

**WOMEN UNIVERSITY TEACHERS :
A social and psychological
comparison between
India and Spain**

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DECLARATION

Certified that the dissertation entitled "Women University teachers. A social and psychological comparison between India and Spain", submitted by LAURA BENITO HERRAIZ, is for the award of the Master of Philosophy of this University. This dissertation has not been previously submitted for any other degree of this University or any other University and is her own work.

We recommend that this dissertation may be placed before the examiners for evaluation.

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A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'L. Herraiz', enclosed within a large, loopy oval scribble.

LAURA BENITO HERRAIZ

SYNOPSIS

India and Spain are two countries which have varying population, with different male-female ratio and different social and economic conditions. Both countries also differ in the educational level of its population and in their tradition and cultural characteristics. Therefore, one may expect differences in the women university teachers of these two countries on a large number of issues.

With the above in mind, the present study has attempted to analyse the differences between the women teachers of India and Spain regarding their sociodemographic and socioeconomic factors and the cultural differences in their routine life as well in their thinking and dealing with their home problems. Besides the above, the study also has attempted to analyse the differences between women university teachers of the two countries in regard to certain specific factors, such as attitude towards society, work values and achievement motivation.

The results showed the following conclusions:

1. Indian women university teachers appeared to be significantly younger than the Spanish teachers.
2. Indian women university teachers had more qualification, lower level occupation in the university and were drawing less salaries than their Spanish counterparts.
3. Indian women university teachers spent more time in domestic work even in holidays, whereas the Spanish teachers spent their time in sports and tourism. Also Indian teachers appeared to be more satisfied and they perceived more opportunities for promotion than the Spanish teachers.
4. Both, Indian and Spanish women university teachers appeared to have a neutral attitude towards society.
5. Indian women university teachers seemed to have relatively more positive motivation to achieve than Spanish teachers.
6. Whereas Indian women university teachers showed more preference for economic value, the Spanish teachers did so in political, theoretical, aesthetic, social and moral values.

The above results were discussed in the light of other studies in this area.

- CHAPTER 1 -

INTRODUCTION

Human society all over the world has ever been changing in many ways. In recent years the speed of change has grown in enormity. In this process of change, the role of women has also changed though very slowly. Women have been playing inferior roles and subjected to subordinate status in all the societies of the world because of the disabilities that she has been carrying with her sex.

In both the underdeveloped and developed countries, a sexual division of labour exists in the organized and informal sectors of the economy as well as the family. Women are relegated to lower paying unskilled jobs, or to small scale peasant agriculture. They are given training for submission to men. Sex segmentation is also found in skilled and semi-skilled jobs which require post-secondary education. Women are primarily employed as primary school teachers, nurses and social welfare workers. Fewer women receive places in postgraduate second and third year degree programmes (Bristol, 1979; Graham, 1978, etc.).

In order to study the important subject of social change it is very essential to study the changes that are occurring in the society due to education and employment of women because, as Hobhouse has rightly pointed out in his *Morals in Evolution*, "the education of women and their position in society are a sure index of the advancement of society". Marx had declare that "social progress can be measured with precision by the social position of the female sex" (cf. Labour Bureau Report, 1953, p. 1).

It is important to study the position of urban educated working women as they are the ones from whom one could sense the pulse of the changing Indian womanhood.

WASTAGE OF HUMAN RESOURCES

Every educated woman who does not contribute to the social and industrial development of the country is a drain on the nation's resources.

Human resources, thus, constitute a valuable national wealth. Any neglect, under-utilization, non-utilization of human resources is a callous waste of vital resources (Aneja, 1973). It is thus essential to harness womanpower if substantial economic advancement has to be achieved. And for harnessing womanpower, the professional, technical and physical skills of women have to be efficiently and economically utilized,

STATUS OF WOMEN IN INDIA

Aneja further pointed out that out of women constitute 49 % of the Indian population, only 13 % of the female population is employed as compared to 53 % of male population. According to the Directorate General of Employment and Training, the proportion of women of total employed was 11.1 % in 1971 and 12.4 % in 1979.

This wastage of human resources has some economic consequences for the improvement of the country, but the wastage also can be measured by the internal and personal resources derived from the wastage of educated people, especially highly educated woman.

The Committee on the Status of Women disagrees with the view that, women who avail of higher education and do not work after marriage are wasting their education. The Committee believes "that spread of higher education among women whether general or professional is still restricted and that for the needs of modern society, there is need to expand it considerably. We also believe that an educated woman does become a better citizen and that the benefits of her education goes to enrich the life of her family.

If her talents and skills are not fully utilized today in work outside the home, the responsibility is of the society which does not provide adequate opportunities to such women to be of greater social use (Report of the Committee, 1972).

Though there has been sharp decline in the employment rate of women in general, and in the secondary sector in particular, it is heartening to note that more and more educated women seeking employment.

Education starts by literacy rate, as shown by a comparative glance at the data available in the three censuses (1961, 1971 and 1981) indicates that the gains made by males are not much different in the first decade (1961-1971) from those of females, 4.6 and 4.5 points. In the second decade (1971-1981) however, the position of females is rather more satisfactorily than of the males (a gain of 5.5 points against a loss of 2.1 points). The sex differentials prevalent at the 1961 census (28.0 %) are reduced to 21.8 %, but remain in favour of males.

From the literacy of women rates, it would be worthwhile to notice the proportion of employment in all levels of education, and also the proportion of employment of educated women population.

TABLE 1

ENROLMENT FOR UNIVERSITY EDUCATION (ALL FACULTIES INCLUSIVE) STATE-WISE (U.P. BOARD INCLUDED)

Enrolment by levels									
Year	Undergraduate			Postgraduate			Research(Doctoral)		
	Total enrolment	Men %	Women %	Total enrolment	Men %	Women %	Total enrolment	Men %	Women %
1950-51	3,75,319	89.2	10.8	19,922	87.9	12.1	1,434	85.9	14.1
1960-61	9,85,872	83.2	16.2	58,909	82.7	17.3	5,083	84.4	15.6
1970-71	28,26,799	78.4	21.6	1,61,182	74.2	25.8	13,311	79.3	20.7
1975-76	21,11,112	75.1	24.9	2,19,826	75.1	24.9	18,381	75.1	24.9

* Source oveleaf

- Source: (1) 1950-51 and 1960-61, Education in Universities in India, annual publication of the Union Ministry of Education and Social Welfare.
- (2) 1970-71, University Development in India. Basic Facts and Figures, U.G.C, annual publication.
- (3) Status of Women in India, ICSSR, Allied Publishers, New Delhi, p. 150.

TABLE 2

DISTRIBUTION OF DEGREE HOLDERS AND TECHNICAL FEMALE PERSONNEL BY STATUS AND LEVEL OF EDUCATION IN INDIA, 1971 (SELECTED CATEGORIES)

Labour force status	Doctorate		Masters/ Postgrad		Bachelor or equivalent		Diploma Certificate		Total %
	No.	%	No	%	No.	%	No.	%	
A 1. Employed	1.373	70.8	40.302	38.1	99.344	32.0	6.599	55.0	147.618 (36.1)
2. Self Empl.	51	2.6	1.700	2.0	5.982	1.9	950	7.9	8.683 (2.1)
3. Unempl. training for jobs	243	12.5	15.376	18.4	62.126	20.0	2.061	17.2	79.804 (19.5)
B.4. Students	84	0.2	326	0.4	3.424	1.1	159	1.3	3.913 (1.0)
5. Apprentices	--	--	33	Neg	394	0.2	65	0.5	492 (0.1)
6. Unempl. & not training for jobs	135	7.5	15.192	18.2	73.721	23.7	1.107	9.3	90.153 (22.1)

- Source: (1) Compiled from Census of India 1971, G Series Tables (National level). Degree Holders and Technical Personnel. Office of the R.G. India
- (2) Women in India, Unit on Women's Studies, SNTD Women's University, Bombay, 1975, p.55

The enrolment Table shows the difference of percentage between men and women in five years. It is interesting to note

that in 1975-76 the percentage of women's enrolment at all levels of education was 24.9 %. Also it is interesting to see that the progressive increase of women's percentage of enrolment with an average of 4.32 points, except in the postgraduate period in 1970-71 to 1975-76 where the percentage decrease in 0.9 points.

