19.1
Husband	8	7.3	6	5.5	14	6.4
Mother in Law	7	6.4	7	6.4	14	6.4
Husband's Sister	4	3.6	6	5.5	10	4.5
Mother	3	2.7	4	3.6	7	3.2
Sister	2	1.8	2	1.8	4	1.8
Son	1	.9	1	0.9	2	0.9
Total	131* (N=110)		114*(N=110)		245* (N=220)	

* Multiple Responses

6.4.4. Problem in Living Arrangement or Bedding

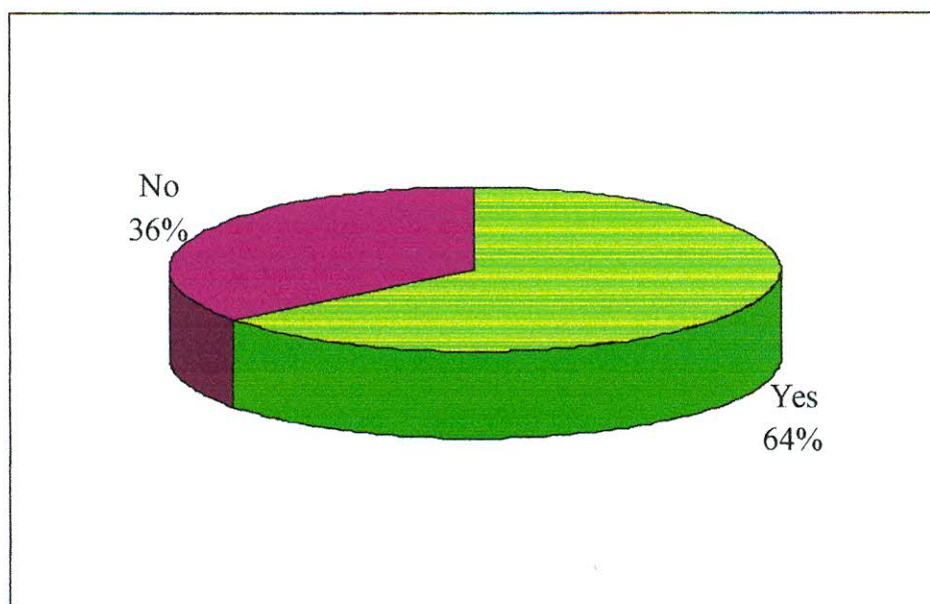
Living arrangement is an important component of the overall well being of the human being. Living arrangement is meant by the living place, equipment of bed, sufficient light of sleeping place. They were asked about the problems of bedding or the living arrangement (Table 6.9 & Chart 6.4).

Table 6.9 Whether the Working Mothers Feel Problem in Bedding or Not by Types

Whether the W. M. Feel Problem in Bedding	Working Mothers				Total	
	Upper Class		Lower Class			
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Yes	96	87.3	46	41.8	142	64.5
No	14	12.7	64	58.2	78	35.5
Total	110	100.0	110	100.0	220	100.0
Chi Square	Value=49.657		D.F=1		Significance=.000	

It is revealed from the study that 64.5 percent of the working mothers have the problem in their bedding or living arrangement. 35.5 percent replied that they have no problem in bedding. If category is considered, it is seen that most (87.3 percent) upper class working mothers expressed dissatisfaction of saying ‘yes problem’ compared to the lower class working mothers (41.8 percent). The difference of problem in living arrangement or bedding is seen between the upper class and lower class working mothers. It is statistically significant as the chi square value is 49.657, degree of freedom 1 and significance .000. If the more percentage is considered as the sign of severity, it can be said that this problem is more severe for upper class working mothers compared to lower class working mothers.

Chart 6.4 Whether the Working Mothers Face Problem in their Bedding or Not?



6.4.5. Problem in Shopping

Women play multiple roles in our society. Traditionally they involved in cleaning and husking rice, preparing fuel from cow-dung, making molasses, and tending the kitchen garden, where vegetables and fruits are grown. At present changes have occurred and from economic necessity, women have broken tradition and are earning money of participating outside the home with household activities. They are playing role not only in food processing but also in shopping for collecting required goods for the family members. The working mothers were inquired to their problems related to shopping. It is evident from the table 6.11 that most of the working mothers (73.6 percent) expressed their satisfaction regarding shopping of saying 'no problem' and only 26.4 percent working mothers faced the shopping problem (Table 6.10).

Table 6.10 Whether the Working Mothers Feel Problem in Shopping or Not by Types

W. M. Feel Problem in Shopping	Working Mothers				Total	
	Upper Class		Lower Class			
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
No	99	90.0	63	57.3	162	73.6
Yes	11	10.0	47	42.7	58	26.4
Total	110	100.0	110	100.0	220	100.0
Chi-Square	Value=30.35		D. F=1		Significance=.000	

It is also seen that maximum upper class working mothers (90 percent) did not face the problem of shopping compared to lower class working mothers (57.3 percent). The difference also found between the two categories of working mothers. The chi square value is 30.35, degree of freedom 1 and significance .000. This difference is statistically significant.

Those working mothers are agreed the problem of shopping, they have mentioned (Table 6.11) that they failed to complete shopping timely (91.4 percent), not to buy better goods in spite of being capable (6.9 percent) and no shopping although necessary (1.7 percent) as the nature of problem in this regard.

Table 6.11 Nature of Problem of the Working Mothers in Shopping by Categories

Nature of Problem in Shopping	Working Mothers				Total	
	Upper Class		Lower Class			
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
No Shopping Although Necessary	1	9.1	0	.0	1	1.7
Can Not Take Better Food Although Have Capability	2	18.2	2	4.3	4	6.9
Failed to Complete Timely	8	72.7	45	95.7	53	91.4
Total	11	100.0	47	100.0	58	100.0

From the above information, it is clear that there are many problems faced by the working women in Bangladesh. They bear many of the marks of a

disadvantaged minority in the social, economic and political domain. The traditional society of Bangladesh is permeated with patriarchal values and norms of female subordination, subservience and segregation resulting from discrimination at birth leading to deprivation, and access to all opportunities and benefits in family and societal life, thus putting them in the most disadvantageous position. Besides these, lack of education, scarcity of women academics in the management, decision making and administration levels, male biased institutional culture, lack of representation and role modeling are influenced the working mother's problem in our country. It is obvious that the mothers have a pioneering role in the field of socialization of their children. But due to their business regarding to minimize their cooking, cleaning, shopping, bedding etc. So they are not able to give the proper attention to their children's socialization. As a result, finally it hampers the socialization of their children. So the problems of working mothers should be minimized in future by taking the positive initiatives of the government and non-government organization.

Chapter Seven

Role of Socializing Agents in Child Development of Working Mothers

Chapter Seven

Role of Socializing Agents in Child Development of Working Mothers

7.1. Introduction

Now a day, educated and non-educated mothers of our country are going out side home for better subsistence of their family. But we know that the absence of a mother, create many harmful hazards on her family especially on childcare and raring. Joint family has also broken out because of urbanization. Maidservants are not available and in most cases they are not truthful, trained in household works and especially in childcare and raring. In this context, lives of the working mothers' children fall in null socialization. In addition, absence of mother from house for a significant time the children have to spend their time, have to play, and have to meet up their prime needs by uneducated and untrained maid servant. As a result they learn the same language and other behaviors from the maid servant. Children also fall unsafe in their own house. This is almost the common feature of a nuclear upper class working mother's family. On the other hand, lower class mother can't afford service by payment from any person or institution. Remaining this fact, their children face the cruelty of poverty and so on. Their parents also bother for their children basic need but not for the proper socialization as well as for their safety due to their ignorance. This chapter discusses about different aspects or fields of socialization such feeding, bathing, sleeping, schooling, skills of language, attitude to the other's role of the children. Role of socializing agents

such parents, peer group, teachers, mass media etc. have also been discussed in this chapter.

7.2. Different Fields of Socialization of the Children

7.2.1. Offspring of the Working Mothers

Everybody wants to live with children in their last stage of life. In Bangladesh, children are considered as source of income, symbol of status and prestige in the society. Most of the people consider their children particularly son, as a source of income and social security during life. So the working mothers were asked about their offspring. It is evident from Table-7.1 that 90.9 percent upper class working mothers have 1-2 living children at present, 9.1 percent have 3-4 children at present. On the other hand, maximum (96.3 percent) lower class working mothers have 3 or more living children at present and only 3.7 percent lower class working mothers have 1-2 children. The average number of living children of the upper class working mothers and the lower class working mothers is 1.65 and 3.75 respectively. If more children is considered as the less empowerment and lower socio-economic status, the lower class working mothers is less empowered and low status compared to the upper class working mothers. More children and lower status and less empowered is similar to general views of the people in our society.

Table 7.1 *Living Child of the Working Mothers by Categories*

Living Child of W.M.	Working Mothers				Total	
	Upper Class		Lower Class			
	<i>Number</i>	<i>Percentage</i>	<i>Number</i>	<i>Percentage</i>	<i>Number</i>	<i>Percentage</i>
1-2	100	90.9	4	3.6	104	47.3
3-4	10	9.1	91	82.7	101	45.9
5-6	0	.0	15	13.6	15	6.8
Total	110	100.0	110	100.0	220	100.0
<i>Mean</i>	1.65		3.75		2.70	
<i>STD</i>	.672		.851		1.301	

7.2.2. *Feeding of the Children*

Food is one of the basic needs of human being. It is compulsory not only every body but also for all kinds of creation. Especially proper physical, mental and the total socialization's cycle of the children depend on having balanced diet. Improper or insufficient or untimely or unhygienic diet can break down the children's health and total development system. The awful picture is seen that (Table 7..2) more than fifty percent (53.6 percent) upper class working mothers are unable to provide proper food for their children due to remaining outside home and 46.3 percent upper class working mothers are able to take care of their children in this regard. On the other hand, most (75.4 percent) of the lower class working mothers are unable to feed their children properly and very insignificant proportion (24.5 percent) of lower class working mothers are able to provide proper food for their children. A clear difference is found between the two classes of working mothers as the chi square value is 11.44, degree of freedom 1 and significance .001. So this difference is statistically significant.

Table 7.2 Whether Working Mother Feel Problem in Feeding of Child or Not by Categories?

Whether W. M Feel Problem in Feeding	Working Mothers				Total	
	Upper Class		Lower Class			
	<i>Number</i>	<i>Percentage</i>	<i>Number</i>	<i>Percentage</i>	<i>Number</i>	<i>Percentage</i>
Yes	59	53.6	83	75.4	142	64.5
No	51	46.3	27	24.5	78	35.5
Total	110	100.0	110	100.0	220	100.0
Chi Square	Value=11.441		D. F=1		Significance=.001	

Information was collected from the working mothers about the nature of problem regarding the feeding of their children. It is evident from the study that maximum (69.7 percent) working mothers have mentioned that children did not get food in time as the problem. Children did not get proper food (24.6 percent), remain unfed (5.6 percent) are mentioned by the working mothers as the problem regarding their children's feeding.

Table 7.3 Nature of Problem of the Working Mothers in Feeding of their Children by Categories

Problem of Feeding Child	Working Mothers				Total	
	Upper Class		Lower Class			
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Remain Unfed	4	6.7	4	4.8	8	5.6
Not Fed Timely	35	59.3	64	77.1	99	69.7
Not Fed Proper Food	20	33.8	15	10.1	35	24.6
Total	59	100.0	83	100.0	142	100.0

If the class is considered, it is seen that the feeding problem is severe for the lower class working mothers compared to the upper class working mothers in terms of not getting food in time. It is 77.1 percent and 59.3 percent respectively. Another question was kept to the working mothers that who is the best helper to minimize this problem (Table 7.4).

Table 7.4 Helper of the Working Mothers in Feeding their Children by Types

Who Help the W/M in Feeding of their Children	Working Mothers				Total	
	Upper Class		Lower Class			
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Husband	55	50.0	54	49.1	109	49.6
Maid Servant	76	69.1	2	1.8	78	35.5
Daughter/Son	11	10.0	59	53.6	70	31.8
Father in Law/Father	13	11.8	7	6.4	20	9.1
Mother in Law/Mother	1	.9	14	12.7	15	6.8
Brother/Brother in Law	7	6.4	3	2.7	10	4.6
Sister/Sister in Law	5	4.5	3	2.7	8	3.6
Total	168* (N=110)		142* (N=110)		310* (N=220)	

* Multiple Responses

The working mothers have mentioned that their children's food problem was partially solve with the help of husband (49.6 percent), maid servant (35.5 percent), daughter/son (31.8 percent), father in law/father (9.1 percent) mother in law/mother (6.8 percent), brother/brother in law (4.6 percent) and sister/sister in law (3.6 percent). A great difference is found between upper class and lower class working mothers in terms of helping hand. Data reveal that upper class working mothers got the maximum help from the maid servant (69.1 percent) and lower class working mothers got the maximum help from the daughter/son (53.6 percent). It can be commented that the lower class working mothers seriously face (75.4 percent) the feeding problem of children compared to that of the upper class working mothers (53.6 percent). In spite of remaining difference between the characters of the feeding problem, they got help from the same sources of assistance.

7.2.3. Bathing of the Children

Bathing is a necessary matter for all the human creation. Every mother takes bath of their child from the very beginning of his life. It is considered in our society as a part of socialization. Even no bathing habit is socially regrettable also in our society. As a field of socialization, I inquired to the working mothers about the bathing of their children. More than half (57.7 percent) of the working mothers have replied that they face the bathing problem of their children and rest (42.3 percent) of the working mothers did not face this problem. It is also seen that most (95.5 percent) of the upper class working mothers face problem regarding their children's bath. On the contrary, most of the lower class (80 percent) working mothers did not face this problem. It is interesting that a clear difference is exposed between the two classes of working mothers, as the chi square value is 128.32, degree of freedom 1 and significance .000. So this difference statistically significant. If the more percentage is considered as more vulnerability in terms of bathing problem of children, it can be said that the upper class working mothers are in more vulnerable situation compared to lower class working mothers.

Table 7.5 Whether the Working Mothers Feel Problem in Bathing of their Children by Categories

Feel Problem in Bathing of Children	Working Mothers				Total	
	Upper Class		Lower Class			
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Yes	105	95.5	22	20.0	127	57.7
No	5	4.5	88	80.0	93	42.3
Total	110	100.0	110	100.0	220	100.0
Chi Square	Value= 128.32		D.F= 1		Significance= .000	

Along with this problem I wanted to know the nature of problem of the

children (Table 7.6). It is interestingly evident that responses were made almost same by both the classes of working mothers. The children did not take bath timely is replied by 52.4 percent for upper class working mothers and 59.1 percent for lower class working mothers. The children catch cold, remain unclean and others are mentioned as problem by the working mothers. It is 26.7 percent for upper class working mothers and 22.7 percent for lower class working mothers, 17.1 percent for the upper class and 9.1 percent for lower class and 3.1 percent for the upper class and 9.1 percent for lower class working mothers respectively.

Table 7.6 Nature of Problem of the Working Mothers in Bathing their Children by Categories

Nature of Problem in Bathing of Children	Working Mothers				Total	
	Upper Class		Lower Class			
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Remain Unclean	18	17.1	2	9.1	20	15.7
Not Bath Timely	55	52.4	13	59.1	68	53.5
To catch cold	28	26.7	5	22.7	33	26.0
Others	4	3.8	2	9.1	6	4.7
Total	105	100.0	22	100.0	127	100.0

Another inquiry about the helping hand of the children's bathing was kept to the respondent. Detailed information is depicted in Table 7.7. The statistics indicates that the working mothers in both classes got the help from husband (49.55 percent), maid servant (35.45 percent), daughter/son (31.82 percent), father in law/father (9.09 percent), mother/mother in law (6.82 percent), brother/brother in law (4.55 percent) and sister/sister in law (3.64 percent). If the class is considered, maid servant is the main source of helping hand for the upper class and older daughter/son is the main source of helping hand for the lower class working mothers.

Table 7.7 Who help the Working Mothers in Bathing of their Children by Types

Who Help the W/M in Bathing of their Children	Working Mothers				Total	
	Upper Class		Lower Class			
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Husband	56	50.91	54	49.1	110	49.55
Maid Servant	77	70.0	2	1.8	79	35.45
Daughter/Son	11	10.0	59	53.6	70	31.82
Father in Law/Father	13	11.8	7	6.4	20	9.09
Mother in Law/Mother	1	.9	14	12.7	15	6.82
Brother/Brother in Law	7	6.4	3	2.7	10	4.55
Sister/Sister in Law	5	4.5	3	2.7	8	3.64
Total	170* (N=110)		142* (N=110)		312* (N=220)	

* Multiple Responses

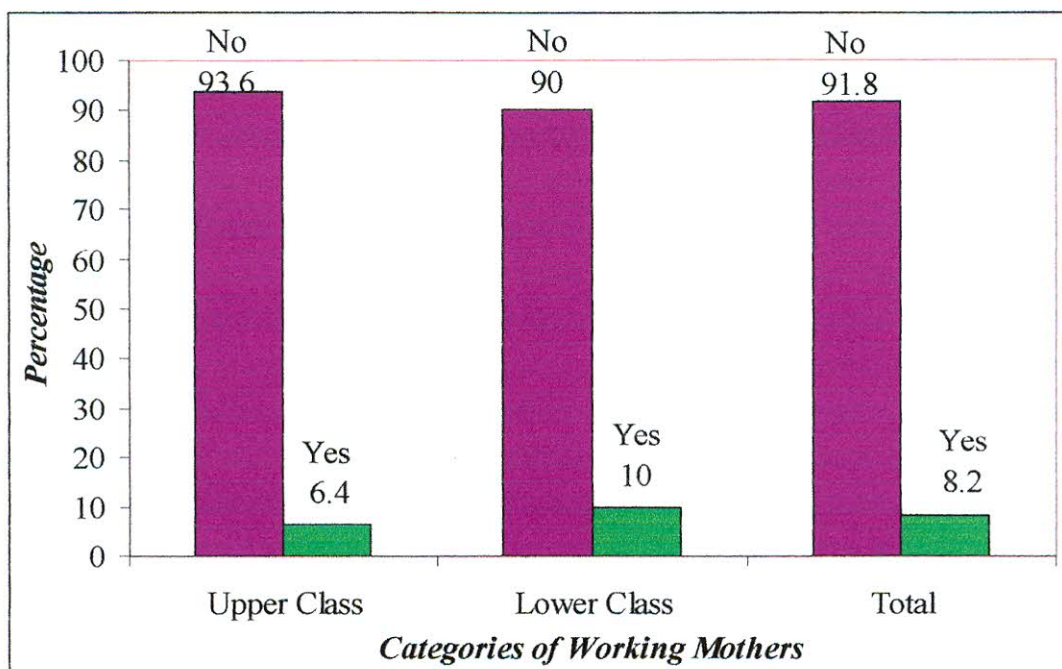
7.2.4. Toileting of the Children

Toileting is an important section of socialization. Toileting circle is naturally developed by the creator with human body system. But a human baby doesn't know with his birth, how to relieve the latrine. He has to learn the delivering system of latrine from the society with the help of different agents of socialization. From the realization about the toileting system of children as a part of socialization, researcher wanted to know about this need. It is depicted from the Table 7.8 and Chart 7.1 that most of the working mothers (91.8 percent) did not face the toileting problem of their children and very insignificant proportion (8.2 percent) of working mothers have replied as the problem of toileting habit.