In the distribution of degree holders and technical female personnel table, the percentages shows a total level of employment and self employed of 38.2 % against the 22.1 % who are unemployed and not training for jobs. Is especially interesting the percentages at doctorate, masters and postgraduate level who are unemployed and training for jobs, 7.1 % and 18.2 % respectively can be consider a wastage in education resources.

If the proportion of highly educated woman still quite low, the differences of enrolment of men and women across various faculties is more noticeable. The influence of stereotypes are still very much rooted in the population. Apart from arts and science, women have been more likely to enrol in education and medicine than in other faculties, and the likelihood in the faculties of engineering, technology, agriculture and veterinary science continue to be very minimal.

During the period 1970-71 to 1975-76, their percentage distribution in education, commerce and law has increased. This indicate further improvement in their representation in education while making their entry in the traditionally male fields of commerce and law possible. However the number of women enrolling in these two subjects is too small, though the change is significant and noteworthy.

Table 3 overleaf presents the enrolment of men and women by faculties in India in the years 1970-71 and 1975-76.

TABLE 3

ENROLMENT ON MEN AND WOMEN IN UNIVERSITY
EDUCATION BY FACULTY IN INDIA (ALL LEVELS INCLUDED)

Faculty	1970-71			1975-76		
	Total	Men (%)	Women (%)	Total	Men(%)	Women(%)
Arts	9,07,776	38.7	64.3	6,86,903	38.27	66.0
Science	7,79,469	32.23	25.7	3,52,128	19.61	18.7
Commerce	3,31,433	14.13	0.4	3,87,395	21.58	4.6
Education	36,123	1.54	3.2	46,531	2.59	5.1
Eng/Tech.	89,124	3.8	0.1	94,006	5.26	0.3
Medicine	75,305	3.21	3.4	85,932	4.78	3.2
Law	67,992	2.9	0.4	98,438	5.48	1.2
Agric./Others	58,248	2.48	9.5	43,458	2.42	0.8
All faculties	23,45,470	100.00	100.00	17,94,841	100.00	100.00

Source: Tabulated from data contained in India (1975), Vasudevan (1979), U.G.C. (1979).

Table 4 sets out women teachers by faculty from 1950-51 to 1970-71. The highest proportion of women teachers to total teachers are located in teacher's training colleges (23.9 %). Yet they account for less than one quarter of the teachers in colleges of teacher's training. Women teachers from a somewhat significant proportion in those very faculties in which they are enrolled in substantial proportions. These are: arts (19.7 %), medicine (19.2 %), and science (23.6 %). These proportions are much less than their enrolment proportions. Thus, inspite of a higher pass percentage than men in almost all faculties, they have much less chance of becoming teachers in higher education.

TABLE 4
WOMEN TEACHERS IN COLLEGES AND
UNIVERSITIES IN INDIA

Faculty	1950-51		1960-61		1970-71	
	No.	%	No	%	No.	%
Arts	1.091	11.4	5.624	14.9	10.136	19.7
Science	379	6.3	Included in arts	---	5.381	13.6
Commerce	4	0.4	57	2.1	227	3.2
Education	130	24.3	448	22.8	924	23.9
Engg/Tech.	1	Neg	12	0.3	92	1.2
Medicine	173	9.9.8	731	12.8	2.236	19.2
Agriculture	1	0.2	21	1.4	23	1.5
Veterinary	12	8.2	11	1.7	18	1.6
Law	NIL	NIL	9	1.2	23 *	2.2
Others	24	16.1	10	4.2	154	15.7
All faculties	1.815	8.5	6.923	12.5	19.240	15.0

Source : India (1975, p. 260)

* Note: These figures have been taken from Education in India 1970-71 p. 211, Table XIII

There is a relatively smaller number of women teachers especially in the higher ranks of the more prestigious institutions and universities. Table 5 sets out their distribution by type of institution for the academic year 1972-73 and 1974-75. Table 6 gives their break-up by faculty in colleges and universities for the year 1973-74. It is easy to see that the proportion of women's teachers even in the faculties of arts, medicine, science, etc. (except education) reduces considerably at the university level. Again, apart from a tendency for ratios of women to men to be much smaller in universities and colleges of professional education (except teacher's training) than in colleges of general education, the proportion of women to men seems to have increased in recent years only marginally.

TABLE 5

**WOMEN TEACHERS BY TYPE OF
INSTITUTION IN INDIA**

Institution	1972-73		1974-75	
	Women	% of total teachers	Women	% of total teachers
University	1.142	8.7	1.683	9.1
Research institutions	55	6.7	6.9	8.6
Colleges for general education	23.246	20.0	25.846	20.5
Colleges for professional edu.	9.047	12.5	10.069	12.9
Colleges for other education	256	3.3	313	3.6
TOTAL	34.046	18.92	37.980	19.53

Source: Extracted from India (197, 8b, Statement IV, p. 15)

Note: Percentage of women teachers (School and College Education included) to total number of teachers in 1972-73 was 23.9 % and in 1974-75 it was 24.6 %

TABLE 6

**WOMEN TEACHERS IN COLLEGES AND
UNIVERSITIES BY FACULTY IN INDIA (1973-74)**

Faculty	Colleges		Universities	
	Number	% to total	Number	% to total
Arts	14.082	24.8	854	13.6
Science	6.866	17.6	685	9.8
Commerce	399	4.1	23	2.9
Education	1.218	26.8	125	27.4
Engg/Teach.	108	1.7	43	1.1
Medicine	3.127	21.6	237	16.6
Agriculture	13	1.7	73	2.4
Veterinary	21	12.6	15	1.5
Law	46	2.3	21	3.7
Others	371	29.8	94	14.5
TOTAL	26.271	19.3	2.170	8.6

* Source overleaf

Source: U.G.C. (1978, Table 34, ps. 106 & 111)

Note: Unfortunately, the sex-wise break up by designation given in these tables.

However, while in 1950-51, women formed 8.5 % of the teachers in higher education, this percentage rose to 15 % in 1973-74 (see Table 6). This is significant, yet it is doubtful if women are going to continue to achieve this advance (at least in percentage) in the years to come. Indications are that their proportion has almost become steady during the last few years.

TABLE 7

Women teachers by stages of instruction in India
(percentage to total teaching staff)

Year	Primary schools	Middle schools	Secondary schools	Colleges and universities
1950-51	18.0	18.0	19.0	8.5
1960-61	21.0	32.0	22.0	12.5
1970-71	26.0	37.0	30.0	15.0

Source: India (1975, Table 16, p. 259)

STATUS OF WOMEN IN SPAIN

Before analysing the actual literacy situation in detail, it would be interesting to know how the same evolved during this century.

The evolution is shown in Table 8. It is observed that the illiteracy rate has been progressively descending from 56.7 % in 1900 to 6.36 % in 1981. That is a median per year of 0.6 points.

TABLE 8

Percentage of people of 10 or more years who
are declared illiterate from 1900 census in Spain

Year	1900	1910	1920	1930	1940	1950	1960	1970	1981
No.	8.042.7	7.697.9	7.206.4	5.754.5	4.754.5	4.835.7	3.390.9	2.429.8	1.991.6
%	56.07	50.88	42.88	31.13	23.17	17.74	13.64	8.80	6.36

Censo 1981

Source: Anuario Estadístico de España, 1980
(Statistic Annuary of Spain, 1980)

The general picture of participation of women in labour force shows once more, the inferior position of women in their social roles and in these cases, the labour that they do.

In the last thirteen years the femenine activity rate has been moving inequally. While between 1970 aand 1975 it has risen by four points, between 1975 to 1981 it has been descending by 0.6 points.

TABLE 9

Women activity rates according to years in Spain

	1975	1981	1987	1988
Activity rates	27.5	26.9	32.1	32.46

Source: INE, Instituto Nacional Español (Spanish National Institute)

Besides the above the percent of women who are in the active labour market appears superior to that of the past years, though the performance of women in relation to the permanence of men has not varied significantly. It is characterized by the short labour life (years of active work) which is reduced because of the conflict between work role and family role. In Spain the maximum femenine participation is 63.11 % and it is

concentrated in the ages of 20-29 years. On the other hand, the maximum masculine activity rate is 96.88 % in the ages 30 to 34 years. So also the retirement age for women seem to be on an average 30 years, whereas for men it is 55 years of age. This discrepancy is due to women opting out of employment due to household duties that cannot be reconciled with outside employment.

The active male population in Spain was 9.282.300 and that of female population in 1986 was 4.120.000, that is 28.3 % of total women above the age of 16 years, and the latter was 30.7 % of the total active working population (both sexes).

TABLE 10

Activity rates by sexes in Spain

	1965	1970	1975	1980	1985
Men	82.51	79.45	76.35	72.15	68.71
Women	23.85	23.30	27.58	27.09	27.84

From the above table it is seen that within the men and women working population there has been a variation in the percentage of active workers between 1965-1985. It is interesting to note that while percentage of active working men shows a gradual steady decrease, the active working women shows a steady increase.

The decrease of the men's percentage may be due to the increase of education of the younger population, and also to the decrease of men's retirement. On the other hand, the increase in the percentage of activity rates of women population may be due to the increasing number of younger generation of women taking for jobs at an early age.

TABLE 11

Active population of men and women
by educational level in Spain, 1985

Educational level	Men			Women		
	Unmarried	Not married	Total	Unmarried	Not married	Total
Illiterates	1.86	10.54	12.40	2.3	9.6	11.61
Primary	11.14	40.37	51.50	12.46	26.40	38.90
Secondary	15.18	15.95	31.11	27.79	15.20	42.70
High	1.48	2.49	4.59	2.38	1.99	4.37
Total	29.66	69.85	100.00 9.823.300 (69.3)	44.93	53.19	100.00 4.120.600 (30.7)

Source: INE Spanish National Institute

As far as women's participation in the educational system is concerned there appears considerable differences at different levels, and, of course, at faculties and specialities. It can be said that the general feature is lesser the age of the pupils, the more the number of female teachers and viceversa.

In Preschool (0 to 4 years) 94 % of teachers are women. In E.G.B. (General Basic Education, 4 to 14 years) women teachers are 61 % and it varies from 81 % in the basic courses to 46 % in the higher courses. In B.U.P. (14 to 18 years), the proportion of women teachers are around 50 %. In the University only one-fourth are women teachers, and this percentage varies according to faculties and specialities. The more common categories occupied by women are the lowest of the total standards.

Table 12 overleaf presents the evolution of university enrolment by years.

TABLE 12

Evolution of university enrolment in Spain

(Basis 1980-81 = 100 %)

Years	men	Women	Total
1980-81	100	100	100
1981-82	100.6	106.5	103.2
1982-83	101.6	113.4	106.7
1983-84	106.3	125.3	114.7
1984-85	111.8	133.3	121.2

In the above five years, the enrolment in the university has increased by 21.2 %, in which women's participation has contributed to 33.3 %.

The national rate of women teachers is 24 % and it appears slightly superior in public institutions than in private ones.

Table below shows the teachers' distribution by type of university and sex.

TABLE 13

University teachers distribution by type of

institution and sex in Spain (1984-85)

	Faculties	Technical Superior schools	University school	Total
Women	6.678	493	4.027	11.198
	14.8	1.09	8.95	24.89
Men	20.236	4.744	8.803	33.783
	45.18	10.54	19.57	75.10
Total	26.914	5.237	12.830	44.981
	59.83	11.64	28.52	100.00

The faculties with higher percentage of women teachers are filology and pharmacy. On the other hand, medicine and law, instead of having a high rate of women students, are the faculties with more percentage of men teachers.

The data of teaching population according to academic categories are presented in the table below.

TABLE 14

Percentage of women teachers, according to the type of university and the academic category (1983-84)

	Professors	Readers		Lecturers	
	Catedraticos	Agregados	Adjuntos	Ayudantes	Others
General	7	11	23	36	30
Total University	7	11	23	36	35
Public university	7	13	23	35	37

Table 15 overleaf presents the distribution of women teachers according to the type of university and by faculties in Spain.

It is interesting to see that the highest percentage in Spain is in the faculties of pharmacy and filology as in India. Also the faculties of "geography & history" and psychology have high percentages of women teachers. The lowest percentage is in the specialities of physics, economics and medicine.

TABLE 15

Percentage of women teachers according to the type of university and by faculties in Spain

	Total general	University total	Public university	Private university	University schools
TOTAL	24	24	25	25	22
Arts	22	22	22	--	--
Science	26	26	26	--	31
Biology	30	28	27	46	41
Physics	15	15	15	4	25
Geology	23	23	23	--	--
Maths.	20	20	20	--	12
Chemistry	29	30	30	--	23
Economics	17	17	17	15	13
Information	16	16	16	13	4
Politics	16	16	18	10	--
Law	18	18	19	18	12
Pharmacy	48	48	48	51	23
Filology	42	42	42	--	36
Philosophy	31	32	32	29	29
Education	26	27	28	15	14
Geo/History	38	39	39	--	30
Computer	23	23	24	16	--
Medicine	17	17	16	23	30
Psychology	31	33	33	--	17
Veterinary	25	25	25	--	--

From the above figures for both India and Spain, it is seen that there appears a decline in the percent of women in active work as compared to men; and also the women seem to retire much earlier in age than men. Further more, between India and Spain, the discrepancy in the percent of women in higher education is rather conspicuous with nearly three times more percent of Spanish women in jobs at higher education level as compared to Indian women. While, of course, one may explain this low percent of Indian women by showing the very low literacy rate amongst women in India as compared to Spain, there are also various other factors such as sociodemographic, socioeconomic and sociocultural factors including tradition, norms and religion which may all have differentially affected the women's participation in jobs at higher educational levels in the two countries.

Since there is no study in the literature to show why such differences exists, it was thought worthwhile to study and compare these factors amongst Indian and Spanish women teachers to delineate differences if any.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

GENERAL PICTURE OF INDIAN AND SPANISH WOMEN

India and Spain are two countries with considerable differences in their social, economic and traditional aspects. Also there is a great deal of variation of people, particularly women in the two countries.

In 1971 the female population of India was 264 million, much more than the total population of URRS and USA. The sex ratio is 930 females per one thousand males. The male population has always grown faster than the female population since 1901 (Bose, A., 1969). Mortality was highest among the adult females and among them a large number were pregnancy deaths.

Infant mortality among females continue to remain higher than among males. In 1969, 70 per 1000 infants died as compared to 50 per 1000 male infants, which means about 75.000 more female infants died than male infants (India To-Day, 1980).

Higher uner-enumeration of females in the Indian census, the higher mortality rates of females, the marked preference for sons, the neglect of girls-babies, the general neglect of women at all ages, the adverse impact of frequent and excessive child bearing in the health of women, especially those in reproductive age-group, and the higher incidence of certain diseases in women are considered the main reasons for the declining sex ratio over the last decades.

The female birth rate in 1970 as per the sample registration data was 37 %. In 1971 only 13.2 % of all couples in

the reproductive age-group in India were "protected" by one or the other method of family planning.

Thus, the demographic characteristics of Indian women indicate widespread disparities and secondary position of women in respects of population, health, mortality, etc.

On the other hand, in Spain, the principal variation of natural movement of population is due to the change in the number of births, but it is necessary to note the favourable evolution of mortality, whose effect was to attenuate the descent of vegetative growing. That is, between 1974 and 1982 the mortality rate varied from 8.43 per 1000, to 7.44 per 1000 males.