Table 7.8 Whether the Working Mothers Face the Problem Child's Toileting or Not by Types?

Face Problem in Child's Toilet	Working Mothers				Total	
	Upper Class		Lower Class			
	<i>Number</i>	<i>Percentage</i>	<i>Number</i>	<i>Percentage</i>	<i>Number</i>	<i>Percentage</i>
No	103	93.6	99	90.0	202	91.8
Yes	7	6.4	11	10.0	18	8.2
Total	110	100.0	110	100.0	220	100.0

Chart 7.1 Whether the Working Mothers Face the Problem of Child's Toileting or Not by Categories.



If the class is considered, it is found that there is no basic difference between the upper and lower class working mothers in this regard. It is seen that the maximum upper class (93.6 percent) and lower class (90 percent) working mothers did not face this problem. It may be mentioned that this need can be satisfied by the daily routine basis (such as if the child is learnt to deliver latrine in morning or afternoon, he will be habituated in this time). So the working mothers can perform their role to socialize the children in this regard.

7.2.5. Dressing of the Children

Dressing or clothing is one of the basic human needs all over the world. It is social as well as a biological need for a human being. Cloth is essential for every social being from birth to death. It is also considered as a part of cultural reflection of a nation. From the early childhood, within the socialization process every human

child has to learn how to put on the dress. What dress is permitted by our culture, religion and weather? However children need special clothing to protect them from different natural hazards. So a question was asked to the working mothers that whether they are facing the problem in their children's dressing or not (Table 7.9).

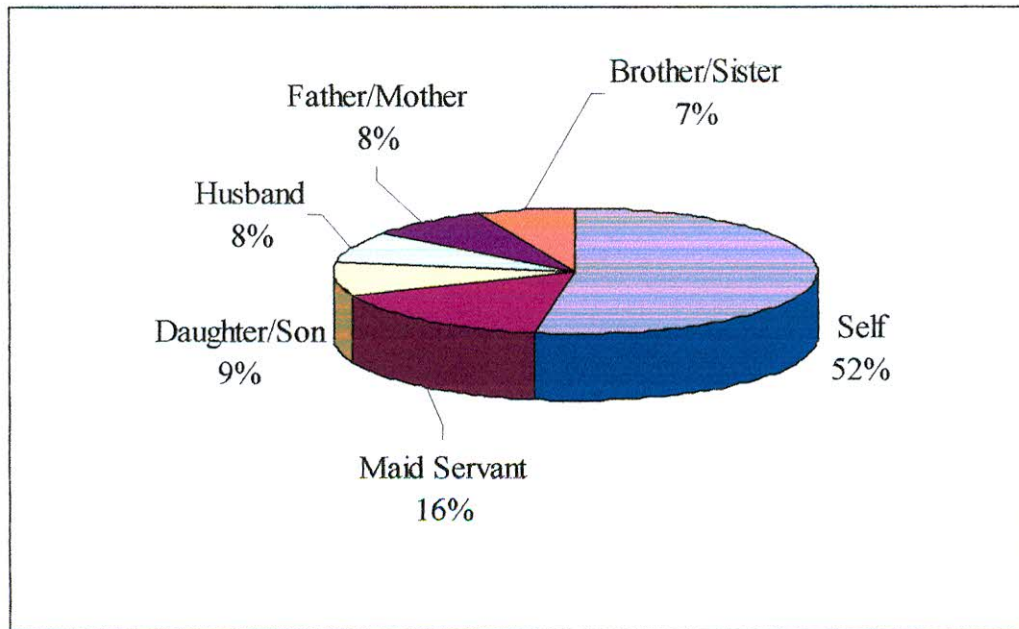
Table 7.9 Whether the Working Mothers Face Problem in Dressing their Children or Not by Categories

Problem of Dressing	Working Mothers				Total	
	Upper Class		Lower Class			
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
No	107	97.3	106	96.4	213	96.8
Yes	3	2.7	4	3.6	7	3.2
Total	110	100.0	110	100.0	220	100.0

The clear picture is seen that they are not facing the problem of dressing their children. It is 97.3 percent for the upper class and 96.4 percent for the lower class working mothers. Very insignificant proportion of working mothers acknowledged that they are facing this problem. It is 2.7 percent for the upper class and 3.6 percent for the lower class. If the more percentage is considered as the uncomplicated (though the percentage of the upper class working mothers is slightly more compared to the lower class working mothers), findings can be drawn that no problem is found between both the classes of working mothers. As the maximum working mothers have mentioned that they do not face the any difficulties to form the habit of dressing of their children as the part of socialization. So it was inquired to them, how they maintain this need (Chart 7.1). It is seen from the Chart 7.2 that the highest percentage of working mothers maintained this section of socialization by themselves (52 percent). Rest of the

working mothers maintained this need with the help of maid servant (16 percent), daughter/son (9 percent), husband (8 percent), father/mother (8 percent) and brother/sister (7 percent).

Chart 7.2 *How do the Working Mothers maintain the Dressing need of their Children*



7.2.6. Sleeping of the Children

Sleeping is an essential biological need of a human being. In fact without having a sound sleep human body becomes unhealthy and unfit. Even a person loses his/her temperament and efficiency in all regards. But it is true that proper environment is necessary for a sound sleep. In addition a comfortable bed, other necessary equipments are being required. According to child psychologist, it is also an important part of socialization. Data indicates that the highest percentage of (96.4 percent) working mothers do not face the problem of sleeping of the children and only 3.6 percent working mothers have mentioned as positive response that means they face this problem.

Table 7.10 Whether the Working Mothers Face Problem in Sleeping of their Children or Not by Categories?

Problem in Child's Sleeping	Working Mothers				Total	
	Upper Class		Lower Class			
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
No	104	94.5	108	98.2	212	96.4
Yes	6	5.5	2	1.8	8	3.6
Total	110	100.0	110	100.0	220	100.0

Most of the working mothers in both the classes have replied that they did not feel the sleeping problem of their children. It is 94.5 percent and 98.2 percent for the upper class and lower class working mothers respectively. If the more percentage is considered as the more problematic situation, data indicates that lower class working mothers are in problematic situation compared to that of upper class working mothers.

Information was collected from the working mothers about the helping hand to solve this problem (Table 7.11). They have mentioned the multiple sources to help the sleeping problem of their children. It is evident that most of the working mothers (96.8 percent) have maintained by themselves. Rest of the working mothers has taken help from the father/mother (52.3 percent), maid servant (36.8 percent), husband (20.9 percent), brother & sister (6.8 percent) and son & daughter (1.8 percent).

Table 7.11 Helping Hand of the Working Mothers in the Sleeping of their Children by Categories

Sleeping of the children	Working Mothers				Total	
	Upper Class		Lower Class			
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Self	105	95.5	108	98.2	213	96.8
Father & Mother	16	14.5	99	89.9	115	52.3
Maid Servant	80	72.7	1	.9	81	36.8
Husband	33	30.0	13	11.8	46	20.9
Brother & Sister	8	7.2	7	6.3	15	6.8
Son & Daughter	1	.9	1	.9	2	1.8
Total	243* (N=110)		229* (N=110)		472* (N=220)	

**Multiple Responses*

If the category is considered, it is seen that most of the working mothers in both the categories have addressed this problem by them. It is 95.5 percent for the upper class and 98.2 percent for lower class working mothers. The upper class working mothers have got the help from father & mother (14.5 percent), maid servant (72.7 percent), husband (30 percent), brother & sister (7.2 percent) and son & daughter (0.9 percent) respectively. On the other hand, the lower class working mothers have got the help from father & mother (89.9 percent), maid servant (0.9 percent), husband (11.8 percent), brother & sister (6.3 percent) and son & daughter (0.9 percent) respectively. It is interesting that all the working mothers have bear the responsibility to ensure the sleeping need of the children by their own supervision.

7.2.7. Schooling of the Children

Education is one of the basic activities of people in all human societies. It is essential that every new generation must be given formal training in the school so that the same tradition will continue. For socialization of the children, schooling is

indispensable. It is in the school that the culture is formally transmitted and acquired, in which the wisdom and the learning, the science and art, of one generation is passed on to the next. The children uncritically absorb the culture in their early stage of age to which their teachers give expression. They may in the high school respond with increasing skepticism. But wherever they are, and at whatever age, the communications they receive from their school especially teachers help to socialize them and to make them finally matured members of their societies. So the every parent sends their children to the school at the age of 5 or 6 years. It is known from the study (Table 7.12) that most of the working mothers have school going children and very insignificant proportion of working mothers have no school going children. It is 85 percent and 15 percent respectively.

Table 7.12 Have the School Going Children of the Working Mothers by Types

Have the School Going Children	Working Mothers				Total	
	Upper Class		Lower Class			
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Yes	84	76.4	103	93.6	187	85.0
No	26	23.6	7	6.4	33	15.0
Total	110	100.0	110	100.0	220	100.0
Chi Square	Value=12.870		D.F=1		Significance=.000	

It is also seen that 76.4 percent working mothers have school going children and 23.6 percent have no school going children in the upper class. On the other hand, most of the lower class working mothers have the school going children and only 6.4 percent working mothers have no school going children. The data indicate that the lower class working mothers have the more school going children compared to the upper class working mothers.

Table 7.13 Problem in Child Schooling of the Working Mothers by Categories

Problem in Child Schooling	Working Mothers				Total	
	Upper Class		Lower Class			
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
No	44	52.4	88	85.5	132	70.6
Yes	40	47.6	15	14.5	55	29.4
Total	84	100.0	103	100.0	187	100.0
Chi Square	Value=24.351		D. F=1		Significance=.000	

I wanted to know from those working mothers who have the school going children about the problem of schooling of their children (Table 7.13). It is evident that most of the working mothers (70.6 percent) did not face the problem regarding the schooling of their children and only 29.4 percent working mothers admitted that the problem of schooling in their children. It is also seen from the data that more than fifty percent (52.4 percent) of upper class working mothers have no problem in the schooling of their children. At the same time, most of the lower class (85.5 percent) working mothers have mentioned their non problematic feeling in this regard saying 'no problem'. Statistically significant difference is found between the upper class and lower class working mothers, as the chi square value is 24.351, degree of freedom 1 and significance .000. In terms of schooling problem of the children, if the more percentage is fewer problems, the lower class working mothers are in comfortable situation compared to upper class working mothers. It may be the reason that the upper class working mothers think seriously about the schooling of their children and maintain with the help of maid servant or any other member of family and the lower class working mothers did not think so about the schooling of the children. So they can not identify this part of socialization as problem.

7.2.8. Teaching/Learning Language

Every man tries to adjust himself with conditions of his social environment. This process of adjustment is itself socialization. It consists in teaching language, norms, values as a whole culture which he must acquire and share. For this reason, teaching of language is regarded as the remarkable issue of socialization. So for assessing the situation of socialization, I wanted to know about the learning of proper language of the working mothers' children. Most of the respondents (74.1 percent) replied that their children did not learn the proper language and insignificant proportion (25.9 percent) of working mothers mentioned that their children learn proper language.

If the category is considered, the same picture is found in both the classes (i.e. upper class and lower class) of working mothers. It is seen that they (upper & lower class working mothers) have expressed dissatisfaction in the learning language of their children of saying 'no' that means their children did not learn proper language in the absence of them. It is 70 percent for the upper class working mothers and 78.2 percent for the lower class working mothers. In terms of dissatisfaction of saying 'no', if the more percentage is severe problem, it can be concluded that the upper class working mothers are in problematic situation compared to the lower class working mothers.

Table 7.14 Whether the Children of the Working Mothers have learnt the Proper Language or Not by Categories

The Children Learnt Language	Working Mothers				Total	
	Upper Class		Lower Class			
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Yes	33	30.0	24	21.8	57	25.9
No	86	78.2	77	70.0	163	74.1
Total	110	100.0	110	100.0	220	100.0

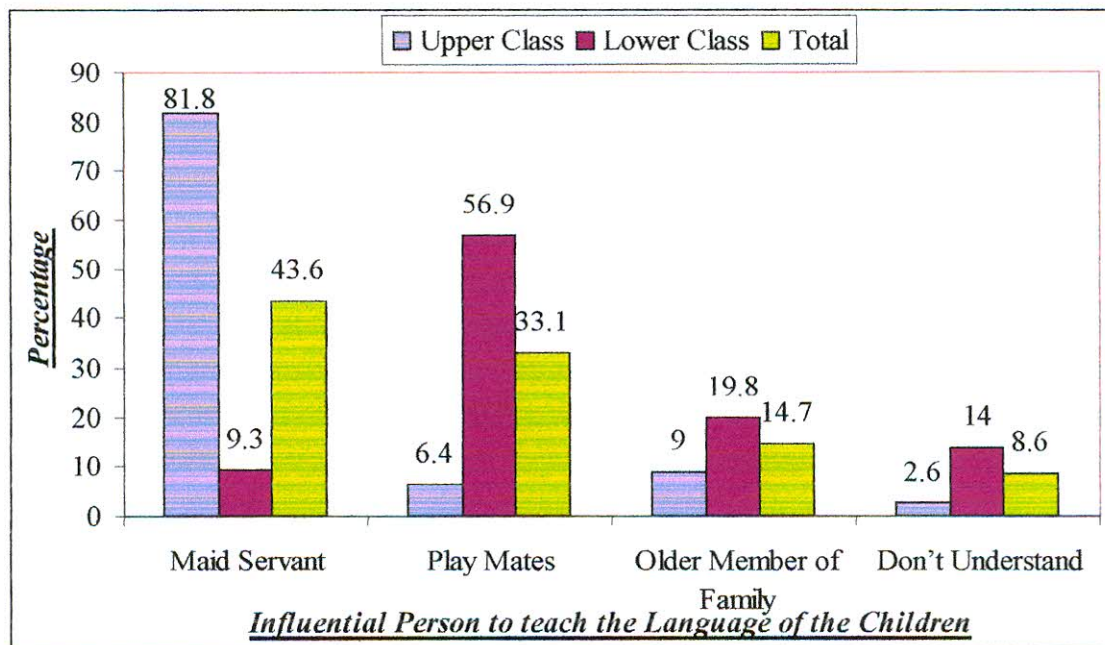
Another question was put to the respondents, who influence the children to learn language in the absence of working mothers. It is evident (Table 7.15 and Chart 7.3) that the children of working mothers are influenced by the maid servant (43.6 percent) to learn language, followed by play mates (33.1 percent), elder person of family(14.7 percent) respectively. It is mentionable that 8.6 percent working mothers are not aware of this part of socialization. They expressed their views as ‘they don’t understand’ about the learning language of their children.

If the category is considered, it is found that 81.8 percent children of the upper class working mothers are influenced by the maid servant, followed by older member of family (9 percent), play mates (6.4 percent) respectively and only 2 upper class working mothers out of 77 have mentioned that they don’t understand about the influencing person to learn language of their children. On the other hand, highest percentage of the children of lower class working mothers are influenced by the play mates (56.9 percent), followed by older member of family (19.8 percent), maid servant (9.3 percent) respectively. A significant proportion (14 percent) of lower class working mothers doesn’t aware of the influential factor of the learning language of the children.

Table 7.15 Who have Influenced the Children of the Working Mothers to Learn the Language in absence of Parents by Categories

Influential Members of Learning Language	Working Mothers				Total	
	Upper Class		Lower Class			
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Maid Servant	63	81.8	8	9.3	71	43.6
Play Mates	5	6.4	49	56.9	54	33.1
Older Member of Family	7	9.0	17	19.8	24	14.7
Don't Understand	2	2.6	12	14.0	14	8.6
Total	77	100.0	86	100.0	163	100.0

Chart 7.3 Influential Person to teach the Language of the Children of Working Mothers by Categories



7.2.9. Appreciation of Other's Roles

There are some criteria to measure the socialization of the children. Appreciation of other roles is one of them. If a child receives the other's role positively, it will be recognized as the indication of socialization of that child properly. So I wanted to know the opinion of working mothers about their children's expression

regarding the others role in the absence of them. It is seen from the study that most of the working mothers (66.8 percent) have replied of saying 'no'. Only 33.2 percent working mothers have mentioned that their children receive the other's role positively.

Table 7.16 *Whether did the Children of the Working Mothers appreciate about the Others Role or Not by Categories*

Whether the Children of WM to be pleased about others role	Working Mothers				Total	
	Upper Class		Lower Class			
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Yes	42	38.2	31	28.2	73	33.2
No	68	61.8	79	71.8	147	66.8
Total	110	100.0	110	100.0	220	100.0

If the category is measured, data indicate that maximum (61.8 percent) upper class working mothers have opined that their children do not appreciate the other's presence except mother and 38.2 percent working mothers have told that their children appreciate the other's role. On the other hand, most of the lower class (71.8 percent) working mothers have mentioned that their children do not become pleased about the other's role and only 28.2 percent lower class working mothers have mentioned that their children become pleased about the other's role. In terms of appreciation of others role, if the more percentage of saying 'no' is considered as more reactive response, it can be commented that the children of lower class working mothers are more reactive compared to that of the upper class working mothers. What type of reaction is expressed by the children in this regard, I asked the working mothers. Most of the working mothers replied that their children cried loudly (36.7 percent), followed by 30.6 percent breaking the goods,

29.3 percent become angry and 3.4 percent others respectively. Others include not coming and speaking to me etc.