In relation with the natality rate, the births have gone down from 19.47 per 1000 in 1975 to 13.44 per 1000 in 1982 and 10.7 per 1000 in 1985. Another important factor of the fecundity ratio is the average number of children per woman; this has varied from 2.78 in 1975 to 1.9 in 1982.

The main causes for the descending of the natality ratio are the late marriage of women and the descent of legitimate fecundity. These factor implies an important change in the family process: more frequently, the first union between sexes is in the way of liberal union which usually culminates in marriage, but that implies also a delay in having children and legitimate descendents.

The "women's freedom" movement better called "change women's movement", pretends an adaptation of the women to the modern economy. This fact has been shown in a series of phenomena as, the similar man's instruction, legal emancipation, progressive incorporation to the salaried employment, important reduction of domestic work, descent of family care, descent of infant mortality, and early socialization of children out of the house, family planning and the total or parcial free abortion activities.

Each of these factors are causes and consequences of an irreversible evolution of the industrialized society, and it depends on the degree of development of the country. Concretely in Spain, this change becomes crystallized around the middle of 60's, when all these phenomena influenced decisively the young people in their emancipation which has been consecrated in the establishment of 18 years as the legal age, and in the progressive increase of economic independence.

All these changes have not produced the supposed "disappearance of the family", but it has brought about the de-institutionalisation, and is shown in the multiplicity of different ways of family. The most visible example of this is the liberal union without marriage. This kind of union is not comparable with the married one, neither in the stability, nor in the descendants, nor in the acquisition of house, and also not even in the woman's work and the fecundity control, nor in the family roles and kind of life. (Min. Cultura, Spain, 1986).

The situation in India in this respect, is absolutely different and it depends on the social background and the social features of Indian culture. Instead of this traditional situation of women, which has another important problems amongst women, the economic and social situation is changing the status of women and their roles in society, especially among the educated and urban women of India. The proportion of educated women still is very low and the social participation can not be generalized to all strata of society and also to all states of the nation.

CHANGING STATUS OF WOMEN AS RELATED TO EDUCATION

The decline in the status of women in India is reflected in the customs relating to marriage, religion and property, concepts of woman's role in the family, basic attitudes with respect to the social image of women, etc.

The renaissance of Indian social life, particularly in the second half of the nineteenth century saw an up rise in women's education though not very satisfactorily.

The practice of child marriage apart from its undesirable effects on the health of girls, had led to the curtailment or denial of educational opportunities to them, since soon after marriage they were expected to assume adult household responsibilities in the husband's family. The desire on the part of boys to complete their education and secure an independent income before marriage tended to postpone the age of marriage for boys; with the rise of marriage for boys corresponding rise in the age of marriage for girls became inevitable. Furthermore, boys began, increasingly, to demand higher educational attainments in girls while selecting them as marriage partners. These forces undoubtedly proved in promoting the education for girls.

TH-3495

In spite of the considerable advance made in women's education since independence in 1947, a wide gap remains between the percentage of men and women receiving education. Whereas the general literacy rate for 1961 was 42.9 % for men, it was only 14.9 % for women. In 1981 about 46.7 % of boys were educated as against about 24.9 % of the girls. Table 1 below shows the details.

TABLE 1

Percentage of males and females in the Indian population who are educated and illiterate

Year	Total	%	M (%)	F (%)
1961	Educated	29.3	42.9	14.9
	Illiterate	70.7	57.1	85.1
1971	Educated	34.1	47.5	19.4
	Illiterate	65.9	52.5	80.6
1981	Educated	36.2	46.7	24.9
	Illiterate	63.8	53.3	75.1

* Source overleaf

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Source: Statistical Year Book, Department of Economic and Social Affairs. Statistical office. United Nations, New York, 1983

The preindustrialized society in Spain was characterized by the agricultural trend of life, and a marked system of traditions which include the division of roles by sexes and a strong tendency to religious activities (Catholic). The education was imparted by rotative teachers who travel among some villages or by a teacher who teach children from different villages at the same time. No classification of children was made according to the age, but a division by sexes was made. In that way there were common subjects like write and read, and a common book printed by the government which was compulsory to all students in the country. The emphasis was made in moral values, religion and subjects as mathematics, geography, history of Spain, etc. as well a kind of subjects related to the correct way of socialization between boys and girls.

Arranged and love marriage were practised at the same time, but casteism and morality of girl was the most important feature for a marriage partner. No prejudice of child birth was shown in the Spanish society, but always in the public sphere of life, boys were preferred.

Actually urban life is the predominant trend of life in Spain, and that implies a competitive and very qualified labourer. The role of Spanish women in the industrialized society has changed very fast in the recent past. Women have become an active part of the social structure, a citizen like men with the same advantages and duties as men, who fight for their rights denied for centuries. In this situation literacy rates has increased spectacularly in both sexes, and the competition between sexes has become a fight in two senses: one, the traditional conception of women is in the mind of the living generation and it is a source of not acceptance of the emancipated

and well qualified women in some jobs. Second, the active role of women affects the family care, the number of descendents, the way of enjoyment, and the complete personality of women.

With the above picture of Spanish society, the education plays an important role in the economic and social development of the country. The literacy rates registered in the 1981 census indicate that there was 1.955.581 illiterate people of 10 and more years in Spain, that is 6.36 % of the total population of that age.

The Table below presents the percentages of people who are illiterate by age and sex factors. The women illiteracy rates is 8.9 % and that of men is 3.6 %. For the total population of more that 10 years, there is 2,6 illiterate women for each man who does not know how to read and write. This difference is increasing in proportion to the age.

TABLE 2

Percentage of people of 10 or more years old who are declare themselves as illiterates according to age and sex factors in 1981 in Spain

AGE	% GENERAL	% MEN	% WOMEN
10-14	0.6	0.6	0.6
15-19	0.8	0.9	0.8
20-24	0.1	1.0	1.2
25-34	1.7	1.3	2.2
35-44	4.4	2.6	6.1
45-54	7.9	4.8	10.8
55-64	10.1	6.1	13.7
65 & above	21.4	12.2	9.9
15 +	7.04	4.01	9.9
15-64	4.5	2.8	6.1

Source: 1981 Census INE (Spanish National Institute)

Having presented the illiteracy rates of India and Spain it is interesting to point out some notes and definitions from UNESCO to show the relativity of this percentages and also the relativity of the comparison of data of Indian and Spanish samples.

The General Conference of UNESCO on November 27 of 1978 in the 20th meeting in Paris mark the following definitions:

Illiterate person "is the person who is not able to read and write understanding a brief and simple exposition of facts related to their usual life".

Functional illiterate person " is the person who can not undertake those activities where the formal education is needed to the efficient performance in his group and community, and that enable him in itself to follow the wordness of the reading, the writting and aritmetics at the service of one's own personal development and that of the community".

The relativity of the concept of funcional illiterate is especially interesting in the Spanish society which has develop economically very fast and has experimented a deep change in a few years. Literate persons of today can be functionally illiterates of tomorrow, if the society needs a knowledge of read-write superior of that they have.

STATUS OF WOMEN

"Formal Science" is only a few hundred years old. In the present context it is imparted through formal education and is practised in the formal institutions. This feature of science as specialized activity, obscures the fact that science is as old as human civilisation.

Formalization of scientific activity has created a wide chasm between the science of every day life and the eso-

teric science of books and laboratories. With an emerging modern-sector, the dichotomy between mass-culture and "modern" knowledge has widened enormously so that the kind of continuous articulation that was possible between one's occupational role and domestic role has broken out. In the latter, it remains at an empiricist level, passed on through oral traditions. As it is the proportion of men seeking higher education is very low. For these men who are operating in a modern sector, their home lives would be still revolving around traditional norms. Their mothers, sisters, wives lived in a different world.