Table 7.17 *Nature of Expression of the Children of the Working Mothers towards the Others by Categories*

Nature of Attitude towards Others Role	Working Mothers				Total	
	Upper Class		Lower Class			
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Expression of angry	18	26.5	25	31.6	43	29.3
Breaking the goods	32	47.1	13	16.5	45	30.6
Crying Shoutly	16	23.5	38	48.1	54	36.7
Others	2	2.9	3	3.8	5	3.4
Total	68	100.0	79	100.0	147	100.0

On the basis of category, two different reactive attitudes are found in the two classes of working mothers. It is evident that most of the children (47.1 percent) of upper class working mothers expressed their reaction towards the others in absent of mothers by breaking the goods, and highest proportion of the children (48.1 percent) of lower class working mothers expressed their reaction by crying loudly. In spite of being different in the nature of reaction, it is expressed by the children of both the categories of working mothers.

7.3. Role of Socializing Agents

Personality of a child does not develop ready-made. It is molded or shaped through the process of socialization. It is a process which begins at birth and continues till the death of the individual. Some agents are established by culture which socializes the new born child. How do the agents play their roles in the socialization of the children are discussed in this section.

7.3.1. Role of Family Members

The process of socialization begins for every one of us in the family. Family includes all the members of parental and maternal side with parents. The intimate relationship between the mother and the child has a great impact on the shaping of child's abilities and capacities. The parents are the first persons to introduce to the child the culture of his group. The child receives additional communications from his older siblings and other members of his family, i.e. brothers and sisters, grand father and mother. If the family members play their role significantly, the children will be properly socialized. For exploring the role of family members in the socialization of the children, I asked to the working mothers about the role of family members (Table 7.18). The highest percentage (41.4 percent) of working mothers replied that the family members play a fair role in the socialization of their children, followed 38.6 percent good, 15.5 percent poor respectively and about five percent (4.5 percent) working mothers are not able to asses the role of their family members in the socialization of their children.

Table 7.18 Role of Family Members in Proper Socialization of the Children of Working Mothers

Role of Family Members in Socialization	Working Mothers				Total	
	Upper Class		Lower Class			
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Good	57	51.8	28	25.5	85	38.6
Fair	48	43.6	43	39.1	91	41.4
Poor	3	2.7	31	28.2	34	15.5
Don't know	2	1.8	8	7.3	10	4.5
Total	110	100.0	110	100.0	220	100.0

If the category is considered, it is seen that more than fifty percent (51.8

percent) of the upper class working mothers are satisfied in the role of their family members, which is expressed of saying 'good', followed by 43.6 percent and 2.7 percent are mentioned as fair and poor respectively. Only 2 out of 110 upper class working mothers are expressed their ignorance regarding the role of the family members in the socialization of their children. On the other hand, highest proportion (39.1 percent) of lower class working mothers have mentioned the role of family members as fair, followed by 25.5 percent good, 28.2 percent poor respectively. If the good & fair ($51.8+43.6=95.4$ percent) are considered as the positive role of family members in the socialization of children, it can be said that this agent of socialization (the family members) is playing significant role to the children of upper class working mothers compared to that of the lower class working mothers (64.6 percent).

7.3.2. Role of Peer Group

'Peer groups' means those groups made up of the contemporaries of the child, his associates in school, in playground and in street. He learns from these children, facts and facets of culture that they have previously learnt at different times from their parents. The members of peer groups have other sources of information about the culture-their peers in still other peer groups and thus the acquisition of culture goes on. Even it is true that the peer culture becomes more important and effective than the parental culture in the adolescent years of the child. So regarding the role of peer groups was also asked to the working mothers, it is evident from the study that the highest proportion of working mothers have mentioned as good, 19.1

percent fair, 30 percent poor and 3.2 percent did not make any comment respectively.

Table 7.19 Role of Peer Group/Play mate in Proper Socialization of the Children of the Working Mothers by Categories

Role of Peer Group in Socialization	Working Mothers				Total	
	Upper Class		Lower Class			
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Good	81	73.6	24	21.8	105	47.7
Fair	10	9.1	32	29.1	42	19.1
Poor	17	15.5	49	44.5	66	30.0
Don't know	2	1.8	5	4.5	7	3.2
Total	110	100.0	110	100.0	220	100.0

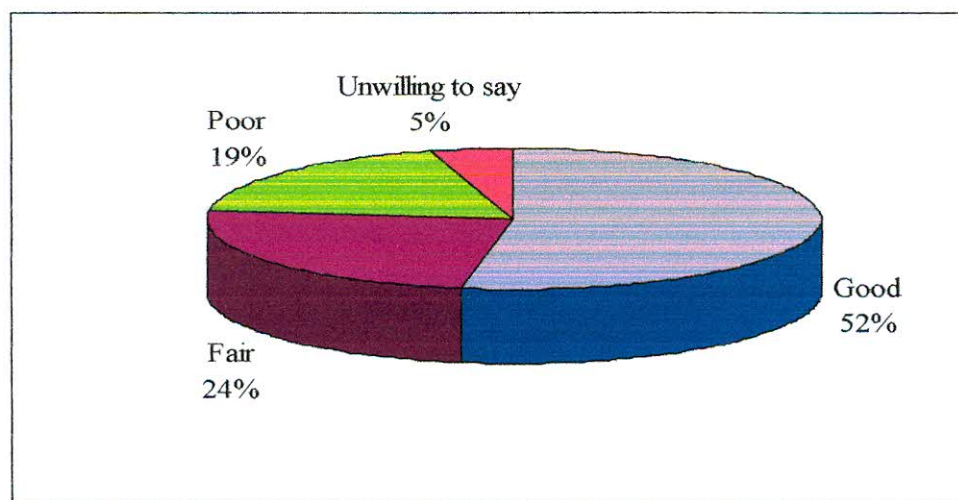
If we look the category, it is seen that the highest proportion (73.6 percent) of upper class working mothers have mentioned as good, followed by 9.1 percent fair, 15.5 percent poor and 1.8 percent did not make any comment respectively. On the other hand, 44.5 percent of lower class working mothers have mentioned the role of peer groups in socialization is very insignificant of saying 'poor', followed by 29.1 percent fair, 21.8 percent good and 4.5 percent did not make any comment respectively. As a whole, if the more percentage is considered as the good performance of the peer group in the socialization of the children, it can be commented that peer group is playing an important role in this regard.

7.3.3. Role of Teachers

Teacher is a powerful agent of socialization. The teachers also play their role in socialization when the child enters the school. It is in the school that the culture is formally transmitted and acquired, in which the lore and the learning, the science and the art, of one generation is passed on to the next. It is not only the source of

formal knowledge of the culture that is transmitted there but most of its premises as well as its ethical sentiments, its political attitude, its customs and taboos. The children in the earlier school may uncritically absorb the culture to which their teachers give expression. They may respond in the high school with increasing skepticism. But wherever they are and whatever age, the communications they received from their teachers help to socialize them and to make them finally matured members of their societies. So the working mothers were asked about the role of teachers in the proper socialization of the children (Chart 7.4 & Table 7.20).

Chart 7.4 *Opinions of the Working Mothers about the Role of Teacher in Socialization of the Children*



It is depicted that most of the working mothers (52.7 percent) expressed their opinion about the role of teacher as good. Rest of the working mothers have mentioned the role of teacher in the socialization of their children as fair (24.1 percent), poor (18.6 percent) and 6 out of 110 working mothers are not willing to make comment in this regard. If the more percentage is considered as the more

satisfied role of the teacher in socialization, it is to be said that the teachers are playing their role properly in the socialization of the working mother's children.

Table 7.20 Role of Teacher in Proper Socialization of the Children of the Working Mothers by Categories

Role of Teacher in Socialization	Working Mothers				Total	
	Upper Class		Lower Class			
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Good	58	52.7	58	52.7	116	52.7
Fair	30	27.3	23	20.9	53	24.1
Poor	18	16.4	23	20.9	41	18.6
Don't know	4	3.6	6	5.5	10	4.5
Total	110	100.0	110	100.0	220	100.0

If the class is considered, the same scale of satisfaction that is expressed of saying 'good' is found between the upper class and lower class working mothers in terms of teacher's role in socialization of their children. It is 52.7 percent for both the upper class and lower class working mothers. Rest of the upper class working mothers have mentioned about the role of teacher in the socialization of the children as fair (27.3 percent) and poor (16.4 percent). Only 3.6 percent upper class working mothers were unwilling to make any comment regarding the role of teachers in the socialization of their children. On the other hand, 20.9 percent of lower class working mothers have expressed their opinion about the role of teacher in the socialization of children as fair and poor. If the more percentage is considered as the better performance of the teacher as a socializing agent, findings can be drawn that the teachers are performing their role properly in the socialization of the children of the working mothers in both classes.

7.3.4. Role of Mass Media

Now a day's media are being considered as a strong agent of socialization. Mass Media of communication consist of various types of literature, printing and electronic equipments. Television and computer are the favorite amusements of enjoyment of the children. They enjoy cartoon shows and other programs in electronic media. In recent years, computer has become a symbol of status, as well as a recreational medium for the children of a nuclear well off family. To some extent, they go through internet uses computer to enjoy electronic games and influenced by the western culture. As a powerful agent, what role is played by the mass media in the socialization of the children was asked to the working mothers (Table 7.21 & Chart 7.5).

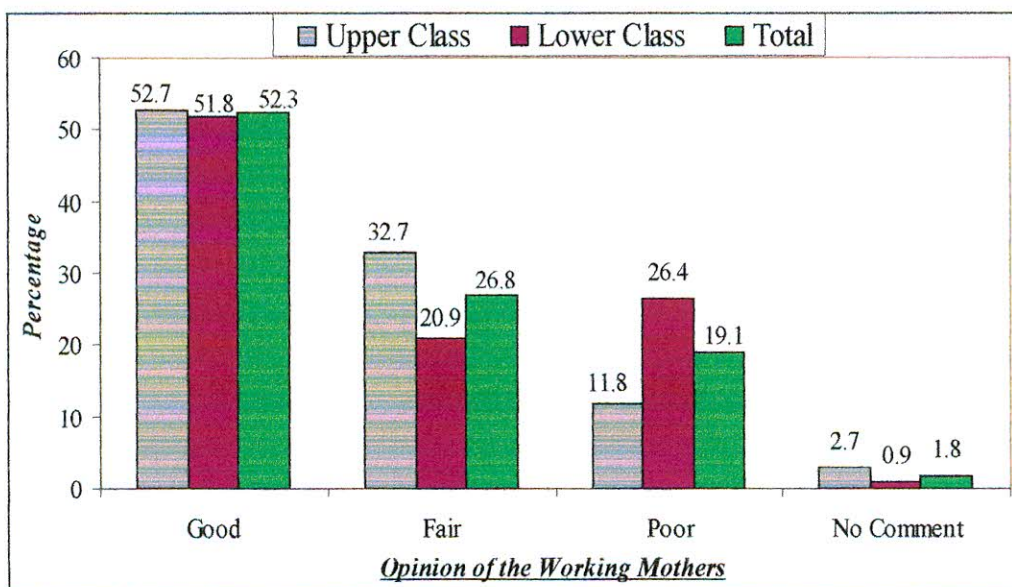
Table 7.21 Role of Media in Proper Socialization of the Children of Working Mothers by Categories

Role of Media in Socialization	Working Mothers				Total	
	Upper Class		Lower Class			
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Good	13	11.8	29	26.4	42	19.1
Fair	36	32.7	23	20.9	59	26.8
Poor	58	52.7	57	51.8	115	52.3
Don't know	3	2.7	1	.9	4	1.8
Total	110	100.0	110	100.0	220	100.0

It is revealed from the study that most of the working mothers (52.3 percent) are not satisfied about the role of mass media in proper socialization of the children. They have expressed the negative impression of saying 'poor'. Only 19.1 percent and 26.8 percent working mothers have expressed their opinion regarding the role of mass media as good and fair respectively. Very insignificant numbers (4

out of 220) of working mothers were reluctant to make comment in this regard. No significant difference is found between the upper class and lower class working mothers about the views of the role of mass media in the children's socialization. On the basis of total respondent's views, it can be concluded that the mass of media of communication are not properly performed its role in the socialization of the children. It is also seen in the daily newspaper that the children are becoming dimotivated about our culture, norms, values and tradition by the means of mass media and are influenced by the western culture.

Chart 7.5 the Opinion of the Working Mothers about the Role of Mass Media in the Socialization of the Children



7.4. Socialization of the Children is being hampered

The parents especially mother is the first persons to introduce to the child the culture of his groups. Mother is considered as the key role player in the socialization process of a child. It is seen in the society; children become derailed

in absence of proper caring of the mothers. For this reason, a question was asked to the working mothers, whether the socialization of their children being hampered or not in the absence of them. Most of the working mothers (83.6 percent) have responded that the socialization of their children being hampered and only 16.4 percent working mothers have mentioned that the socialization of their children is not being hampered.

Table 7.22 Whether the Proper Socialization of the Children of the Working Mothers being Hampered or Not by Categories

Is Being Hampered Socialization	Working Mothers				Total	
	Upper Class		Lower Class			
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Yes	82	74.5	102	92.7	184	83.6
No	28	25.5	8	7.3	36	16.4
Total	110	100.0	110	100.0	220	100.0
Chi Square	Value= 13.29		D.F=1		Significance= .000	

If the class is considered, it is evident that 74.5 percent upper class working mothers have acknowledged the socialization problem of the children and 25.5 percent have disagreed with the socialization problem of the children. Similarly, the highest proportion (92.7 percent) of lower class working mothers have admitted the socialization problem of the children and only 7.3 percent lower class working mothers did not admit this problem. A difference is found between the opinion of upper class and lower class working mothers, as the chi square value is 13.29, degree of freedom 1 and significance .000. So this difference is statistically significant. In terms of socialization problem, if the more percentage is indicated as the severe problem, it can be commented that the lower class working mothers are in severe problem compared to the upper class working mothers.

7.5. Best the Alternative of Mothers for Socialization

Socialization is mainly a matter of social learning or cultural learning. It is the process by which the individual learns the fundamental cultural patterns of the society in which he lives. Through cultural conditioning one learns to walk, talk, wear dress, greet friends, handle social obligations, develop attitudes approved in his society. Kingsley Davis says that there are two categories of persons from whom the child acquires the sentiments, beliefs and knowledge of his culture. The first includes those who have authority over him. They are the parents. Since the infant has no juniors and no capacity for associating with equals the parents play an important role at this stage. The second category includes those persons who have equality with him. It is through the age mates or peers that one learns some of the more informed aspects of culture such as folkways, manners, style, shades, fads, fashions, crazes, habits secret modes of gratification and forbidden knowledge. Some such things are often socially necessary and yet socially tabooed. Example: knowledge of sex relations (Rao, 2006:218-19). From the very beginning of a child's life, maternal influence is greatly necessary for his socialization. As the working mothers remains out side the home for a span of time, I wanted to know about the best alternatives in the absence of mothers (Table 7.23). Maximum working mothers of both the classes have mentioned other family members (74.1 percent) as the choice of their best alternative of mothers. Rest of the working mothers has mentioned husband (5.5 percent), maid servant (7.7

percent), trained nurse (6.8 percent) and day care center (5.9 percent) as their choice of best alternative of mothers.

Table 7.23 Best Alternative of Mothers for Socialization of the Children of the Working Mothers by Categories

Best Alternative of WM for Children’s Socialization	Working Mothers				Total	
	Upper Class		Lower Class			
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Other Family Members	84	76.4	79	71.8	163	74.1
Husband	8	7.3	4	3.6	12	5.5
Maid Servant	7	6.4	10	9.1	17	7.7
Trained Nurse/Baby Sitter	3	2.7	12	10.9	15	6.8
Day Care Center	8	7.3	5	4.5	13	5.9
Total	110	100.0	110	100.0	220	100.0

If the class is considered, it is seen that highest proportion of upper class working mothers have mentioned other family members (76.4 percent) as their choice of best alternative of mothers. Rest of the upper class working mothers has mentioned husband (7.3 percent), day care center (7.3 percent), maid servant (6.4 percent) and trained nurse (2.7 percent) as their choice of best alternative in the absence of mothers. On the other hand, most of the lower class working mothers have mentioned other family members (71.8 percent) as their choice of best alternative of mothers. Rest of the lower class working mothers has mentioned trained nurse equivalent to *Dai* (10.9 percent), maid servant (9.1 percent), day care center (4.5 percent) and husband (3.6 percent) as their choice of the best alternative of mothers. If the more percentage is considered as the favorite alternative of mothers, it is to be noted that the other family members is the best alternative choice to both the classes of working mothers for their children's socialization in absence of them.

7.6. Main Obstacles in Socialization of Children

Women occupy two crucial roles – reproductive and productive. The major of all women of reproductive ages all over the world face the need to combine economic productive work and childbearing and caring roles. The dual responsibility falls on low-income women in developing countries whose economic contribution is increasingly vital for the survival of the family. The negative attitude of our society towards women's employment has mainly sprung from the culture bias that a women's prime duty is to rear her children and that their interests are neglected when a mother assumes outside employment. Therefore, childcare has been an important issue for all working mothers. Women in Bangladesh Mostly take up employment due to economic necessity rather than for self-actualization or for felling up their leisure times. Women are always in dilemmas to take decision whether to have career and then family or family and then career. Many women have fragmented educational and career patterns as a result of family responsibilities (Mahtab, 2007:67). I wanted to know from the working mothers about the main obstacle to socialization of their children. The data (Table 7.24) indicate that more than fifty percent (50.9 percent) of the working mothers have mentioned not giving enough time to the children as the main obstacle. Rests of the working mothers have mentioned economic hardship (30.9 percent), lack of proper guidance (16.8 percent) and others (1.4 percent) as the impediment in socialization of their children. Other includes lack of timely feeding, bathing etc.

Table 7.24 Obstacles of Proper Socialization of Children of the Working Mothers by Categories

Obstacles of Proper Socialization of Children of WM	Working Mothers				Total	
	Upper Class		Lower Class			
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Enough Time not Given	82	74.5	30	27.3	112	50.9
Economic Hardship	0	0	68	61.8	68	30.9
Lack of Proper Guidance	27	24.5	10	9.1	37	16.8
Others	1	.9	2	2.7	3	1.4
Total	110	100.0	110	100.0	220	100.0

If the category is judged, it is seen that different obstacle are emphasized by the two categories of working mothers. Most of the upper class working mothers (74.5 percent) has mentioned lack of giving enough time to the children as the great barrier of their children's proper socialization and 24.5 percent have mentioned lack of proper guidance as the obstacle. On the other hand, most of the lower class working mothers (61.8 percent) has mentioned lack of proper guidance as the barrier of their children's socialization. Rests of the lower class working mothers have mentioned not giving enough time to the children (27.3 percent), lack of proper guidance (9.1 percent) and others (2.7 percent) as the obstacles to children's socialization.

7.7. Opinion of the Working Mothers to Overcome the Problems faced by them

In terms of welfare services for the working mothers, it is seen from previous discussion (Chapter 5, & 6) that most of the working mothers expressed their opinion about the problems related to their office, household activities and their children's socialization. In this context I asked the working mothers what measures can be taken for their welfare. They have given multiple suggestions. Most of the

working mothers have stated (Table-7.25) that more day care center (73.2 percent) should be established where increasing number of working mother's children may take shelter. Other suggestions mentioned by the working mothers are to establish special school (57.3 percent), and increase maternity leave (21.4 percent) for the working mothers.

Table 7.25 Suggestions for the Solution of the Socialization Problem of the Children of the Working Mothers by Categories

Suggestions of the WM for Socialization Problem of Children	Working Mothers				Total	
	Upper Class		Lower Class			
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Maternity Leave should be increased	26	23.6	21	19.1	47	21.4
Provide Special Food & Lodging for the servant	1	.9	0	0	1	0.5
Day Care Center should be established	102	92.7	59	53.6	161	73.2
Special School should be established for W Mother’s Children	33	30.0	93	84.5	126	57.3
Total	154* (N=110)		172* (N=110)		335* (N=220)	

**Multiple Responses*

If class is considered, highest proportion (92.7 percent) of the upper class working mothers suggested establishing more day care center for the women welfare. Other suggestions of the upper class working mothers are establishing special school in working place (30.0 percent), increase maternity leave (23.6 percent) and provide special food & lodging for the servant (0.9 percent).

Conversely major proportion (84.5 percent) of the lower class working mothers recommended establishing special school for the working mother's children. To increase maternity leave, establish more day care center are narrated

by the lower class working mothers as suggestion to overcome the problem and as a whole to ensure women welfare. Clear differences are seen in suggestions between the upper class and lower class working mothers. As a whole if more expressed suggestion is considered as the policy or programme formulation regarding women welfare. It can be commented that more day care center should be established in Bangladesh for this section of people as disadvantaged group.

On the basis of above review, it can be said that the working mothers have faced different types of problems such as feeding, toileting, schooling, dressing in connection with rearing up their children. Especially the socialization of the children is greatly hampered due to absence of mothers. Role of different agents of socialization is also narrated in this chapter. It is evident that family members, teachers, peer groups, mass media are playing the positive role in the socialization of the children.

Chapter Eight

Summary and Conclusion

Chapter Eight

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8.1. Major Findings

Participation of women in earning activities outside home is increasing after independence of Bangladesh. Traditionally in our society, women are considered responsible to household work. As early as 5 to 6 years of age, girls work at home. They wash dishes, gather firewood, sweep and clean the house, wash clothes, carry water for the family's needs, take care of younger siblings, help with cooking and serving meals and so on. The post liberation period in Bangladesh has witnessed a growing awareness among women to engage themselves in different types of economic activities out side the home along with their traditional work. From then the female workers have been facing many problems in their households activities like making food, cleaning house etc. Especially they greatly face the problem in rearing children that likely to hamper the socialization of their children. This is a great concern for our society as without proper socialization, a responsible citizen cannot be expected. Thus it is particularly necessary to ascertain the problems of the working mothers face in socializing their children in our country. This study was undertaken to answer this question. Data were collected from upper class and lower class working mothers of Rajshahi city of Bangladesh. The findings of the study have been presented under different sub-headings according to study objectives.

8.1.1. Present Socio-economic Status of Working Mothers

The socio-economic background is the important factor to identify the status or position of the working mothers. Moreover there is wider gap between the upper class working mothers and lower class working mother in terms of age, education, family size, occupation, income and homestead. It may be mentioned here that as the sample of this study are working mothers in the Rajshahi City, the findings may be considered as representative of the working mothers of the whole community.

It is seen that the average age of the upper class working mothers is higher than the lower class working mothers, 41.1 and 38.09 years respectively. It indicates that the upper class working mothers is more aged compared to the lower class working mothers. It is needed to mention that the upper class working mothers involved in work after completion of their study, so naturally they are aged than the lower class.

Majority of the working mothers are Muslim's. About 97.3 percent upper class working mothers are Muslim followed by 1.8 percent Hindu and 0.9 percent Christian. On the other hand, there are 87.3 percent Muslims, 10.0 percent Hindu and 2.7 percent Christian working mother in lower class. Traditionally, Bangladesh is a Muslim dominated country. Therefore, it has been reflected in the present study.

It is seen that maximum working mothers in both categories are currently married (70 percent). Rest of the working mothers is single (separated, widow and

deserted). If more single living (deserted, separated, divorced and widow) is considered as the more vulnerability, the findings indicate that Lower Class working mother is more vulnerable compared to the upper class working mother, 46.3 percent and 12.7 percent respectively.

Upper class working mothers found higher educated compared to the lower class working mother; 79.1 percent and 5.5 percent respectively. So in terms of education, the upper class working mothers are better off than the lower class working mothers.

It is seen from the study that most of the upper class working mothers are 1st class service holder, 39.1 percent professional service holder (Doctor, Engineer and Teacher etc.), 13.6 percent businessman and 5.5 percent 2nd class service holder. On the other hand, the highest number (34.5 percent) of lower class working mothers involved in day labour, followed by 27.3 percent, 25.5 percent and 12.5 percent are maid servant, 3rd & 4th class service holder and businessman respectively.

It is evident from the study that the estimated average income is highly different from upper class to lower class working mothers. It is BDT. 19,284.15 for the upper class and BDT. 3,834.09 for the lower class working mothers. If income is considered as one of the criteria of better position of working women in society, it can be said that the upper class working mothers are in better position and the lower class working mothers are in vulnerable position in terms of monthly income.

It is seen from the study that the family size of upper class and lower class working mother are different. The average number of family member is 3.89 and 4.15 for the upper class and lower class working mothers respectively. It is also seen that the highest proportion (59.1 percent) of upper class working mothers' family is consisted of more than four members. On the other hand, the highest number (56.4 percent) of lower class working mother has 4 to 5 family members. In earlier section of this chapter, it was known (Table-5.4) that the upper class working mother are more conscious, educated and empowered compared to the lower class working mother. They are aware of the demerits of large scale of family. So the family size of upper class working mother is smaller than that of lower class working mothers.

It is found in the study that the mentionable upper class working mothers (71.8 percent) carried out their life economically surplus position followed by 26.4 percent and 1.8 percent working mothers carried out their life in economically easy going and deficit situation. On the other hand, maximum lower class working mothers are economically insolvent. It is 88.2 percent. Only an insignificant proportion (11.8 percent) of lower class working mothers carried out their life economically surplus position. If economic insolvency is considered as an indication of vulnerability in respect of their child rearing, the lower class working mothers are more vulnerable compared to the upper class working mothers.

8.1.2. Problems of Working Mothers in Bangladesh

It is seen from the study that maximum working mothers (68. 2 percent) are

engaged in work in the both class for bringing about solvency of their family and 0.9 percent is engaged for satisfying their hobby. If the class of working mothers is considered, it is found that 47.3 percent upper class working mothers are engaged in job of being educated, 40.9 percent for bringing about solvency, 6.4 percent for themselves, 3.6 percent for their empowerment and 1.8 percent for satisfying their hobby. On the other hand, most of the lower class working mothers (95.5 percent) are engaged in job to bring about the solvency of their family, 3.6 percent for their empowerment and only 0.9 percent for being educated. Data indicate that the working mothers in both the classes are bound to engage in job for their economic solvency.

It is evident that the working mothers spend their income for multiple purposes. It is found that the income is exclusively used for all family members (47.3 percent). Almost all the respondents mentioned that they (by themselves or by family head) used their income for household expenditure (45.5 percent) followed by 5 percent for children, 2.3 percent for own purpose (own clothing, cosmetics and whatever they feel, spent their income). If power of spending income is considered as the indication of empowerment in all section of people, propositions can be drawn that the working mothers are more empowered in social position compared to non-working mothers.

It is seen that the maximum working mothers (82.7 percent) in both the class faced problem in their working place. It is comparatively severe for the lower class (85.5 percent) working mother compared to upper class working mothers (80

percent). The lower class working mothers seriously faced the problem in work place like bad environment (8.5 percent), bad behaviour of boss (5.3 percent), excessive laborious work (28.7 percent) compared to the upper class working mothers. It is 3.4 percent, 2.3 percent, and 15.9 percent.

It is evident from the study that the most of the working mothers (59.5 percent) in both the categories have faced the problem in their cooking. It is also seen that the 54.5 percent upper class and 64.5 percent lower class working mothers have faced the cooking problem. No significant difference is found between the upper class and lower class working mothers.

Findings indicate that the lower class working mothers are in poorer situation (64.5 percent) compared to the upper class working mothers (54.5 percent) in terms of cooking. It may be mentioned that upper class working mothers can minimize this problem by the maid servant than lower class working mothers. So data reveal that lower class working mothers are more problematic compared to upper class working mothers.

Data of the study indicates that the maximum working mothers (60 percent) in both categories did not feel the problem in cleaning. A basic difference is found between upper class and lower class working mothers in their cleaning activities. It is observed from the study; the most of the upper class working mothers (70.9 percent) did not feel problem as they have the capacity to alternative arrangement for their cleaning activities compared to the lower class working mothers (50.9 percent). If the category is considered, it can be said that lower class working

mothers are in more problematic (50.9 percent) compared to the upper class working mothers in terms of cleaning of household activities. It is evident that maid servant (89.1 percent) is the main source of help for the upper class working mothers and wife of son (41.8 percent) is the main source of help for the lower class working mothers.

It is revealed from the study that 64.5 percent of the working mothers have the problem in their bedding or living arrangement. 35.5 percent replied that they have no problem in bedding. It is also seen that more (87.3 percent) upper class working mothers expressed dissatisfaction of saying 'yes problem' compared to the lower class working mothers (41.8 percent). This problem is more acute in upper class working mothers compared to that of lower class working mothers.

It is evident from the study that most of the working mothers (73.6 percent) expressed their satisfaction regarding shopping of saying 'no problem' and only 26.4 percent working mothers faced the shopping problem.

It is also seen that maximum upper class working mothers (90 percent) did not face the problem of shopping compared to that of lower class working mothers (57.3 percent). The difference also found between the two categories of working mothers. The chi square value is 30.35, degree of freedom 1 and significance .000. This difference is statistically significant. Those working mothers are agreed the problem of shopping, they have mentioned that failed to complete shopping timely (91.4 percent), not to buy better goods in spite of being capable (6.9 percent) and no shopping although necessary (1.7 percent) as the nature of problem in this regard.

8.1.3. Role of Socializing Agents in Child Development of Working Mothers

It is evident from the study that 90.9 percent upper class working mothers have 1-2 living children at present, 9.1 percent have 3-4 children at present. On the other hand, maximum (96.3 percent) lower class working mothers have 3 or more living children at present and only 3.7 percent lower class working mothers have 1-2 children. The average number of living children of the upper class working mothers and the lower class working mothers is 1.65 and 3.75 respectively. If more children are considered as the less empowerment and lower socio-economic status, the lower class working mothers is less empowered and low status compared to the upper class working mothers.

The awful picture is seen that more than fifty percent (53.6 percent) upper class working mothers are unable to provide proper food with their children due to remain outside home and 46.3 percent upper class working mothers are able to take care of their children in this regard. On the other hand, most (75.4 percent) of the lower class working mothers are unable to feed their children properly and very insignificant proportion (24.5 percent) of lower class working mothers are able to provide proper food with their children. A clear difference is found between the two classes of working mothers as the chi square value is 11.44, degree of freedom 1 and significance .001. So this difference is statistically significant.

It is evident from the study that maximum (69.7 percent) working mothers have mentioned that children did not get food in time as the problem. Children did

not get proper food (24.6 percent), remain unfed (5.6 percent) are mentioned by the working mothers as the problem regarding their children's feeding. It is severe for the lower class working mothers compared to the upper class working mothers in terms of not getting food in time.

The working mothers have mentioned that their children's food problem is partially solved with the help of husband (49.6 percent), maid servant (35.5 percent), daughter/son (31.8 percent), father in law/father (9.1 percent) mother in law/mother (6.8 percent), brother/brother in law (4.6 percent) and sister/sister in law (3.6 percent). A great difference is found between upper class and lower class working mothers in terms of helping hand. Data reveal that upper class working mothers got the maximum help from the maid servant (69.1 percent) and lower class working mothers got the maximum help from their daughter/son (53.6 percent).

It is found in the study that more than half (57.7 percent) of the working mothers have replied that they faced the bathing problem of their children and rest (42.3 percent) of the working mothers did not face this problem. It is also seen that most (95.5 percent) of the upper class working mothers have faced problem regarding their children's bath. On the contrary, most of the lower class (80 percent) working mothers did not face this problem. If the more percentage is considered as more vulnerability in terms of bathing problem of children, it can be said that the upper class working mothers are in more vulnerable situation compared to lower class working mothers.

It is depicted from the study that most of the working mothers (91.8 percent) did not face the toileting problem of their children and very insignificant proportion (8.2 percent) of working mothers replied as the problem of toileting of their children. It is also seen that the maximum upper class (93.6 percent) and lower class (90 percent) working mothers did not face this problem. It may be mentioned that this need can be satisfied by the daily routine basis (such as if the child is learnt to deliver latrine in morning or afternoon, he will be habituated in this time). So the working mothers can perform their role to socialize the children in this regard.

The clear picture is seen that they are not facing the problem of dressing up their children. It is 97.3 percent for the upper class and 96.4 percent for the lower class working mothers. Very insignificant proportion of working mothers admits that they are facing this problem. It is 2.7 percent for the upper class and 3.6 percent for the lower class. The upper class working mothers are in more problematic situation compared to the lower class working mothers in this problem.

Data indicate that the highest percentage of (96.4 percent) working mothers do not face the problem of sleeping of their children and only 3.6 percent working mothers have mentioned as positive response that means they have been facing this problem. In terms of sleeping problem, lower class working mothers are in problematic situation compared to upper class working mothers.

It is known from the study that most of the working mothers have school going children and very insignificant proportion of working mothers have no school going children. The more school going children is found in the lower class working mothers compared to that of the upper class working mothers. In terms of schooling problem of the children, the lower class working mothers are in comfortable situation compared to upper class working mothers.

Findings of the study reveal that their children did not learn the proper language and insignificant proportion (25.9 percent) of working mothers mentioned that their children learn proper language. More problematic situation is found in the upper class working mothers compared to the lower class working mothers.

It is evident from the study that the children of working mothers are influenced by the maid servant (43.6 percent) to learn language, followed by play mates (33.1 percent), elder person of family (14.7 percent) respectively. It is mentionable that 8.6 percent working mothers are not aware of this section of socialization. They expressed their views as 'they don't understand' about the learning of language of their children.

If the category is considered, it is found that 81.8 percent children of the upper class working mothers are influenced by the maid servant, followed by older member of family (9 percent), play mates (6.4 percent) respectively and only 2 upper class working mothers out of 77 have mentioned that they don't understand about the influencing person to teach language of their children. On the other hand,

highest percentage of the children of lower class working mothers are influenced by the play mates (56.9 percent), followed by older member of family (19.8 percent), maid servant (9.3 percent) respectively. A significant proportion (14 percent) of lower class working mothers doesn't know the influential factor of the teaching language of the children.

It is seen from the study that most of the working mothers (66.8 percent) have replied negatively with saying 'no'. Only 33.2 percent working mothers have mentioned that their children receive the other's role positively. In terms of appreciation of others role, the children of lower class working mothers are more reactive compared to that of the upper class working mothers.

The highest percentage (41.4 percent) of working mothers replied that the family members play a fair role in the socialization of their children, followed 38.6 percent good, 15.5 percent poor respectively and about five percent (4.5 percent) working mothers are not able to assess the role of their family members in the socialization of their children.

If the good & fair ($51.8+43.6= 95.4$ percent) are considered as the positive role of family members in the socialization of children, it can be said that this agent (the family members) is playing significant role to the children of upper class working mothers compared to the lower class working mothers (64.6 percent). As a whole, if the more percentage is considered as the good performance of the peer group in the socialization of the children, it can be commented that peer group is playing an important role in this regard.

It is depicted that most of the working mothers (52.7 percent) expressed their opinion about the role of teacher as good. Rest of the working mothers have mentioned the role of teacher in the socialization of their children as fair (24.1 percent), poor (18.6 percent) and 6 out of 110 working mothers were not willing to make any comment in this regard.

If the more percentage is considered as the better performance of the teacher as a socializing agent, proposition can be drawn that the teachers are performing their role duly in the socialization of the children of the working mothers of both the classes.

It is revealed from the study that most of the working mothers (52.3 percent) are not satisfied about the role of mass media in proper socialization of the children. They have expressed the negative impression of saying 'poor'. Only 19.1 percent and 26.8 percent working mothers have expressed their opinion regarding the role of mass media as good and fair respectively. Very insignificant numbers (4 out of 220) of working mothers were reluctant to make any the comment in this regard.

Most of the working mothers (83.6 percent) have responded that the socialization of their children being hampered and only 16.4 percent working mothers have mentioned that the socialization of their children are not being hampered. If the class is considered, it is evident that the lower class working mothers are in severe problem compared to the upper class working mothers.

Maximum working mothers of both classes have mentioned other family

members (74.1 percent) as the choice of their best alternative of mothers. Rest of the working mothers has mentioned husband (5.5 percent), maid servant (7.7 percent), trained nurse (6.8 percent) and day care center (5.9 percent) as their choice of best alternative of mothers.

If the more percentage is considered as the favorite alternative of mothers, it is to be noted that the other family members is the best alternative choice to both the classes of working mothers for their children's socialization in absence of them.