With the entry of women into higher education and into the scientific profession, one might conceivably expect that as role occupants in two spheres. The girl "doing science" in the laboratory is also the manager of the household-economy and the mother of children, the provider of the members of the household but the implanted character of science makes chances of this articulation taking place, less likely.

In playing the occupation role, it is interesting to note how sex role stereotypes succeed in creating a secondary status for women through the phenomena of segregation in occupations.

A significant type of occupational shift that has relevance to the status of women is the phenomena known as "female-typing". Certain occupations become predominantly female and consequently receive lower pay and lower prestige.

Science has been a men's profession. Women's entry in the scientific profession may be seen as an attempt to cross this barrier.

The more advanced economics have a higher proportion in "services" in general. The proportion of women in "Professional-Technical work" in India is only 8 % of the total employed in that sector. However, there is no "female-typing".

All the sectors have a small proportion of women. The striking think, according to Kapur (1972), is that "clerical" jobs are not feminised in India, though in general one finds large number of women in India in the recent years have taken to this profession including secretary to executive in companies, etc.

The pattern of employment among different sectors shows that while men and women are more in the public sector, the proportion of women in the private sector is higher than among men. This has implication for the terms of employment, salary levels, working conditions, promotion prospects, job security, etc, are widely different as between various private organizations. For example, in a Multinational company women employees did not get even maternity benefits.

Teaching, and teaching in schools remains the most preferred option for women in India but teaching has not yet become feminised as in Western countries.

Women scientists in India fall into the familiar gender-differentiated occupational pattern: (a) concentration in teaching; (b) concentration at lower salary levels; (c) concentration in bio-sciences; (d) underrepresentation in managerial posts. The degree of feminization on jobs is still low for there are not yet enough women with higher education to produce this effect (Krishnaraj, 1980).

REASONS FOR EDUCATED WOMEN'S REFRAINING FROM GETTING EMPLOYED

The Council of Scientific and Industrial Research reveals that out of the total number of unemployed women graduates only 1.10.000 women have been hunting for jobs while majority of them, 1.25.000 educated women, were not even looking for jobs (Career Digest, 1972).

In one of the studies conducted by Srivastava at Chandigarh of educated working women, it was found that one of the

main reasons why some educated married women refrain from taking up employment, is their inability to get jobs which are more or less similar in prestige as that of their family's social standing and status or as that of the prestige of their husband's job or occupation. This lends support to Parson's contentions (1940) that family is a unit of status in the system of stratification, as it was found that married women prefer to refrain from employment if they are not sufficiently qualified to get a job suitable to their family's status and if they feel that it is not possible for them to enter into occupations which have prestige commensurating with the status of their families or with the husband's occupational class position (Srivastava,1972).

The findings of the study mentioned above suggest that more and more women should be given similar opportunities and encouragement to achieve similar levels and types of occupation and employment as men, so that the gap between their education is narrowed and more married women are able to work in occupations at levels consistent with their husband's and in jobs of their choice, which are consistent in prestige with that of their husband's occupational prestige, and thus utilize their education for their own good and for the good of the nation.

On the other hand, as hypothesized by D'Souza, educated women tend to refrain from taking jobs if they are qualified for much more prestigious and high levels jobs than what their husbands are holding or are qualified to hold, mainly because the image of the "head of the family" is considered to be damaged by wife's taking up a higher job or profession with a higher position and status. This is so because of the principle of status and consistency within the family. As long as there is only one earner in the family, generally the head, there is no problem of status consistency. But when both husband and wife are working the problem of status consistency becomes very complex and wife's being in a higher status of occupation

creates difficulties and problems of interpersonal relationships. Thus, the employment of women depends upon the balancing of several factors (D'Souza, 1969).

EMPIRICAL VIEW OF WOMAN'S STATUS

In India, women's participation and achievements in out-of-the home activities and spheres, especially since independence, have proved that it is the socialization patterns, environmental stimulus, and opportunities given to them that develop their psychological traits and their concomitant behaviour. The "new opportunities for education and employment, the emergence of new socioeconomic patterns and the privileges of new and equal legal and political rights to women, are slowly changing the traditional conceptions of the role and status of women in contemporary Indian society" (Kapur, 1972). Recent studies like those of Dube (1963), Hate (1969), Desai (1957), Kapadia (1959), Kapur (1960, 1970, 1972 & 1973) and Fonseca (1966) do indicate that the attitudes of educated women, more so, of the educated change working women, have certainly undergone a considerable change regarding their role and status in society. But have the attitudes of society and especially that of men towards the role and status of women also changed?

Since the educated working woman's internalized role and status will ultimately be determined by the attitudes and behaviour patterns of the other members of society towards her and by her own self-image which will be created in her by them, it is this empirical view that is of great significance for finding out her actual status in the society (inside as well as outside home).

In theory, no doubt, Article 16 of the Indian Constitution guarantees equality of opportunity in matters of public employment and prohibits any discrimination on the ground of sex.

But, in practice, this ideal is far from being within the reach of average woman and in reality there is very little "freedom for choice" given to women. In India, it is still the powerful patriarch who decides how far a woman will be educate, what purpose her education will serve, whom she will marry, and after marriage it is again the all powerful husband who finally sanctions all her activities.

The studies of eminent scholars like Ghurye, I.P. Desai, Kapadia, and Srinivas indicate the strengthening of old reactionary institutions and ideologies in India since independence. The lives of a large majority of women are still being shaped by the "authoritarian pro-male values". Even if a woman is very well educated and has an economic and occupational status of her own, she is usually introduced to others as daughter of "so and so", wife of "so and so" and not by her own status and individual standing. "The drive for individual status is a human need but a woman's status is still measured by the status of her father or of her husband and not by her achievements and positions as an individual. While a man exists in his own right, a woman exists in relation to him. And the pattern of male superiority in all fields is still a dominating factor in Indian society, in which a woman is considered to be inferior and the weaker sex" (Kapur, 1972).

The study of Sengupta (1970) of the status, power and roles of the women of Bengal in different spheres of life also tends to show that in spite of women's increasing participation in a variety of professions and occupations, one can not say that their emancipation is being rapidly or easily accomplished (c.f. Sengupta, 1970). And as already discussed, it is so mainly because the traditional beliefs and concepts with regard to the role and status of man and woman in society still largely perpetuate. From the statistical and case-data available from va-

rious other studies such as those of Hate (1969), Desai (1957), Ramanamma (1969), Tripathi (1967), Mehta (1970), Sengupta (1960), Sengupta (1964), Ross (1961), Cormack (1961), Kapur (1970) and from observations made by Meher (1971), Joshi (1973) and Aneja (1973), one can conclude that in spite of the formal equality which a woman in India enjoys, the traditional view of the role and status of women still largely prevails. These studies point out that "though theoretically woman is recognised as a social equal of man, the institutions of caste and the patriarchal family, religious traditions and dominant value systems are still surcharged with the sprit of male dominance" (kapur, 1972), which make a woman's status far from being equal to that of a man.

The issues yet to be considered are whether a woman's status could be improved, and if so, what steps should be taken to let her enjoy in reality the freedom and privileges that she has been bestowed upon in theory by the Constitution.

GOALS AND OBJECTIVES OF WOMEN'S EDUCATION

Education has normally been viewed as an agency helping economic production, it has also said to provide instructions in suitable skills, for a general division of labour (Kaul, 1971). Thus, one of the aims of higher education is to develop efficiency in production.

But a great deal of ambivalence exists as regards women's education. The ambivalence has increased since women have begun to seek employment. The role of women as wives, mothers and home makers has changed. Women must also seek employment to improve their economic conditions and to seek intelectual satisfaction. It is interesting to note that in a study conducted for Carnegie Commission, it was found that college-educated women tend to spend relatively more time on child care than women with lower levels of education, but about the same amount of

time on such activities as meal preparation. Thus, the educated woman is expected to display efficiency in all her roles. Any error, and the blame goes to her education; in fact, it is viewed as wastage of education.