The data indicate that more than fifty percent (50.9 percent) of the working mothers have mentioned not giving enough time to the children as the main obstacle. Rest of the working mothers has mentioned economic hardship (30.9 percent), lack of proper guidance (16.8 percent) and others (1.4 percent) as the impediment in socialization of their children. Other includes lack of timely feeding, bathing etc.

It is seen that different obstacle are emphasized by the two categories of working mothers. Most of the upper class working mothers (74.5 percent) has mentioned lack of enough time as the great barrier of their children's proper socialization and 24.5 percent have mentioned lack of proper guidance as the obstacle. On the other hand, most of the lower class working mothers (61.8 percent) has mentioned lack of proper guidance as the barrier of their children's socialization. Rests of the lower class working mothers have mentioned enough

time not given (27.3 percent), lack of proper guidance (9.1 percent) and others (2.7 percent) as the obstacles to their children's socialization.

Most of the working mothers stated in the study that more day care center (73.2 percent) should be established where increasing number of working mother's children may take shelter. Other suggestions mentioned by the working mothers are to establish special school (57.3 percent), and increase maternity leave (21.4 percent) for the working mothers. As a whole if more expressed suggestion is considered as the policy or programme formulation regarding women welfare. It can be commented that more day care center should be established in Bangladesh for this section of people as disadvantaged group.

8.2. Recommendations

The present study was carried out to focus on the problems of working mothers in socializing children in Bangladesh. To realize this main objective data were collected from the upper class and lower class working mothers. On the basis of the findings following suggestion are being recommended;

8.2.1. Child Care Facilities should be increased

It is evident from the study that maximum working mothers have faced the great problem in work place for their children. Institutional child care facilities are absent in Bangladesh and as such working mothers are required to spend considerable amount of their time, energy and effort to manage child care and outside employment simultaneously. This not only restricts a woman's mobility outside home, but also takes away her productive energy. So child care facilities

like day care center, baby homes, nurseries and children's health clinic should be increased for working mothers.

8.2.2. Maternity leave should be increased

It is seen from the study that working mothers face the serious problem in maternity period. 6 months breast feeding is emphasized for the new born baby by the medical science. But the working mothers enjoyed the maternity leave only four months. So maternity leave should be increased from 4 months to 6 months for the working mothers. Our neighboring country India has been taken decision 6 months maternity leave for their working mothers.

8.2.3. Child Allowance should be introduced

Child allowance should be introduced for specially lower class working mothers so that they can develop their children as the promising manpower of our country.

8.2.4. A Child Policy should be formulated

There is no specific child policy in Bangladesh. As a result, program regarding child welfare does not continue consecutively due to political reason. Government should take necessary step to formulate a child policy so that existing service can play an effective role to the child welfare.

8.2.5. A law should be enacted to protect the Women's Harassment

It is observed from the study that the working women are suffered both physically and mentally by male boss in the working place. Besides these, female students are also sexually harassed in the academic institution that is explored in the daily newspaper. So a law should be enacted to protect the women's harassment from

the all part of society specially from their working place in our country.

8.2.6. Awareness should be created among the People

It is evident from the study that working women are suffered by the people of society due to lack of awareness of the people. To some extent, the negative attitude of our society towards women's employment out side the home creates multiple problems in the family level. So government should take necessary steps to create awareness among the people of society. Non government efforts should also be encouraged in this regard.

8.2.7. Child psychology should be incorporated in the academic curricular

It is also seen that maximum working mothers and also the teachers are not able to asses the proper child's needs, desire and wish. Even they did not know that children have also special needs and right. So child psychology should be incorporated in the academic curricular of our country.

8.2.8. Coordination should be ensured in child welfare programs

There are many government and non-government institutions performing different child welfare activities in our country. They have been performing their role in different ways. For this reason, the main target of child welfare is not achieved. Government should take necessary steps to coordinate between the voluntary efforts and government program of the child welfare services.

8.2.9. Training should be arranged for the concerned People

Different nation building departments in collaboration with various non-government organizations should take proper initiatives to train up the working

mothers, maid servant and the family members for giving orientations towards the socialization of the future citizen of the country.

8.3. Conclusion

As such problems of working mothers in socializing their children have become more pronounced now than before. So, the society has the social and political responsibility of ensuring their proper socialization. It is considered as a major field of social work in the world. A social worker can intervene in the society to change the attitude, norms and values towards the working mothers as well as their problems. As per the findings of the present study, the concerning authority would be able to understand about the problems of working mothers in socializing their children. An effective policy and proposal can be formulated on the basis of these findings from the viewpoint of social work in Bangladesh in the near future.

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Appendices

Appendix-1

Interview Schedule for the Working Mothers

Department of Social Work

University of Rajshahi

Problems of Working Mothers in Socializing Children: A Study in Rajshahi Metropolitan City	Sign.	Date	No.		

1. Type of Working Mothers: ① Upper Class ② Lower Class

2. Name:----- Address: 2.1. Zila:-----

2.2. Upazila:----- 2.3. Union:----- 2.4. Village: -----

3. Religion: ①Islam ② Hindu ③ Buddhist ④Christian

4. Occupation: ①Class One Government ②Class One Non-government ③ Business

④ Advocate ⑤ Teacher ⑥ Day Labourer ⑦ Maid Servant

5. Households members:

Serial No.	Name	Sex		Relation with F. H.	Age		Marital Status					Education (Class)	Occupation & Monthly Income			
		M	F		Y	M	U	M	S	D	W		Occp.-1	Income	Occp.-2	Income

6. How much you total monthly family income-----Taka

7. How did your family expenses? ☐ Remain Surplus ☐ Hardship ☐ Become deficit

7.1. How did you fulfill the deficit [multiple answers] ☐ Unfed ☐ Public Assistance

☐ NGO help ☐ Relative's help ☐ Loan from NGO ☐ Borrowing goods from shop

☐ others--

8. How did you spend your income? ① To bear household expenditure

② For own expenses" ③ For my children ④ For family member ⑤Others.....

9. Ownership of Your Homestead? ① Self ownership ② Rented House ③

Government quarter ④ Relative's House ⑤ Others.....

10. Room where you live: a) Space----- b) number-----

11. Room where you live: a) Floor: ----- b) Wall:-----c) Roof:-----

12. Type of Your Lighting in your house? ☐ Electricity ☐ Hurricane ☐ Kupee ☐ Candle
☐ Others-----

13. Source of Drinking Water: ☐ Supply water ☐ Tubwell ☐ Kupa ☐ Pond ☐ others-

14. Types of your Latrine: ☐ Kancha ☐ Jalabaddha ☐ Sanitary ☐ In bed ☐ others-

15. How many days you engage in this job?-----Year-----Months

16. How far distant your work place from your residence?-----K. M

17. How many days you attend your office in a week?

☐ One day ☐ Two days ☐ Three days ☐ Four days ☐ Five days ☐ Six days

18. How long you live in your work place? -----hours.

19. Why do you engage in job?

☐ Being Educated ☐ Solvency for family ☐ No alternative way ☐ Others-----

20. Do you Face Problems in your Working Place? ☐ No ☐ Yes

If yes, mention reasons; ☐ long time stay ☐ Negative environment ☐ Misbehave of Boss ☐ Excessive work load ☐ Fear of husband ☐ mentally tensed for kids ☐ Others--

21. Do you face the Cooking Problem? ☐ No ☐ Yes

If yes, mention nature of Problem; ☐ Failed to Cook timely ☐ Sometimes to eat in hotel
☐ Failed to cook quality food ☐ Husband becomes angry ☐ Sometimes remain unfed
☐ Others----

22. Do you face the Cleaning Problem?

☐ No ☐ Yes

23. Do you face the Problem of Living Arrangement or Bedding?

☐ No ☐ Yes

24. Do you face the Problem of Shopping? ☐ No ☐ Yes

25. Who help the Working Mothers in the Following Households Matters (Mark tick)?

Matters	I Can	Daughter	Husband	Son	Servant	Wife of Son	Neighbor	Mother in Law	Brother in Law	Others	Sufficient
Cooking											
Shopping											
Feeding											
Cleaning											
Bathing											
Dressing											
Bedding											

26. Number of Born Child a) Total:.....b) Son:.....c) Daughter:.....

27. Number of Alive Children :.....(Please describe about them)

28. How many school going Children, you have?

-----~Son-----Daughter-----Total

29. How do the children pass their time except school?

☐ No where ☐ In coaching center ☐ In the school of song ☐ Club ☐ Others----

30. Where do the children stay at the office time?

☐ In home ☐ In relative's house ☐ Remain with me ☐ In school ☐ In day care center

☐ Others----

31. Who did take care of your children at the working time?

☐ Husband ☐ Daughter ☐ Son ☐ Mother in Law ☐ Mother ☐ Sister ☐ Aunt ☐ Maid servant ☐ Others----

32. Whether the working mothers feel problem in the following matters of their Children or Not?

Matters	Yes	No	If Yes, Mention Nature of Problem
Feeding			
Bathing			
Toileting			
Dressing			
Sleeping			
Schooling			
Treatment			

33. Who help the Working Mothers in the Following Child's Matters (Mark tick)?

Matters	Daughter	Husband	Son	Servant	Mother	Sister	Mother in Law	Brother/Brother in Law	Others
Feeding									
Bathing									
Toileting									
Dressing									
Sleeping									
Schooling									
Treatment									

34. Whether the Children of working Mothers have learnt the proper language or not?

☐ No ☐ Yes

35. Who influence the children to the learning of language of working mother?

☐ Maid servant ☐ Play mates ☐ older member of family ☐ Others----

36. Whether the children of working mothers appreciate the other's role or not?

☐ No ☐ Yes

If yes, mention nature of expression; ☐ Expression of angry ☐ breaking the goods

☐ Crying shoutly ☐ Others----

37. Do you see the quarreling attitude of your child?

☐ Never ☐ Sometimes ☐ Often

38. How is care of child of working mothers?

☐ Adequate ☐ Inadequate ☐ Others----

39. How do the agents of socialization play in proper socialization of the children of working mothers?

Agents	Role in Socialization			
	Good	Fair	Poor	Don't know
Family Member				
Peer Group				
Teacher				
Mass Media				

40. Whether the Working Mothers involve in Conflict with Any Family Member about the Socialization of Children by Categories

☐ No ☐ Yes

If yes, mention subject of conflict; ☐ Not to give enough time ☐ Child not properly socialized ☐ about looking after the child ☐ about the study of children ☐ Others----

41. Do you think that Socialization of the Children is being hampered due to lack of mother's care?

☐ No ☐ Yes

42. Put your comment the best alternative of mothers for socialization of children?

43. Mention the Obstacles of Working Mothers in proper socialization of children.

44. Please give your Suggestions for the solution of the socialization problem of children.

Thank You

Appendix 2

The Children Act, 1974 and Children Rules, 1976

Bangladesh Parliament

Dacca, the 22nd June, 1974.

The following Act of Parliament received the assent of the President on the 21st June, 1974, and is hereby published for general information:-

Act No. XXXIX of 1974

An Act to consolidate and amend the law relating to the custody, protection and treatment of children and trial and punishment of youthful offenders,

Whereas it is expedient to consolidate and amend the law relating to the custody, protection and treatment of children and trial and punishment of youthful offenders;

It is hereby enacted as follows:-

Part I

Preliminary

1. **Short title and commencement.**- (1) This Act may be called the Children Act, 1974.

(2) It shall come into force in such areas and on such dates as the Government may, by notification in the official Gazette, specify.

2. **Definition.**- In this Act, unless there is anything repugnant in the subject or context,-

(a) “adult” means a person who is not a child;

(b) “approved home” means any institution which is established by any

association or body of individuals and recognised by the Government for the reception or protection of, or prevention of cruelty to, children and which undertakes to bring up, or give facilities for bring up, any child entrusted to its care in conformity with religion of his birth;

(c) “begging” means-

(i) soliciting or receiving alms in a public place, whether or not under any pretence such as singing, dancing, fortune-telling, reciting holy verse or performing tricks;

(ii) entering in any private premises for the purpose of soliciting or receiving alms;

(iii) exposing or exhibiting with the object or obtaining or extorting alms any sore, wound, injury, deformity or disease;

(iv) having no visible means of subsistence and wandering about and remaining in any public place in such condition or manner as makes it likely that the person doing so exists by soliciting or receiving alms; and

(v) allowing oneself to be used as an exhibit for the purpose of soliciting or receiving alms;

(d) “certified institute” means a training institute established or any training institute, industrial school or educational institution certified by the Government under section 19;

(e) “Chief Inspector” means Chief Inspector of certified institutes appointed under section 30;

(f) “Child” means a person under the age of sixteen years, and when used with reference to a child sent to a certified institute or approved home or committed by

a Court to the custody of a relative or other fit person means that child during the whole period of his detention notwithstanding that he may have attained the age of sixteen years during that period;

(g) “Code” means the Code of Criminal Procedure, 1898 (V of 1898);

(h) “guardian”, in relation to a child or youthful offender includes any person who, in the opinion of the Court having cognizance of any proceeding in relation to the child or youthful offender, has for the time being the actual charge of, or control over, the said child or youthful offender;

(i) “Juvenile Court” means a Court establish under section 3;

(j) “place of safety” includes a remand home, or any other suitable place or institution, the occupier or manager of which is willing temporarily to receive a child or where such remand home or other suitable place or institution is not available, in the case of a male child only, a police station in which arrangements are available or can be made for keeping children in custody separately from the other offenders;

(k) “prescribed” means prescribed by rules made under this Act.

(l) “Probation Officer” means a Probation Officer appointed under section 31;

(m) “supervision” means the placing of a child under the control of a Probation Officer or other person for the purpose of securing proper care and protection of the child by his parent, guardian, relation or any other fit person to whose care the child has been committed; and

(n) “youthful offender” means any child who has been found to have committed an offence

PART II

POWERS AND FUNCTIONS OF COURTS HAVING JURISDICTION UNDER THE ACT

3. Juvenile Courts.- Notwithstanding anything contained in the Code, the Government may, by notification in the official Gazette, establish one or more Juvenile Courts for any local area.

4. Courts empowered to exercise powers of Juvenile Court.- The powers conferred on a Juvenile Court by this Act shall also be exercisable by-

- (a) the High Court Division,
- (b) a Court of Session
- (c) a Court of an Additional Sessions Judge and of an Assistant Sessions Judge,
- (d) a Sub-Divisional Magistrate, and
- (e) a Magistrate of the first class,

whether trying any case originally or on appeal or in revision.

5. Powers of Juvenile Courts etc.-(1) When a Juvenile Court has been established for any local area, such Court shall try all cases in which a child is charged with the commission of an offence and shall deal with and dispose of all other proceedings under this Act, but shall not have power to try any case in which an adult is charged with any offence mentioned in Part VI of this Act.

(2) When a Juvenile Court has not been established for any local area, no Court other than a Court empowered under section 4 shall have power to try any case in which a child is charged with the commission of an offence or to deal with or dispose of any other proceeding under this Act.

(3) When it appears to a Juvenile Court or a Court empowered under section 4, such Court being subordinate to the Court of Session, that the offence with which a child is charged is triable exclusively by the Court of Session, it shall immediately transfer the case to the Court of Session for trial in accordance with the procedure laid down in this Act.

6. No. joint trial of child and adult.-(1) Notwithstanding anything contained in section 239 of the Code or any other law for the time being in force, no child shall be charged with, or tried for any offence together with an adult.

(2) If a child is accused of an offence for which under section 239 of the Code or any other law for the time being in force such child but for the provisions of sub-section (1) could have been tried together with an adult the Court taking cognizance of the offence shall direct separate trials of the child and the adult.

7. Sitzings, etc. of Juvenile Courts.-(1) A Juvenile Court shall hold its sittings at such place, on such days and in such manner as may be prescribed.

(2) In the trial of a case in which a child is charged with an offence a Court shall, as far as may be practicable, sit in a building or room different from that in which the ordinary sittings of the Court are held, or on different days or at different times from those at which the ordinary sitting of the Court are held.

8. Adult to be committed to sessions in a case to be committed to sessions.-

(1) When a child is accused along with an adult of having committed an offence and it appears to the Court taking cognizance of the offence that the case is a fit one for committal to the Court of Session, such Court shall, after separating the case in respect of the child from that in respect of the adult, direct that the adult alone be committed to the Court of Session for trial.

(2) The case in respect of the child shall then be transferred to a juvenile Court

if there is one or to a Court empowered under section 4, if there is no juvenile Court for the local area, and the Court taking cognizance of the offence is not so empowered:

Provided that the case in respect of the child shall be transferred to the Court of Session under section 5(3) if it is exclusively triable by the Court of Session in accordance with the Second Schedule of the Code.

9. Presence of persons in Juvenile Courts.-Save as provided in this Act, no person shall be present at any sitting of a Juvenile Court except-

- (a) the members and officers of the Court;
- (b) the parties to the case or proceeding before the Court and other persons directly concerned in the case or proceeding including the police officers;
- (c) parents or guardians of the child; and
- (d) such other persons as the Court specially authorises to be present.

10. Withdrawal of persons from Courts.- If at any stage during the hearing of a case or proceeding, the Court considers it expedient in the interest of the child to direct any person, including the parent, guardian or the spouse of the child or the child himself to withdraw, the Court may give such direction and thereupon such person shall withdraw.

11. Dispensing with attendance of child.-If at any stage during the hearing of case or proceeding, the Court is satisfied that the attendance of a child is not essential for the purpose of the hearing of the case or proceeding the Court may dispense with his attendance and proceed with the hearing of the case or of the proceeding in the absence of the child.

12. Withdrawal of person from Court when child is examined as witness.-

If at any stage during the hearing of a case or proceeding in relation to an offence against or any conduct contrary to decency or morality, a child is summoned as a witness, the Court hearing the case or proceeding may direct such persons as it thinks fit, not being parties to the case or proceeding, their legal advisers and the officers concerned with the case or proceeding, to withdraw and thereupon such persons shall withdraw.

13. Attendance at Court of parent of a child charged with offence, etc.-

(1). Where a child brought before a Court under this Act has a parent or guardian, such parent or guardian may in any case, and shall, if he can be found and if he resides within a reasonable distance, be required to attend the Court before which any proceeding is held under this Act, unless the Court is satisfied that it would be unreasonable to require his attendance.

(2) Where the child is arrested, the officer in charge of the police-station to which he is brought shall forthwith inform the parent or guardian, if he can be found, of such arrest, and shall also cause him to be directed to attend the Court before which the child will appear and shall specify the date of such appearance.