The educational system, must, therefore, be geared to meet all these needs. The role of women in new India has yet to be defined particularly where she should play a new role in the family, community and national context. Since the Constitution has declared men and women as equals, the goals of women's education can not be different from men's education, it should have a vocational or occupational bias. The Committee of the Status of Women stated that, "In the progressive society of tomorrow, life should be a joint venture of men and women. Men should share the responsibility of parenthood and home making with women, and women in their turn, share the social and economic responsibilities of men". Though these sentiments were expressed in 1954, no significant change in policy or attitudes has occurred. On the contrary, women's role in the economic sphere has increased resulting in the stress of a dual role. It is imperative that the government and university resolve their ambivalence and provide education to women which will equip them to play their multiple roles (Desai, 1977).

But is not the ambivalence which has to be solved, but the men's education and their attitudes towards women's employment, women's childcare and women's household management.

From the Institute of Women's publication "Spanish Men", it is possible to get an approximation to the mental attitudes about the women's situation at the present moment in Spain.

To the opinion if women must work or not, there is a certain degree of ambivalence in men because for them, the women's job is not compulsory though they like to have that addional income which they get if the wife goes for jobs. It is ac-

cepted the function of autorrealization of feminine work and it is secondary to the productive function of their work.

Spanish men perceive the professional world as masculine or neutral. The accepted professions for men and women are large in theory but very restricted in reality. There are professions considered associated to values traditionally masculine, like technical control, physical force, army, authority, etc, but the conception of important tasks are not however exclusively related to men's roles. The women's professions are identified more as an extension of domestic work. However, for professions requiring high qualification as professor, doctor, chemist, etc, both men and women have the same consideration. But in professions such as typing, cleaning, etc, there appears a greater division between men and women consideration.

As regard to the salaries, men are not much discriminated, but there is an attitude of comprehension and aprobation to the managers' preference to contract men instead women.

Respect to home management and the distribution of roles in domestic work, the Table 3 shows the different activities in household work that are done by men and the percentage of men who never do it, and do only some times, do it almost always, and always do it.

From the Table it is seen that in large number of household activities, men participate equally and thus help their wives in the household chores. In India however such participation appears to be still a far cry though in the higher education circles it may be slightly present. The aim of the present study therefore is to find out whether women in higher education occupations, performing as heavy a load of work at office as men, perceive that their spouse share the household chores with them and whether the remuneration that they receive is at par with that of their men colleagues and if any of them feel that their

going on to work affect adversely the bringing up of children at home, etc.

TABLE 3

Frequency of men's activity in domestic work in Spain
(horizontal %. Basis = 1405)

Tasks	Never	Some times	Almost always	Always
To do the beds	40.4	43.3	6.8	9.5
To clean dust	56.1	35.3	3.6	4.9
To cook	39.9	47.3	7.0	5.8
To wash clothes	77.0	17.2	1.8	3.9
To dry clothes	46.6	44.3	4.1	5.0
To wash floors	57.2	43.7	3.3	4.7
To tidy the house	44.7	45.3	5.0	4.8
Reparations	14.3	23.0	23.5	39.0
To wash plates	44.6	41.6	7.5	6.2
To press	86.9	9.0	1.2	2.2
To care for children*	39.7	44.1	11.6	4.1
To clean bathrooms	65.5	25.5	4.1	4.9
To care for plants	43.8	36.7	9.5	9.7
To go for shopping	33.7	46.3	12.0	8.0
To draw out the bucket's rubbish	17.2	40.9	19.1	22.7
To clean glasses	71.5	20.8	3.8	3.9

* Only husbands. Basis of percentage : 955

Source: "Los hombres españoles" (Spanish men)

Instituto de la mujer, Octubre 1989 (Women's Institute)

The present study has also attempted to compare these perceptions and view points between Indian and Spanish women university teachers. It is hoped that such comparison would help to highlight some of the major issues and problems related to women working outside the home particularly in responsible position.

METHODOLOGY OF PRESENT RESEARCH

As mentioned in the previous chapter, there appear to be values, customs, traditions and general level of motivation which restrict women in India from entering into the fields of higher education. The attitude towards women's education in India appears to be one of the main factors contributing to the present status of women, especially in the higher education teaching profession.

However, the question arises as to whether a similar situation exists in other countries also, especially in Spain, which has a large number of women in higher education, yet do not appear to enjoy the same status as men. Thus, to ascertain the differences between Indian and Spanish women university teachers, a comparative analysis was undertaken in terms of variables such as sociodemographic factors, socioeconomic factors, attitude towards society, achievement motivation and work values. In Spain also though no deterring factors as obtained in India exists, yet, the number of teaching women professionals at higher education is not equivalent to that of men. Who are the women who get into teaching at higher educational level in India and Spain?. What type of background they come from?. What are their basic qualifications, experience and training?. What are their feelings about working women in general?. What are their attitudes towards society, their motivation and work values?. Women in higher education in India and Spain differ in any of these factors?.

The above are some of the questions for which answers have been sought in the present study.

OBJECTIVES AND HYPOTHESES

The present study has the following objectives:

1. To ascertain if women teachers in the universities of India and Spain differ in their sociodemographic and socioeconomic factors and if so, in which areas in particular.
2. To ascertain if there is any difference between women university teachers of India and Spain regarding the type of family life they have, the type of social relationship they have on the job, and their general feelings about working women.
3. To ascertain if there exists any difference between women teachers of India and Spain in regard to the work values they have, their achievement motivation and their attitude towards various aspects of society.

In line with the above objectives, following hypotheses were formulated:

1. There may be no difference in the sociodemographic factors between women university teachers of India and Spain.
2. There may be no difference between the Indian and Spanish women university teachers in regard to their socioeconomic status.
3. Women university teachers of India and Spain may not differ amongst themselves in regard to the relationship they have with their family members, the way they spend their free time and their feelings about the status of working women in general.
4. The type of relationship maintained by the women university teachers of India and Spain as perceived by their colleagues, superiors and subordinates may not differ.

5. There may be no variation in the attitude towards society between women university teachers of India and Spain.
6. There may be no difference in the achievement motivation of women university teachers of India and Spain.
7. There may be no difference between women university teachers of India and Spain in regard to their work values.

To test the above hypotheses, a comparative paradigm has been used and the teachers of India and Spain have been compared on the following variables:

- (a) Sociodemographic variable
- (b) Socioeconomic variable
- (c) Cultural variable
- (d) Attitude towards society
- (e) Achievement motivation
- (f) Work values

DEFINITIONS OF VARIABLES

The above variables have been defined operationally as follows:

Sociodemographic variable. This refers to varied aspects related to the respondent, as for example, age, marital status, living status, number of members in the family, amenities at home and occupation of husband and children.

Socioeconomic variable. This refers to the educational level, occupational designation in the university and the income of the women teachers. On the educational level, three levels have been considered, (1) "M.A.", (2) "M. Phil", and "Ph. D.". For the occupation in the university, three levels

were included, "Lecturer", "Reader" and "Professor". The income of teachers had also three levels starting from "Rs. 3000/- to Rs. 5000/-", "Rs. 5000/- to 7000/-" and "Rs. 7000/- & above".

Cultural variable. This refers to a number of traditional factors as is obtained in India and Spain, such as the time they spend with family, their general feelings about the working women, their feelings about equality in jobs, etc.

Attitude towards society. This refers to the attitude of the university teachers towards the society. The attitude is taken as the scores obtained from a standardized scale by D. Banerjee (1962) which covered aspects such as attitudes towards marriage, equality, equal rights and attitude towards love marriage, widow remarriage, etc. These were responded on a 5-point scale starting from "very much important" to "not at all important".

Achievement motivation. Achievement motivation is a condition which gives rise to a certain affect. It is the condition for affective arousal which involve results of actions in terms of how far they confirm expectations. These motives should be distinguished primarily in terms of the types of expectations involved, and secondarily, in terms of types of actions engaged in by the respondent.