(3) The parent or guardian whose attendance shall be required under this section shall be the parent or guardian having the actual charge of or control over, the child;

Provided that if such parent or guardian is not the father, the attendance of the father may also be required.

(4) The attendance of the parent of a child shall not be required under this section in any case where the child was, before the institution of the proceeding, removed from the custody or charge of his parent by an order of a Court.

(5) Nothing in this section shall be deemed to required the attendance of the mother or female guardian of a child, but any such mother or female guardian may appear before the Court by an advocate or agent.

14. Committal to approved place of child suffering from dangerous disease.-(1) When a child who has been brought before a Court under any of the provisions of this Act, is found to be suffering from a disease requiring prolonged medical treatment, or a physical or mental complaint that is likely to respond to treatment, the Court, may send the child to a hospital or to any other place recognised to be an approved place in accordance with the rule made this Act for such period as it may think necessary for the required treatment.

(2) Where a Court has taken action under sub-section (1) in the case of child suffering from an infections or contagious disease, the Court, before restoring the said child to his partner in marriage, if there is one, or to the guardian, as the case may be, shall, where it is satisfied that such action will be in the interest of the said child, call upon his partner in marriage or the guardian, as the case may be, to satisfy the Court by submitting to medical examination that such partner or guardian will not re-infect the child in respect of whom the order has been passed.

15. Factors to be taken into consideration in passing orders by Court.-

For the purpose of any order which a Court has to pass under this Act, the Court shall have regard to the following factors:-

- (a) the character and age of the child;
- (b) the circumstances in which the child is living;
- (c) the reports made by the Probation Officer; and
- (d) such other matters as may, in the opinion of the Court, require to be taken

into consideration in the interest of the child;

Provided that where a child is found to have committed an offence, the above factors shall be taken into consideration after the Court has recorded a finding against him to that effect.

16. Reports of Probation Officers and other reports to be treated confidential.-The report of the Probation Officer or any other report considered by the Court under section 15 shall be treated as confidential:

Provided that if such report relates to the character, health or conduct of, or the circumstances in which, the child or the parent or guardian of such child is living, the Court may, if it thinks expedient, communicate the substance thereof to the child, or the parent or guardian concerned and may give the child or the parent or guardian of such child an opportunity to produce evidence as may be relevant to the matters stated in the report.

17. Prohibition on publication of report disclosing identity, etc. of child involved in cases.- No report in any newspaper, magazine or news-sheet nor any news giving agency shall disclose any particular of any case or proceeding in any Court under this Act in which a child is involved and which leads directly or indirectly to the identification of such child, nor shall any picture of such child be published:

Provided that for reasons to be recorded in writing, the Court trying the case or holding the proceeding may permit the disclosure of any such report, if, in its opinion, such disclosure is in the interest of child welfare and is not likely to affect adversely the interest of the child concerned.

18. Provisions of Criminal Procedure Code, 1898, to apply unless excluded.-Except as expressly provided under this Act or the rules made

thereunder, the procedure to be followed in the trial of cases and the holding of proceedings under this Act shall be in accordance with the provisions of the Code.

PART III

CERTIFIED INSTITUTES AND OTHER INSTITUTIONS

19. Establishment and certification of Institutes.-(1) The Government may establish and maintain training institute for the reception of children and youthful offenders.

(2) The Government may certify that any training institute not established under sub-section (1) or any industrial school or other educational institution is fit for the reception of children or youthful offenders.

20. Remand Homes.-The Government may establish and maintain remand homes for the purposes of detention, diagnosis and classification of children committed to custody by any Court or Police.

21. Conditions for certification or recognition of institutes, etc.-The Government may prescribe conditions subject to which any training institute, industrial school, educational institution or approved home shall be certified or recognised, as the case may be, for the purposes of this Act.

22. Management of certificate institute.-(1) For the control and management of every training institute established under section 19(1), a superintendent and a committee of visitors shall be appointed by the Government, and such superintendent and committee shall be deemed to be managers of the institute for the purposes of this Act.

(2) Every institute, school or institution certified under section 19(2) shall be under the management of its governing body, the members of which shall be

deemed to be the managers of the institute, school or institution for the purpose of this Act.

23. Consultation with managers.-The managers of a certified institute shall be consulted by the Court before any child is committed to it.

24. Medical inspection of certified institutes and approved homes.-Any registered medical practitioner empowered in this behalf by the Government may visit any certified institute or approved home at any time with or without notice to its managers or other persons in charge thereof in order to report to the Chief Inspector on the health of the inmates and the sanitary condition of the certified institute or approved home.

25. Power of the Government to withdraw certificate.-The Government, if dissatisfied with the management of a certified institute, may at any time by notice served on the managers of the institute declare that the certificate of the institute is withdrawn as from a date specified in the notice and on such date the withdrawal of the certificate shall take effect and the institute shall cease to be certified institute:

Provided that before the issue of such notice a reasonable opportunity shall be given to the managers of the certified institute to show cause why the certificate shall not be withdrawn.

26. Registration of certificate by managers.-The managers of a certified institute may, on giving six months' notice in writing to the Government through the Chief Inspector of their intention so to do, resign the certificate of the institute and accordingly at the expiration of six months from the date of notice, unless before that time the notice is withdrawn the resignation of the certificate shall take effect and the institute shall cease to be a certified institute.

27. Effect of withdrawal or resignation of certificate.-A child or youthful offender shall not be received into a certified institute under this Act after the date of receipt by the managers of the institute of a notice of withdrawal of the certificate or after the date of a notice of resignation of the certificate:

Provided that the obligation of the managers to teach, train, lodge, cloth and feed any child or youthful offender detained in the institute at the respective dates aforesaid shall, except so far as the Government otherwise directs, continue until the withdrawal or resignation of the certificate takes effect.

28. Disposal of inmates on withdrawal or resignation of certificate.-When an institute ceases to be a certified institute the children or youthful offenders detained therein shall be either discharged absolutely or on such conditions as the Government may impose or may be transferred by order of the Chief Inspector to some other certified institute in accordance with the provisions of this Act relating to discharge and transfer.

29. Inspection of certified institute and approved homes.-Every certified institute and approved home shall be liable to inspection at all times and in all its departments by the Chief Inspector, Inspector or Assistant Inspector of institutes and shall be so inspected at least once in every six months:

Provided that where any such certified institute is for the reception of girls only and such inspection is not made by the Chief Inspector, the inspection shall, wherever practicable be made by a woman authorized by the Chief Inspector in that behalf.

PART IV
OFFICERS AND THEIR POWERS AND DUTIES

30. Appointment of Chief Inspector, etc- (1) The Government may appoint a Chief Inspector of certified institutes and such number of Inspectors and Assistant Inspectors of certified institutes as it thinks fit to assist the Chief Inspector.

(2) The Chief Inspector shall have such powers and duties as this Act specifies and as may be prescribed.

(3) Every Inspector or Assistant Inspector shall have such of the powers and duties of the Chief Inspector as the Government may direct and shall act under the direction of the Chief Inspector.

31. Appointment of Probation Officers- (1) The Government may appoint a Probation Officer in each district:

Provided that where there is no person so appointed in a district, any other person may be appointed as a Probation Officer from time to time by a Court in that district for any particular case.

(2) A Probation Officer, in the performance of his duties under this Act, shall be under supervision and guidance of the Juvenile Court where such Court exists or, where there is no such Court, the Court of Session.

(3) A Probation Officer shall, subject to the rules made under this Act and to the directions of the Court-

- (a) visit or receive visits from the child at reasonable intervals;
- (b) see that the relative of the child or the person to whose care such child is committed observes the conditions of the bond;
- (c) report to the Court as to the behaviour of the child;
- (d) advise, assist and befriend the child and, where necessary, endeavour to find

him suitable employment; and

(e) perform any other duty which may be prescribed.

PART V

MEASURES FOR THE CARE AND PROTECTION OF DESTITUTE AND EGLECTED CHILDREN

32. Children found homeless, destitute etc- A Probation Officer or a Police Officer not below the rank of Sub-Inspector of Police or any other person authorised by the Government in this behalf may bring before a Juvenile Court or a Court empowered under section 4 any person who, in his opinion, is a child and who-

(a) has no home, settled place of abode or visible means of subsistence, or no parent or guardian exercising regular and proper guardianship; or

(b) is found begging or is found doing for a consideration any act under circumstances contrary to the well being of the child; or

(c) is found destitute and his parent or other guardian is undergoing transportation or imprisonment; or

(d) is under the care of a parent or guardian who habitually neglects or cruelly ill-treats the child; or

(e) is generally found in the company of any reputed criminal or prostitute not being his parent or guardian; or

(f) is residing in or frequenting a house used by a prostitute for the purpose of prostitution and is not the child of that prostitute; or

(g) is otherwise likely to fall into bad association or to be exposed to moral danger or to enter upon a life of crime.

(2) The Court before which a child referred to in sub-section (1) is brought shall examine the information and record the substance of such examination, and, if it thinks there are sufficient grounds for making further inquiry, it shall fix a date for the purpose.

(3) On the date fixed for the inquiry under sub-section (2) or on any subsequent date to which the proceedings may be adjourned, the Court shall hear and record all relevant evidence which may be adduced for and against any action that may be taken under this Act and may make any further inquiry it thinks fit.

(4) If the Court is satisfied on such inquiry that such person is a child as described in sub-section (1) and that it is expedient so to deal with him, the Court may order him to be sent to a certified institute or approved home or may order him to be committed in the prescribed manner to the care of a relative or other fit person named by the Court and willing to undertake such care, until such child attains the age of eighteen years, or for any shorter period.

(5) The Court which makes an order committing a child to the care of a relative or other fit person may, when making such order, require such relative or other person to execute a bond, with or without sureties, as the Court may require, to be responsible for the good behaviour of the child and for the observance of such other conditions as the Court may impose for securing that the child may lead an honest and industrious life.

(6) The Court which makes an order committing a child to the care of a relative or other fit person under this section may, in addition order that he be placed under the supervision of a Probation Officer or other fit person named by the Court.

33. Un-controllable children- (1) Where the parent or guardian of a child complains to a Juvenile Court or to a Court empowered under section 4 that he is

unable to control the child, the Court may, if satisfied on inquiry that it is expedient so to deal with the child, order the child to be committed to a certified institute or an approved home for a period not exceeding three years.

(2) The Court may also, if satisfied that home conditions are satisfactory and what is needed is supervision, instead of committing the child to a certified institute or approved home, place him under the supervision of a Probation Officer for a period not exceeding three years.

PART VI

SPECIAL OFFENCES IN RESPECT OF CHILDREN

34. Penalty for cruelty to child- If any person over the age of sixteen years, who has the custody, charge or care of any child assaults, ill-treats, neglects, abandons or exposes such child or causes such child to be assaulted, ill-treated, neglected, abandoned or exposed in a manner likely to cause such child unnecessary suffering or injury to his health, including loss of sight or hearing or injury to limb or organ of the body and any mental derangement, such person shall be punishable with imprisonment for a term which may extend to two years, or with fine which may extend to Taka one thousand, or with both.

35. Penalty for employing children for begging- Whoever employs any child for the purpose of begging, or causes any child to beg, or whoever having the custody, charge or care of a child, connives at or encourages his employment for the purpose of begging, or whoever uses a child as an exhibit for the purpose of begging, shall be punishable with imprisonment for a term which may extend to one year, or with fine which may extend to Taka three hundred, or with both.

36. Penalty for being drunk while in charge of child- If any person is found drunk in any public place, whether a building or not, while having the charge of a

child, and if such person is incapable by reason of his drunkenness of taking due care of the child, such person shall be punishable with fine which may extend to Taka one hundred.

37. Penalty for giving intoxicating liquor or dangerous drug to child- Whoever in any public place, whether a building or not, gives or causes to be given to any child any intoxicating liquor or dangerous drug except upon the order of a duly qualified medical practitioner in case of sickness or other urgent cause shall be punishable with imprisonment for a term which may extend to one year, or with fine which may extend to Taka five hundred, or with both.

38. Penalty for permitting child to enter places where liquor or dangerous drugs are sold- Whoever takes a child to any place where intoxicating liquor or dangerous drugs are sold, or being the proprietor, owner or a person in charge of such place, permits a child to enter such place, or whoever causes or procures a child to go to such place, shall be punishable with fine which may extend to Taka five hundred.

39. Penalty for inciting child to bet or borrow- Whoever by words either spoken or written or by signs or otherwise incites or attempts to incite a child to make any bet or wager or to enter into or take any share or interest in any betting or wagering transaction or so incites a child to borrow money or to enter into any transaction involving the borrowing of money shall be punishable with imprisonment for a term which may extend to six months, or with fine which may extend to Taka two hundred, or with both.

40. Penalty for taking on pledge or purchasing articles from child- Whoever takes an article on pledge from a child, whether offered by that child on

his own behalf or on behalf of any person, shall be punishable with imprisonment for a term which may extend to one year, or with fine which may extend to Taka five hundred, or with both.

41. Penalty for allowing child to be in brothel- Whoever allows or permits a child over the age of four years to reside in or frequently to go to a brothel shall be punishable with imprisonment for a term which may extend to two years, or with fine which may extend to Taka one thousand, or with both.

42. Penalty for causing or encouraging seduction- Whoever having the actual charge of, or control over, a girl under the age of sixteen years causes or encourages the seduction or prostitution of that girl or causes or encourages any person other than her husband to have sexual intercourse with her shall be punishable with imprisonment for a term which may extend to two years, or with fine which may extend to Taka one thousand, or with both.

Explanation. For the purposes of this section, a person shall be deemed to have caused or encouraged the seduction or prostitution of a girl if he has knowingly allowed the girl to consort with, or to enter or continue in the employment of, any prostitute or person of known immoral character.

43. Young girls exposed to risk or seduction- If it appears to a Court on the complaint of any person that a girl under the age of sixteen years is, with or without the knowledge of her parent or guardian, exposed to the risk of seduction or prostitution, the Court may direct the parent or guardian to enter into a recognizance to exercise due care and supervision in respect of such girl.

44. Penalty for exploitation of child employees- (1) Whoever secures a child ostensibly for the purpose of menial employment or for labour in a factory or other establishment, but in fact exploits the child for his own ends, withholds or lives on

his earnings, shall be punishable with fine which may extend to Taka one thousand.

(2) Whoever secures a child ostensibly for any of the purposes mentioned in sub-section (1), but exposes such child to the risk of seduction, sodomy, prostitution or other immoral conditions shall be punishable with imprisonment for a term which may extend to two years, or with fine which may extend to Taka one thousand, or with both.

(3) Any person who avails himself of the labour of a child exploited in the manner referred to in sub-section (1) or sub-section (2), or for whose immoral gratification such child is used, shall be liable as an abettor.

45. Penalty for abetting escape of child or youthful offender-Whoever-

(a) Knowingly assists or induces, directly or indirectly, a child or youthful offender detained in or placed out on license from a certified institute or approved home to escape from the institute or home or from any person with whom he is placed out on license or any child to escape from the person to whose custody he is committed under this Act; or

(b) Knowingly harbours, conceals or prevents from returning to certified institute or approved home or to any person with whom he is placed out on license or to the person to whose custody he is committed under this Act a child or youthful offender who has so escaped, or knowingly assist in so doing,

shall be punishable with imprisonment for a term which may extend to two months, or with fine which may extend to Taka two hundred, or with both.

46. Penalty for publication of report or pictures relating to child- Whoever publishes any report or picture in contravention of the provisions of section 17

shall be punishable with imprisonment for a term which may extend to two months, or with fine which may extend to Taka two hundred, or with both.

47. Offence under this part cognizable- Notwithstanding anything contained in the Code, all offences under this part shall be cognizable.

PART VII

YOUTHFUL OFFENDERS

48. Bail of child arrested- Where a person apparently under the age of sixteen years is arrested on a charge of a non-bailable offence and cannot be brought forthwith before a Court, the officer-in-charge of the police-station to which such person is brought may release him on bail, if sufficient security is forthcoming, but shall not do so where the release of the person shall bring him into association with any reputed criminal or expose him to moral danger or where his release would defeat the ends of justice.

49. Custody of child not enlarged on bail- (1) Where a person apparently under the age of sixteen years having been arrested is not released under section 48, the officer-in-charge of the police-station shall cause him to be detained in a remand home or a place of safety until he can be brought before a Court.

(2) A Court, on remanding for trial a child who is not released on bail, shall order him to be detained in a remand home or a place of safety.

50. Submission of information to Probation Officer by police after arrest- Immediately after the arrest of a child, it shall be the duty of the police officer, or any other person affecting the arrest, to inform the Probation Officer of such arrest in order to enable the said Probation Officer to proceed forthwith in obtaining information regarding his antecedents and family history and other material circumstances likely to assist the Court in making its order.

51. Restrictions on punishment of child- (1) Notwithstanding anything to the contrary contained in any law, no child shall be sentenced to death, transportation or imprisonment:

Provided that when a child is found to have committed an offence of so serious a nature that the Court is of opinion that no punishment, which under the provisions of this Act it is authorised to inflict, is sufficient or when the Court is satisfied that the child is of so unruly or of so depraved character that he cannot be committed to a certified institute and that none of the other methods in which the case may legally be dealt with is suitable, the Court may sentence the child to imprisonment or order him to be detained in such place and on such conditions as it thinks fit:

Provided further that no period of detention so ordered shall exceed the maximum period of punishment to which the child could have been sentenced for the offence committed:

Provided further that at any time during the period of such detention the Court may, if it thinks fit, direct that in lieu of such detention the youthful offender be kept in a certified institute until he has attained the age of eighteen years.

(2) A youthful offender sentenced to imprisonment shall not be allowed to associate with adult prisoners.

52. Commitment of child to certified institute- Where a child is convicted of an offence punishable with death, transportation or imprisonment, the Court may, if it considers expedient so to deal with the child, order him to be committed to a certified institute for detention for a period which shall be not less than two and not more than ten years, but not in any case extending beyond the time when the child will attain the age of eighteen years.

53. Power to discharge youthful offenders or to commit him to suitable custody-(1) A Court may, if it thinks fit, instead of directing any youthful offender to be detained in a certified institute under section 52, order him to be-

(a) discharged after due admonition, or

(b) released on probation of good conduct and committed to the care of his parent or guardian or other adult relative or other fit person on such parent, guardian, relative or person executing a bond, with or without sureties, as the Court may require, to be responsible for the good behaviour of the youthful offender for any period not exceeding three years, and the Court may also order that the youthful offender be placed under the supervision of a Probation Officer.

(2) If it appears to the Court on receiving a report from the Probation Officer or otherwise that the youthful offender has not been of good behaviour during the period of his probation, it may, after making such inquiry as it deems fit, order the youthful offender to be detained in a certified institute for the unexpired of probation.

54. Power to order parent to pay fine, etc-(1) Where a child is convicted of an offence punishable with fine, the Court shall order that the fine be paid by the parent or guardian of the child, unless the Court is satisfied that the parent or guardian cannot be found or that he has not conducted to the commission of the offence by neglecting to exercise due care of the child.

(2) Where a parent or guardian is directed to pay a fine under sub-section (1), the amount may be recovered in accordance with the provision of the Code.

PART VIII
MEASURES FOR DETENTION, ETC., OF CHILDREN AND YOUTHFUL
OFFENDERS

55. Detention of child in place of safety-(1) Any Probation Officer or police officer not below the rank of Assistant Sub-Inspector or a person authorised by the Government in this behalf may take to a place of safety any child in respect of whom there is reason to believe that an offence has been or is likely to be committed.

(2) A child so taken to a place of safety and also any child who seeks refuge in a place of safety may be detained until he can be brought before a Court:

Provided that such detention shall not, in the absence of a special order of the Court, exceed a period of twenty-four hours exclusive of the time necessary for journey from the place of detention to the Court

(3) The Court may thereupon make such order as hereinafter provided.

56. Court's power for care and detention of child-(1) Where it appears to the Court that there is reason to believe that an offence as stated in section 55 has been committed or is likely to be committed in respect of any child who is brought before it and that it is expedient in the interest of the child that action should be taken under this Act, the Court may make such order as circumstances may admit and require for the care and detention of the child until a reasonable time has elapsed for the institution of proceedings against the person for having committed the offence in respect of the child or for the purpose of taking such other lawful action as may be necessary.

(2) The order of detention made under sub-section (1) shall remain in force until such time as the proceedings instituted against any person for an offence

referred to in sub-section (1) terminate in either conviction, discharge or acquittal.

(3) An order passed under this section shall be given effect to notwithstanding that any person claims the custody of the child.

57. Victimised child to be sent to Juvenile Court-

Any Court by which a person is convicted of having committed an offence in respect of a child or before which a person is brought for trial for any such offence shall direct the child concerned to be produced before a Juvenile Court or, where there is no Juvenile Court, a Court empowered under section 4 for making such orders as it may deem proper.

58. Order for committal of victimized children- The Court before which a child is produced in accordance with section 57 may order the child-

(a) to be committed to a certified institute or an approved home until such child attains the age of eighteen years or, in exceptional cases, for a shorter period, the reasons for such shorter period to be recorded in writing, or

(b) to be committed to the care of a relative or other fit person on such bond, with or without surety, as the Court may require, such relative or fit person being willing and capable of exercising proper care, control and protection of the child and of observing such other conditions including, where necessary, supervision for any period not exceeding three years, as the Court may impose in the interest of the child:

Provided that, if the child has a parent or guardian fit and capable, in the opinion of the Court, of exercising proper care, control and protection, the Court may allow the child to remain in his custody or may commit the child to his care on bond, with or without surety, in the prescribed form and for the observance of such conditions as the Court may impose in the interest of the child.

59. Supervision of victimised children-The Court which makes an order committing a child to the care of his parent, guardian or other fit person under the foregoing provisions may, in addition, order that he be placed under supervision.

60. Breach of supervision- If it appears to the Court on receiving a report from the Probation Officer or otherwise that there has been a breach of the supervision order relating to the child in respect of whom the supervision order had been passed, it may, after making such inquiries as it deems fit, order the child to be detained in a certified institute.

61. Warrant to search for child- (1) If it appears to a Juvenile Court or a Court empowered under section 4 from information on oath or solemn affirmation laid by any person who, in its opinion, is acting in the interest of the child that there is reasonable cause to suspect that an offence has been or is being committed or unless immediate steps be taken will be committed in respect of the child, the Court may issue a warrant authorising any police officer named therein to search for such child and if it is found that he has been or is being wilfully ill-treated or neglected in the manner hereinbefore stated or that any offence has been or is being committed in respect of the child, to take him to and detain him in a place of safety until he can be brought before it and the Court before which the child is brought may, in the first instance, remand him in the prescribed manner to a place of safety.

(2) The Court issuing a warrant under this section may, by the same warrant, direct that any person accused of any offence in respect of the child be apprehended and brought before it or direct that if such person executes a bond with sufficient sureties for his attendance before the Court at a specified time and thereafter until otherwise directed by the Court the officer to whom the warrant is directed shall take such security and shall release such person from custody.

(3) The police officer executing the warrant shall be accompanied by the person laying the information if such person so desires and may also, if the Court by which the warrant is issued so directs, be accompanied by a duly qualified medical practitioner.

(4) In any information or warrant under this section the name of the child shall be given, if known.

PART IX

MAINTENANCE AND TREATMENT OF COMMITTED CHILDREN

62. Contribution of parent- (1) The Court which makes an order for the detention of a child or youthful offender in a certified institute or approved home or for the committal of a child or youthful offender to the care of a relative or fit person may make an order on the parent or other person liable to maintain the child or youthful offender, to contribute to his maintenance, if able to do so, in the prescribed manner.

(2) The Court before making any order under sub-section (1) shall enquire into the circumstances of the parent or other person liable to maintain the child or youthful offender and shall record evidence, if any, in the presence of the parent or such other person, as the case may be.

(3) Any order made under this section may be varied by the Court on an application made to it by the party liable or otherwise.

(4) The person liable to maintain a child or youthful offender shall, for the purposed of sub-section (1), include in the case of illegitimacy his putative father:

Provided that, where the child or youthful offender is illegitimate and an order for his maintenance has been made under section 488 of the Code, the Court shall not ordinarily make an order for contribution against the putative father but may

order the whole or any part of the sums accruing due under the said order for maintenance to be paid to such person as may be named by the Court and such sums shall be applied by him towards the maintenance of the child or youthful offender.

(5) Any order under this section may be enforced in the same manner as an order under section 488 of the Code.

63. Provision as to religion- (1) In determining the certified institute, approved home or fit person or other person to whose custody a child is to be committed under this Act, the Court shall ascertain the religious denomination of the child and shall, if possible, in selecting such certified institute, approved home or fit person have regard to the facilities which are afforded for instruction in his religion.

(2) When a child is committed to the care of a certified institute or approved home in which facilities for instruction in his religion are not afforded, or is entrusted to the care of a fit person who has no special facilities for the bringing up of the child in his religion, the authorities of such certified institute or approved home, or such fit person shall not bring the child up in any religion other than his own.

(3) Where it is brought to the notice of the Chief Inspector that a breach of subsection (2) has been committed, the Chief Inspector may transfer the child from the custody of such certified institute, approved home or fit person to any other certified institute or approved home as he may deem proper.

64. Placing out on licence- (1) When a youthful offender or child is detained in a certified institute or approved home, the managers of the institute or home may, at any time, with the consent in writing of the Chief Inspector, by licence, permit the youthful offender or child, on such conditions as may be prescribed, to live

with any trustworthy and respectable person named in the licence willing to receive and take charge of him with a view to train him for some useful trade or calling.

(2) Any licence so granted shall be in force until revoked or forfeited for the breach of any of the conditions on which it was granted.

(3) The managers of the certified institute or approved home may, at any time by order in writing, revoke any such licence and order the youthful offender or child to return to the institute or home, as the case may be, and shall do so at the desire of the person to whom the youthful offender or child is licensed.

(4) If the youthful offender or child refuses or fails to return to the certified institute or approved home, the managers of the institute, or home, as the case may be, may, if necessary, arrest him, or cause him to be arrested, and may take him, or cause him to be taken, back to the institute or home, as the case may be.

(5) The time during which a youthful offender or child is absent from a certified institute or approved home in pursuance of a licence under this section shall be deemed to be part of the time of his detention in the institute or home, as the case may be:

Provided that, when a youthful offender or child has failed to return to the institute or home, as the case may be, on the licence being revoked or forfeited, the time which elapses after his failure so to return shall be excluded in computing the time during which he is to be detained in the institute or home, as the case may be.

65. Action by police with escaped children- (1) Notwithstanding anything to the contrary contained in any law for the time being in force, any police officer may arrest without a warrant a child or youthful offender who has escaped from a certified institute or approved home or from the supervision of a person under

whose supervision he was directed to remain, and shall send the child or youthful offender back to the certified institute or approved home or the person, as the case may be, without registering any offence or prosecuting the child or youthful offender and the said child or youthful offender shall not be deemed to have committed any offence by reason of such escape.

(2) When a child absconding from a certified institute or approved home has been arrested, he shall be detained in a place of safety pending his removal to the certified institute or approved home, as the case may be.

PART X

MISCELLANEOUS

66. Presumption and determination of age- (1) Whenever a person, whether charged with an offence or not, is brought before any criminal Court otherwise than for the purpose of giving evidence, and it appears to the Court that he is a child, the Court shall make an inquiry as to the age of that person and, for that purpose, shall take such evidence as may be forthcoming at the hearing of the case, and shall record a finding thereon, stating his age as nearly as may be.

(2) An order or judgment of the Court shall not be invalidated by any subsequent proof that the age of such person has not been correctly stated by the Court, and the age presumed or declared by the Court to be the age of the person so brought before it shall, for the purposes of this Act be deemed to be the true age of that person and, where it appears to the Court that the person so brought before it is of the age of sixteen years or upwards, the person shall, for the purpose of this Act, be deemed not to be a child.

67. Discharge- (1) The Government may, at any time, order a child or youthful offender to be discharged from a certified institute or approved home, either absolutely or on such condition as the Government may specify.

(2) The Government may, at any time, discharge a child from the care of any person to whose care he is committed under this Act, either absolutely or on such conditions as the Government may specify.

68. Transfer between institutions- (1) The Government may order any child or youthful offender to be transferred from one certified institute or approved home to another.

(2) The Chief Inspector may order any child to be transferred from one certified institute or approved home to another.

69. Compensation for false information-(1) If in any case in which information has been laid by any person under the provisions of section 61, the Court after such inquiry as it may deem necessary is of opinion that such information is false and either frivolous or vexatious, the Court may, for reasons to be recorded in writing, direct that compensation to such an amount not exceeding Taka one hundred as it may determine be paid by such informer to the person against whom the information was laid.

(2) Before making any order for the payment of the compensation, the Court shall call upon the informer to show cause why he should not pay compensation and shall consider any cause which such informer may show.

(3) The Court may by the order directing payment of the compensation further order that in default of payment the person ordered to pay such compensation shall suffer simple imprisonment for a term not exceeding thirty days.

(4) When any person is imprisoned under sub-section (3), the provisions of

sections 68 and 69 of the Penal Code (XLV of 1860), shall, so far as may be, apply.

(5) No person who has been directed to pay compensation under this section shall by reason of such order be exempted from any civil liability in respect of the information, but any amount paid as compensation shall be taken into account in any subsequent civil suit relating to such matter.

70. Removal of disqualification attaching to conviction- When a child is found to have committed any offence, the fact that he has been so found shall not have any effect under section 75 of the Penal Code (XLV of 1860), or section 565 of the Code or operate as a disqualification for any office, employment or election under any law.

71. Words ‘conviction’ and ‘sentenced’ not to be used in relation to children- Save as provided in this Act, the words ‘conviction’ and ‘sentenced’ shall cease to be used in relation to children or youthful offenders dealt with under this Act, and any reference in any enactment to a person convicted, a conviction or a sentence shall, in the case of a child or youthful offender be construed as a reference to a person found guilty of an offence, a finding of guilty or an order made upon such a finding, as the case may be.

72. Custodian’s control over child- Any person to whose care a child is committed under the provisions of this Act shall, while the order is in force, have the like control over the child as if he were his parent, and shall be responsible for his maintenance, and the child shall continue in his care for the period stated by the Court notwithstanding that he is claimed by his parent or any other person.

73. Bonds taken under the Act- The provisions of Chapter XLII of the Code shall, so far as may be, apply to bonds taken under this Act.

74. Chief Inspector, Probation Officers, etc to be public servants- The Chief Inspector, Inspectors, Assistant Inspectors, Probation Officers and other persons authorised or entitled to act under any of the provisions of this Act shall be deemed to be public servants within the meaning of section 21 of the Penal Code (XLV of 1860).

75. Protection of action taken under the Act- No suit, prosecution or other legal proceedings shall be instituted against any person for anything which is in good faith done or intended to be done under this Act.

76. Appeals and revisions- (1) Notwithstanding anything contained in the Code, an appeal from an order made by a Court under the provisions of this Act shall lie-

(a) if the order passed by a Juvenile Court or a Magistrate empowered under section 4, to the Court of Session; and

(b) if, the order is passed by a Court of Session or Court of an Additional Sessions Judge or of an Assistant Sessions Judge, to the High Court Division.

(2) Nothing in this Act shall affect the powers of the High Court Division to revise any order passed by a Court under this Act.

77. Power to make rules- (1) The Government may make rules for carrying out the purposes of this Act.

(2) In particular, and without prejudice to the generality of the foregoing power, such rules may provide for-

(a) the procedure to be followed by Juvenile Courts and other Courts empowered under section 4 in the trial of cases and the hearing of proceedings

under this Act;

(b) the places at which, dates on which and the manner in which a Juvenile Court shall hold its sittings under section 7 (1);

(c) the conditions subject to which institutions, industrial schools or other educational institutions shall be certified or approved home shall be recognised for the purposes of this Act;

(d) the establishment, certification, management, maintenance, records and accounts of certified institutes;

(e) the education and training of inmates of certified institutes and the leave of absence of such inmates;

(f) the appointment of visitors and their tenure of office;

(g) the inspection of certified institutes and approved homes;

(h) the internal management and discipline of certified institutes and approved homes;

(i) the conditions subject to which institutions shall be recognised as approved places for the purpose of section 14 (1);

(j) the powers and duties of the Chief Inspector and Probation Officers;

(k) the manner of authorising persons for the purposes of sections 32 and 55;

(l) the form of bond under the proviso to section 58;

(m) the manner in which a child shall be remanded to a place of safety under section 61 (1);

(n) the manner in which contribution for the maintenance of child may be ordered to be paid under section 62 (1);

(o) the condition under which a child may be released on licence and the form of such licence under section 64;

(p) the conditions subject to which a child may be committed to the care of any person under this Act and the obligations of such person towards the child so committed; and

(q) the manner of detention of a child under arrest or remanded to police custody or committed for trial.

78. Repeals etc-(1) The Bengal Children Act, 1922 (Ben. Act II of 1922), is hereby repealed.

(2) The Reformatory Schools Act, 1897 (VIII of 1897), shall be deemed to be repealed in any area in which this Act is brought into force under section 1 (3) from the date of such enforcement.

(3) The provisions of section 29B and 399 of the Code shall cease to apply to any area in which this Act shall be brought into force.

GOVERNMENT OF THE PEOPLE'S REPUBLIC OF BANGLADESH
MINISTRY OF HEALTH, POPULATION CONTROL AND LABOUR

Labour and Social Welfare Division

Section IV

NOTIFICATION

Dacca, the 11th March, 1976.

No. S.R.Q. 1.03-L/76.-In exercise of the powers conferred by section 77 of the Children Act, 1974 (XXXIX of 1974), the Government is pleased to make the following rules, namely :--

1. Short title---These rules may be called the Children Rules, 1976.

2. Definitions.--In these rules, unless there is anything repugnant in the subject or context,-

- (a) "Act" means the Children Act, 1974 (XXXIX of 1974);
- (b) "Director." means the head of the Department of Social Welfares,
- (c) "Form" means Form appended to these rules;
- (d) "inmate" means an inmate of a certified institute or approved home;
- (e) "Medical Officer" means a medical practitioner empowered by the Government under section 24 to visit any certified institute or approved home;
- (f) "section" means a section of the Act;
- (g) "Superintendent" means the Superintendent of a training institute established under sub-section (i) of section 19 and includes the principal "officer-in-charge" of a certified institute or an approved home.

3. Sitting and adjournment of Court.-A Court shall hold its sittings at least

01.c., in a week or as often as may be necessary for the purpose of expeditions disposal of all cases and proceedings instituted under the Act and may adjourn the hearing of a case or proceeding from time to time as may be necessary.

4. Procedure to be followed by Court- (1) The hearing of all cases and proceeding shall be conducted in as simple a manner as possible without observing any formality and care shall be taken to ensure that the child against whom the case or proceeding has been instituted feels home-like atmosphere, during the hearing.

(2) The Court shall see that the child brought before it is not kept under the close guard of a police officer but sits or stands by himself or in the company of a relative or friend of a Probation Officer at some convenient place.

(3) When witnesses are produced for examination, the Court shall freely exercise the powers conferred on it by section 165 of the Evidence Act, 1872, so as to bring out any point that may go in favour of the child.

(4) In examining a child and recording his statement, the Court shall be free to address the child in any manner that may seem suitable in order to put the child at ease and to elicit true facts not only in respect of the offence of which the child is accused of but also in respect of the home surroundings and the influence to which the child has been subjected to and the record of the examination shall be in such form as the Court may consider suitable having regard to the contents of the statement and circumstances in which it was made.

(5) Where a child has pleaded guilty or has been found guilty, the Court, instead of making an order upon such finding, may direct the Probation Officer or such other person as may be deemed fit by the Court in Form A for submission of a report which, among other things, shall contain family background of the child,

his character and antecedents. his physical and mental conditions and the circumstances under which the offence was committed or any other information considered important in the interest of the child concerned.

(6) After considering the report submitted under sub-rule (5) and hearing persons referred to in clauses (b), (c) and (d) of section 9, the Court may give such direction or order for the detention or otherwise of the child as it considers fit.

(7) While giving the order, the Court shall fix-

- (a) the amount of contribution, if any, to be made by the parent or other person liable to maintain the child for his maintenance ; and
- (b) the mode of payment of such contribution.