The definition of achievement motive leaves considerable room for variation as to the type of performance which may be involved, as it varies according to the culture. While in Indian culture the women's role at home and outside may be relatively more deterministic, in the Spanish culture it really not so.

Work values. Value has been defined by English & English (1958) as "degree of worth ascribed to an object or activity

(or class) thereof". For Parsons & Shills (1952), values are referred to exclusively as moral preferences. "A value is not just a preference but is a preference which is felt and/or considered to be justified —morality or by reasoning or by aesthetic judgements usually by two or all the three of these —". (Hafeez K.S. & Hafeez K.R., 1982)

Values are derived from life, environment, self, society and culture and beyond all, from the ideal transcendent dimension of human existence and experience.

Values may be classified into six different categories such theoretical, economic, aesthetic, social, moral and political values.

RESEARCH DESIGN

A comparative paradigm was used to highlight the differences between Indian and Spanish teachers. All the variables used in this study for comparison were analysed and compared between the two groups of women university teachers of India and Spain.

To ascertain whether there existed any correlation between attitude towards society, achievement motivation and work values and whether these correlations differed between the two groups of university teachers, were ascertained with the help of the correlational analysis.

SAMPLE

A total of 32 Indian and 40 Spanish women university teachers was selected from one university in India (Jawaharlal Nerhu University) and one university in Spain (Complutense Uni-

versity). All those who were involved in M. Phil and Ph. D. teaching courses were included in the sample. There were in all a total of 72 teachers who had filled all aspects in the different questionnaires completely and thus extended their cooperation. Both married and unmarried women teachers formed the part of this study.

TOOLS OF DATA COLLECTION

For the purpose of this study, the following scales/instruments were used.

Sociodemographic factors. A questionnaire was specially devised which covered age, marital status, living status, number of members in the family, amenities at home and occupation of husband and children.

Socioeconomic factors. To ascertain the socioeconomic status of teachers a questionnaire was devised on the lines of Kuppuswamy (1980) but kept the income level from the lecturers grade to professors grade. Similarly, the educational level was kept from M.A. to Ph. D. and above. As for occupation it ranged from Lecturer to Professor.

Each of the items was then given an arbitrary weight on the lines of Kuppuswamy scales and the total weight was added to show the score on socioeconomic status.

Cultural factors. To ascertain the teachers' view points regarding the status of women, the way in which the teachers spent their leissure hours at home, the amount of time that they spent with their husband and children, their general feelings about working women, etc. (Detailed questionnaire is appended)

Attitude towards society. To ascertain the attitude of women university teachers in Indian and Spanish societies, the

standardized scale by D. Banerjee (1962) was used which covered the attitudes regarding marriage, equality of opportunities for women, equal rights for sex education, love marriage, widow re-marriage etc. These were responded on a 5-point scale of 20 questions starting from "very much important" to "not at all important". The responses obtained from the teachers were scored in accordance with the manual. (Detailed scale is appended)

Achievement motivation. To ascertain the achievement motivation of women university teachers of India and Spain, a standardized questionnaire by Shantamany and Hafeez (1968) has been used. A completion test with 50 sentences each of which has three alternatives, A, B and C and the subject has to indicate the alternative she generally prefers.

By totalling the number of achievement related items that have been indicated in the keyed direction each triad has one achievement item.

Work value inventory. To ascertain the type of work values of women teachers of both countries, a standardized questionnaire by A. Vasantha (1971) was used. The inventory had 14 questions and separate scoring for each value area can be obtained by summation of weighted responses for 5, 4, 3, 2, 1 on the 5-point scale.

PILOT STUDY

All the above scales and tools for data collection were tested out in a pilot study on a sample of 10 teachers which included 3 Spanish teachers and 7 from India. A few of the questions were reworded so as to give the same meaning to both Indian and Spanish teachers.

All the instruments were translated into Spanish language first by experts and again the translated Spanish material were asked to be retranslated into English so as to make sure that the meaning conveyed by the translated material was the same as the original test.

After making sure that the tools were adequate for conducting the final study, the later was undertaken.

SOCIODEMOGRAPHIC, SOCIOECONOMIC

AND CULTURAL FACTORS:

A comparison between Indian and
Spanish women university teachers

The present study set out the objective of ascertaining whether the women university teachers in India and Spain in any way varied between themselves in regard to their sociodemographic factors, their socioeconomic status and other typical characteristic features concerned with their profession via-a-vis, their family and household duties.

Using a few standardized psychological instruments and a few devised questionnaires, information on the above mentioned factors were gathered from a sample of 72 Indian and Spanish women university teachers.

SOCIODEMOGRAPHIC FACTORS

The sociodemographic factors in the present study include marital status, living status, number of members in the family and amenities at home.

A comparative analysis of each of the above factors between the Indian and Spanish teachers are presented in the present section.

AGE

Table 1 overleaf presents the distribution of Indian and Spanish teachers regarding the age factor.

TABLE 1: A comparison of the age factor between Indian and Spanish women university teachers.

	%	
	INDIA	SPAIN
Below 30	21.5	42.5
31 to 35	21.8	47.5
36 to 40	21.8	21.5
40 & above	43.75	22.5

$$\chi^2 = 9.02, \quad df = 3, \quad p < 0.05$$

From the above table following conclusions emerge:

- 1) There appears significantly more Spanish teachers who are younger in age as compared to Indian teachers.
- 2) If the age group is considered "Below 35" and "Above 35" years, the difference becomes more marked with approximately 60 % of Spanish teachers being "Below 35" and 60 % of Indian teachers "Above 35" years.

MARITAL STATUS

Having presented the age group of the teachers it would be worthwhile to find out how many of them are married and have a family. Table 2 presents the details.

TABLE 2 : Marital status of Indian and Spanish women university teachers.

	%	
	INDIA	SPAIN
Unmarried	31.25	55
Married	65.6	30
Others	3.12	15

$$\chi^2 = 9.75, \quad df = 2, \quad p < 0.01$$

From the above analysis, it seems that only one-third of Indian teachers were unmarried whereas in Spain more than half of the teachers were unmarried. In this context also one obtains a diametrically opposite picture between Indian and Spanish teachers.

LIVING STATUS

Table 3 below presents the living status of Indian and Spanish teachers.

TABLE 3: A comparison of living status between Indian and Spanish women university teachers.

	%	
	INDIA	SPAIN
Living with husband and family	56.2	27.5
Living alone	28.12	17.5
Living with parent's family	12.5	47.5
Living with children only	3.12	7.5

$$\chi^2 = 12.06, \quad df = 3, \quad p < 0.01$$

From the above table the following conclusions emerge;

- 1) Between the Indian and Spanish women university teachers there are significantly more married persons amongst the former as compared to those in Spanish universities.
- 2) The high percentage of women university teachers in Spain living with parents (47 %), appears significantly higher than that obtained in India (12.5 %). It is important to note here that the "Living alone" category, in India refers to women living in hostels, whereas in Spain it refers to living on ones own or rented accomodation and to

take up the responsibility also for running the household alone. Another important feature is that the "Living with parents" category is very high in Spain (47 %). That is because of the delay of the age of marriage and for the educational exigencies in the industrialized society.

NUMBER OF MEMBERS IN THE FAMILY

Having presented the living status of Indian and Spanish teachers, the present section presents the number of members in the family.

TABLE 4: Number of members in the family. A comparison of Indian and Spanish women university teachers.

N° members in the family	%	
	INDIA	SPAIN
Only one	18.75	17.5
Two	21.8	17.5
Three to six	37.5	55
Six to ten	6.25	2.5
Ten & above	18.75	0
Not available	6.25	7.5

$$\chi^2 = 5.73, \text{ df} = 5, \text{ p} < 0.50$$

From the above analysis, it seems that there is no significant difference regarding the number of members in the family between Indian and Spanish women teachers. This may be due to the fact that in the urban areas of both countries, and especially in the educated classes of India, the number of members in a family does not generally exceed six members.