5. Certification or recognition of institute.—No training institute industrial school, educational institution, or approved home shall be certified or recognised, as the case may be, for the purposes of the Act unless the Government is satisfied that-

- (a) the object of such institute, school, institution or home is the welfare of children;
- (b) there is suitable accommodation for using such institute, school, institution or home as dormitory and for conducting training programmes for the children or youthful offenders ;
- (c) the management of such institute, school, institution or home is efficient and it has adequate fund to conduct the programmes ;
- (d) it has adequate number of trained personnel for running its programmes,

6. Procedure for certification or recognition of institutes, etc.—(1) The managers of a training institute, industrial school, educational institute or approved

home may, for the purpose of obtaining certificate or recognition, as the case may be, apply to the Director in Form B.

(2) On receipt of an application under sub-rule (1), the Director shall, after getting the institute, school institution or home inspected, forward the application to the Government with his recommendation, whereupon the certificate or, as the case may be, recognition may be granted to such institute, school, institution or home.

(3) The certificate or, as the case may be, recognition shall be granted in Form C.

7. Committing destitute, neglected or victimized children to the care of a relative or other fit person.- (1) If the Court is satisfied that a child brought before it under sub-section (1) of section 32 should be committed to the care of a relative or other fit person, such relative or fit person, shall be directed in writing to express his willingness to take care of the child on such conditions as may be specified by the Court.

(2) On receipt in writing of the willingness, the Court shall direct the relative, or fit person to execute a bond in Form D.

(3) The Court may, if it thinks fit in the interest of the child, withdraw the child from the care of the relative or fit person any time before the expiry of the period for which the child was committed to his care and make an order for committing the child to a certified institute or approved home for the unexpired period.

(4) When a child is committed to the care of a relative or other fit person and the Court deems it expedient to place the child under the supervision of a Probation Officer, it shall issue an order in that behalf in Form E.

8. Observation of the inmate.—(1) After admission into the certified institute or approved home, an inmate shall be kept under observation for at least fourteen days during which period he shall be carefully observed and studied with special reference to his mental disposition, conduct, aptitude and other related matters for formulating an effective treatment plan.

(2) On the basis of the assessment made under sub-rule (1), an inmate shall be assigned one or more trades or vocation or he may be recommended suitable for general education, religious instructions or moral guidance.

9. Management of certified institutes.—(1) The Superintendent shall maintain case file for each inmate separately containing detailed information about the family background, character, aptitude, performance in education, training and such other matters as he may consider necessary.

(2) The governing body of a certified institute shall exercise such powers and shall conduct its business in such manner as the Director may determine and the decisions of the governing body shall require approval of the Director.

10. Committee of Visitors—(1) The Committee of visitors for a training institute shall consist of six members who shall be appointed by the Government

11. Functions of the Committee of Visitors.— The committee of visitors shall be responsible for the management of a training institute established under subsection (1) of section 19 and shall discharge such duties and perform such functions as may be specified in writing by the Director.

12. Placing out on licence.—(1) A youthful offender or child may be permitted by licence to live with any trustworthy or respectable person named in the licence on condition that-

(a) he shall faithfully obey the instructions of the person to whom he is licenced

to live ;

(b) he shall keep himself away from bad associations and abstain from taking intoxicants; and

(c) he shall not leave the place of his residence or area without the prior permission of the person under whose care he has been placed.

(2) The licence to be granted for the purpose of this rule shall be in Form F.

13. Maintenance of records- Every certified institute and approved home shall maintain, besides such other records or registers as the Director may specify from time to time, the following records and registers, namely:—

- (a) Admission and Discharge register for the inmates;
- (b) Attendance register for the inmates;
- (c) Leave register of the inmates;
- (d) Register for the sick inmates;
- (e) Case file for each inmate;
- (f) Punishment register;
- (g) Register showing the personal effects of the inmates;
- (h) Cash book;
- (i) Voucher file;
- (j) Bank accounts book;
- (k) Stock register;
- (l) Daily consumption register;
- (m) Inspection book;

- (n) Visitors book;
- (o) Attendance register for the staff;
- (p) Leave register of the staff;
- (q) Notice book for meeting of the committee of visitors or governing body, as the case may be ;
- (r) Proceeding book of the committee of visitors or governing body, as the case may be.

14. Accounts and audit.—(1) An Annual statement of the accounts shall be prepared by each certified institute or approved home after the close of every financial year shall be forwarded to the Director.

(2) The accounts of the certified institute or approved home shall be audited every by an auditor, being as chartered account and within-the meaning of the Bangladesh Chartered Accountants Order, 1973, who shall be appointed by the managers of the certified institute or approved home.

15. Medical facilities of the inmates.—(1) An inmate shall, immediately after his detention in certified institute or approved home, be medically examined in such manner and by such physician as may be specified by the Director.

(2) An inmate suffering from any contagious disease shall be kept in segregation from other inmates and special arrangement shall be made for his treatment by the Superintendent or by the managers of the certified institute or approved home as the case may be.

(3) Arrangement shall also be made for medical check up of the inmates at regular intervals.

16. Children suffering from dangerous disease.-(1) A child suffering from a disease requiring prolonged medical treatment, or a physical or mental complaint that is likely to respond to treatment, shall ordinarily be sent to Government hospitals.

(2) Any private clinic or hospital offering specialised treatment not available in Government hospitals and having reasonable security arrangements may also be selected for the treatment of the child and recognised to be an approved place for the purposes of the Act.

17. Diet, clothing, etc. of inmates.-(1) The inmates shall be supplied with such scale of diet and clothing as laid down in the Schedule.

(2) Special diets, according to the suggestion of the attending physician,

(3) Arrangement for supply of improved diet to the inmates may, with the prior approval of the Director, be made on the occasion of festivals.

(4) Inmates in the star grade may be allowed such extra food as the Director may decide.

(5) The inmates shall be provided with necessary toilet articles.

18. Education and training of Inmates.-(1) Arrangement shall be made for providing the inmates with primary standard of education and, in special cases, they may be given facilities to prosecute higher education outside the premises of the certified institute or approved home.

(2) There shall be arrangements for such vocational training for the inmates as may be suitable for their economic rehabilitation.

19. Leave of absence of inmates.-The inmates of a certified institute or approved home may be granted leave in such manner and in such scale as may be

specified by the Director:

Provided that no inmate shall normally be granted any leave within six months of his admission into the certified institute or approved home except on emergent circumstances, such as, serious illness or death of his very near relations.

20. Power and duties of Chief Inspector—(1) The chief Inspector shall be responsible for the control and supervision of the certified institute or approved home;

(2) The Chief Inspector, if he thinks fit in the interest of any child, may order any inmate to be transferred from one certified institute or approved home to another.

(3) Subject to such general or special order as may be given by the Director from time to time, the Chief Inspector shall-

(a) Supervise and exercise general control over the work of the Inspectors, Assistant Inspectors. Superintendents and other officers and staff of the certified institutes or approved homes;

(b) Visit and inspect certified institutes and approved homes at least once in two months;

(c) Perform, such other duties as may be assigned to him by the Director from time to time.

21. Powers and duties of a Probation Officer.—A Probation Officer shall, subject to the provisions of subsection (3) of section 31,--

(a) meet the child frequently and make inquiries about his home and school conditions, conduct, mode of life, character, health, environment and explain to the child the conditions of his probation;

- (b) attend Court regularly and submit report
- (c) maintain dairy, case files, and such registers as may be specified by the Director or Court from time to time;
- (d) meet the guardian and other relations of the child frequently in the process of correction, reformation and rehabilitation of the child ;
- (e) issue warning to the person under whose care the child is placed if such person is found to have committed any breach of the terms of the bond ;
- (f) visit regularly the child placed under his supervision and also place of employment or school attended by such child and to submit regular monthly reports to the Director in Form G;
- (g) encourage the child to make use of any opportunity that might be made available from any social welfare organisation or agency;
- (h) Advise the child to disassociate himself from a society which in the opinion of the Probation Officer, may spoil the character of the child;
- (i) endeavor to find suitable employment for the child. if such child be out of employment, and strive to improve his conduct and general conditions of living; and
- (j) perform such other functions as may be assigned to him by the Director . or by the Court from time to time.

22. Division of inmates into grades.--(1) The inmates of the certified institute shall be divided into three grades, namely:---

- (a) the penal, grade;
- (b) the general grade; and

(c) the star grade.

The privileges of each grade in the above order shall be higher than those of the immediately preceding grade.

(2) All the inmates after admission into a certified institute or approved home shall be placed in the general grade.

(3) Promotion to the star grade shall be regulated by close personal observation of the inmates, attention being specially paid to their general behaviour, amenability to discipline and performance in general education, vocational training'-tend other activities organized for them from time to time.

(4) When the Superintendent on the basis of close observation as mentioned above is satisfied that an inmate in the general grade may be safely placed in a position of 'special trust, he may be promoted to the star grade with the previous approval of the Chief Inspector. Such inmate shall wear a distinctive dress and may act as monitor in different capacities, and may be placed in authority over other inmates in parade, in the workshop, in recreation and in other situations where he can assist the administration in various ways.

(5) An inmate in the general grade, subject to good behaviour, shall be allowed to write and receive one letter and to have two interviews with his parents or guardians in a month.

(6) An inmate in the star grade shall be allowed to write and receive two letters and to have an interview with his parents or guardians once in every ten days. He can by exemplary conduct earn badge money of Tk. 10.00 (Taka ten) only per month.

(7) The badge money awarded to the inmates in the star grade may be spent by them in such manner as may be approved by the Superintendent.

(8) Where an inmate is believed to be exercising a bad influence, he shall be placed by the Superintendent in the penal grade for such period as the Superintendent considers necessary in the interest of the inmate himself and of other inmates. An inmate in the penal grade shall be employed in hard and labourious work and he shall forfeit all privileges. The Superintendent shall record in the punishment register the particulars of the case of every inmate ordered by him to be placed in the penal grade, with the reasons for such order and stating the period during which the inmate is to remain so placed

Provided that no inmate shall be placed in the penal grade for a period exceeding three months without the previous sanction of the Director.

(9) If an inmate is in the opinion of the Superintendent guilty of any act or omission referred to in rule 22, the Superintendent may place him, for such period as he may deem necessary in the penal grade ; but if he had previously been in the star grade such inmate may be placed either in the general grade or in the penal grade.

(10) Inmates in the penal grade shall be kept separate at night from those in the other grades.

(11) Inmates over the age of 14 years of age shall be kept separate at night from those of and below 14 years of age.

23. Forbidden acts. –The inmate of a certified institute or approved home committing any of these acts shall render himself liable to punishment, namely:-

- (i) Omitting to do or refusing to learn, any work or to do it improperly or neglecting the lessons or refusing to avail of the facilities for education and training ;
- (ii) Doing and omitting to do anything with intent to cause to himself or to others any illness injury or disability ;

- (iii) Causing or omitting to assist in suppressing insubordination, disorderly conduct, violence or rioting of any kind ;
- (iv) Taking part in any attack upon any inmate or officer
- (v) Omitting or refusing to help any officer in preventing attempted escape or attack upon an officer or another inmate ;
- (vi) Omitting to report any plot to escape or of conspiracy against the authorities ;
- (vii) Refusing to submit to counting by officers whenever required ;
- (viii) Instigating others to break the rules or regulations ;
- (ix) Disobeying any lawful order of the officer or omitting or refusing to perform duties in the manner directed ;
- (x) Indecent behaviour and using objectionable or filthy language towards anybody or doing or saying anything which may be calculated to wound or offend the feelings of a fellow inmate
- (xi) Doing any act calculated to create unnecessary alarm in the minds of other inmates or officers ;
- (xii) Refusing to submit to medical examination or vaccination or inoculation, or to take any other medical treatment, whenever required ;
- (xiii) Throwing away food or refusing to eat food prepared according to the prescribed diet scale or appropriating any food not assigned to him or disobeying any order as to the issue or distribution of food and drink or mixing any undesirable foreign matter to food while being cooked or distributed ;
- (xiv) omitting or refusing to wear the clothing given to him or losing, discarding, damaging or altering any part of it;

- (xv) removing or defacing any distinctive number, mark or badge attached to or required to be worn on the clothing issued ;
- (xvi) omitting or refusing to keep himself clean or disobeying any order regulating the cutting of hair or nails or the washing of clothings ;
- (xvii) omitting or refusing to keep clean and properly arranged his clothing blanked, beddings and other articles issued to him;
- (xviii) tempering with any property of the certified institute or approved home;
- (xix) committing nuisance or soiling any part of the certified institute or approved home or spitting anywhere except in the places provided for the purposes ;
- (xx) willfully befouling the walls latrines, washing and bathing places and the buildings and the compound ;
- (xxi) washing water or other articles of use ;
- (xxii) quarrelling with or assaulting any other inmate ;
- (xxiii) showing disrespect towards any officer or visitor or assaulting or attempting to assault any of them ;
- (xxiv) stealing of any article ;
- (xxv) making groundless or frivolous complaints.
- (xxvi) answering untruthfully any question put by an officer or a visitor ;
- (xxvii) communicating (written or otherwise) with an outsider or with an inmate of another certified institute or approved home without permission of the Superintendent ;

(xxviii) talking unnecessarily loudly when at work or at latrine or when bathing, feeding and counting parades; and

(xxix) talking or singing at night after 9 P. M.

24. Punishments.—(1) An inmate committing any of the acts specified in Rule 23 shall be liable to any or combination of these punishments, namely :--

(a) formal warning ;

(b) deprivation of any of the privileges of the grade ;

(c) reduction in grade;

(d) separate confinement ;

(e) caning not exceeding ten stripes

(2) No punishment shall be awarded to any inmate by any officer except The Superintendent of the certified institute or approved home, or in his absence, The officer appointed to act for him.

(3) An inmate shall not be placed in separate confinement unless the medical officer has certified that lie is in a fit state of health to undergo such punishment.

(4) Caning shall be on the palm of the hand or on the buttocks. The medical officer shall be present at the time when an inmate is caned. The number of stripes shall vary according to the age and nature of offence of the inmate. The medical officer may stop the caning on medical grounds.

25. Working hours.—All inmates, provided they are medically fit, shall be required to work for eight hours every working day. The days, work shall ordinarily be divided as follows.-

Drill and physical exercise

1 hour.

Literary instructions	3 hours.
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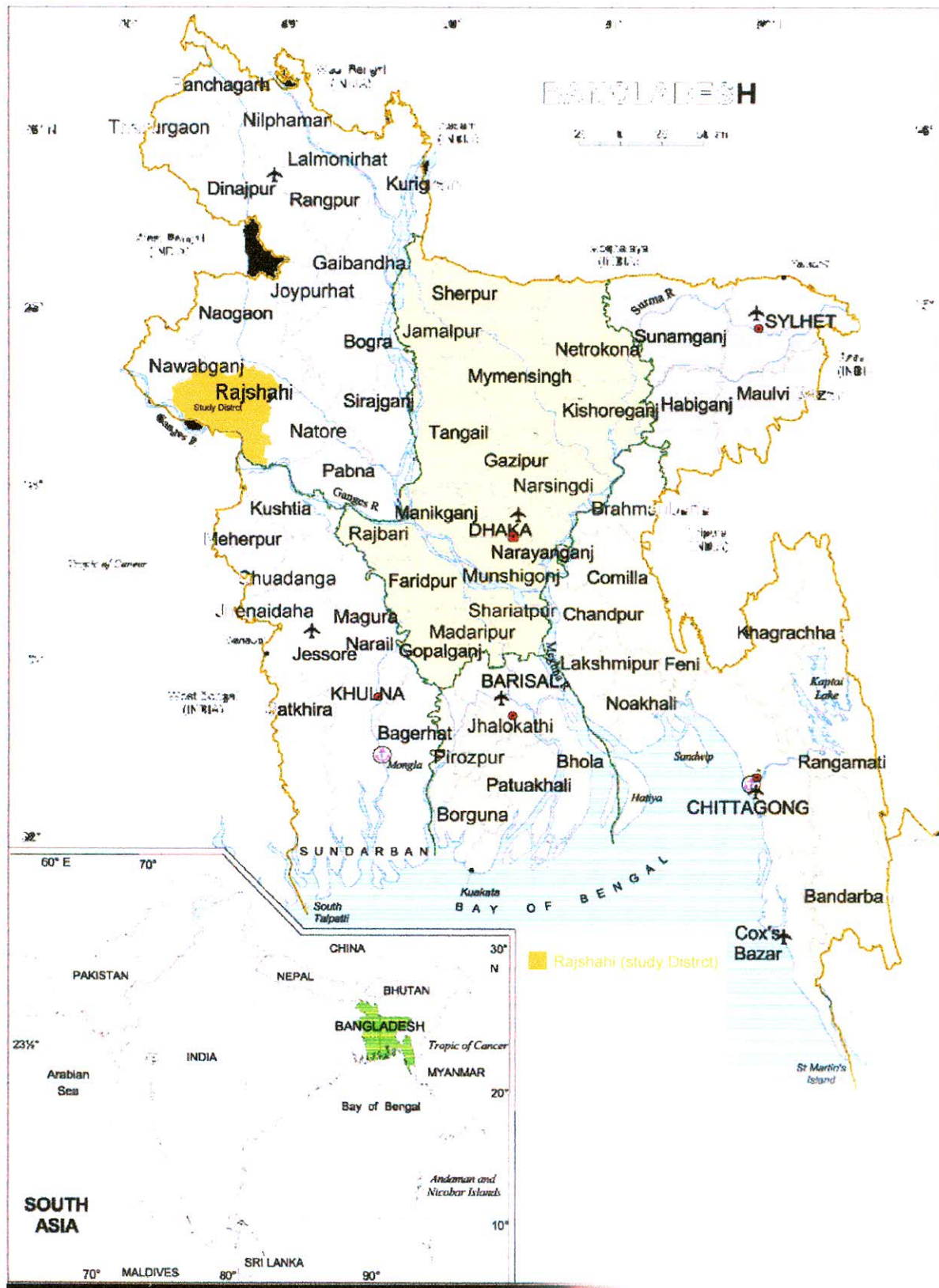
Manual work (including agriculture)	4 hours.
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(Besides, they will remain engaged in recreational activities for one hour daily)

Provided that in the case of an inmate who is a candidate for the Secondary School Certificate Examination, the periods of literary instructions and manual work for eight months immediately preceding the examination shall be 5 hours and 2 hours respectively.

Appendix 3

Study Area (District in Bangladesh)



Study Area (Metropolitan City in Rajshahi District)



Rajshahi University Library
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