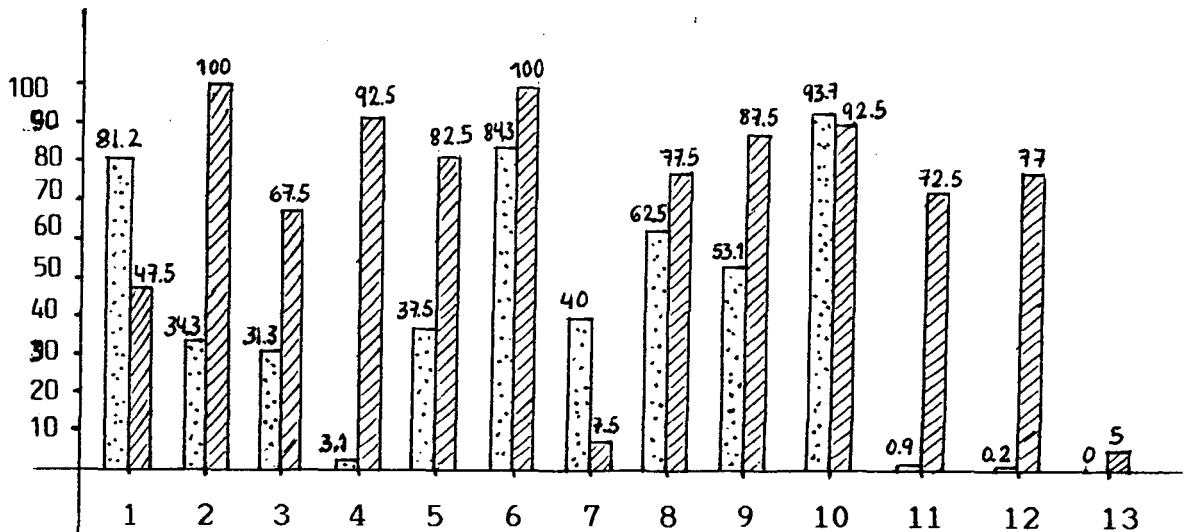
AMENITIES AT HOME

Regarding the facilities that Indian and Spanish women university teachers have at home, the same is presented in the form of bar diagram (FIG 1). The co-ordinates represents the different amenities at home which are presented below.

FIG 1: A comparison of amenities at home between Indian and Spanish women university teachers.

- | | |
|--------------------|---------------------------|
| 1. Servants | 7. Air conditioner |
| 2. Washing machine | 8. Stereo |
| 3. Vacum cleaner | 9. Car |
| 4. Dish washer | 10. T.V. |
| 5. Cooking range | 11. V.C.R. |
| 6. Refrigerator | 12. Own house |
| | 13. Other (computer etc.) |

 India
 Spain



It is interesting to note that the percentage of servants to work for the family, is significantly higher, and almost double in India as compared to that of Spain. This may be due to the fact that India has a large population and human labour is quite cheap, whereas Spain has relatively a very low population (38 million) and human labour is very expensive and so, Spanish people generally do their household work on their own.

It is equally interesting to observe that in Spain as compared to India, two to three times more respondents had washing machine, dish washer, cooking range, car, V.C.R. and own house. The country of Spain being cool they do not need an air conditioner and so, the percentage of teachers having air conditioner perhaps is almost negligible as compared to India. In all other aspects both Indian and Spanish women teachers appear to be more or less equal.

SOCIOECONOMIC AND EDUCATIONAL STATUS

Having described the sociodemographic factors in the preceding section, the following section presents a comparison between Indian and Spanish teachers regarding their socioeconomic status (income), their husband's income, their educational status and their occupation in the university.

INCOME

In this section the income has been classified in three categories, that is, "Low", "Middle" and "High", and the equivalence of Spanish Pesetas to Indian Rupees has been referred to American Dollars as given in the conversion noted below. The Spanish currency is PESETA (P_s), whereas the Indian is RUPEE (Rs).

\$ 1 = 109 ₧

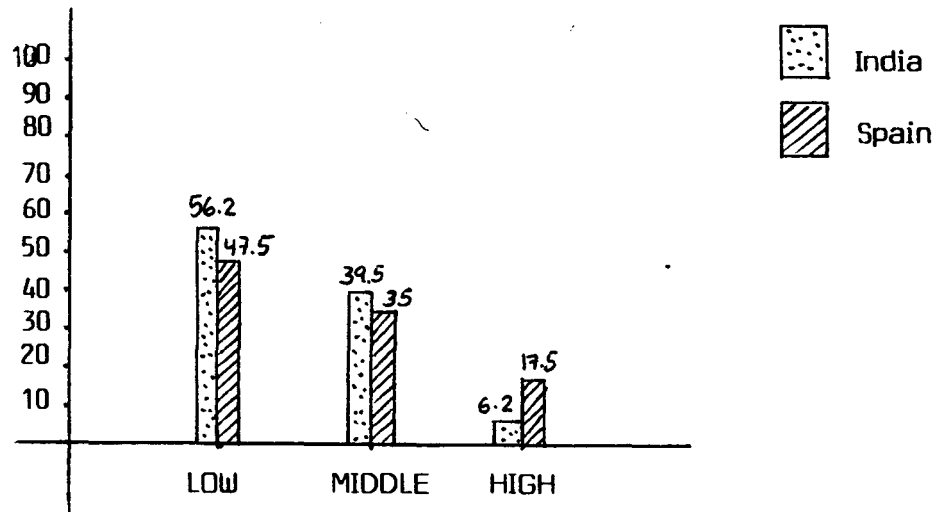
\$ 1 = Rs 17/-

On the basis of the above categorization, the income has been classified into the categories as follows:

	PESETAS (DOLLARS)	RUPEES
Low	80.000 to 100.000 (\$ 500 to 1000)	Rs. 3000/ to 5000/
Middle	100.000 to 200.000 (\$1000 to 2000)	Rs. 5000/ to 7000/
High	200.000 & above (\$ 2000 & above)	Rs. 7000/ & above

Using the above classification, an attempt was made to compare the Indian and Spanish women teachers' income, their husband's income, their educational and occupational levels. This are presented in FIG 2,3,4 and 5 in the following section under the respective headings. Below, FIG 2, presents the income of Indian and Spanish teachers.

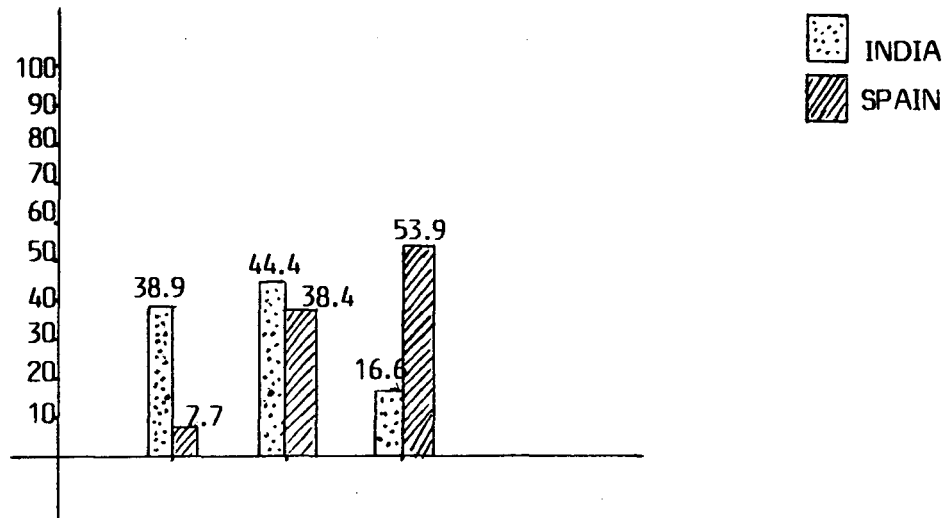
FIG 2: A comparison of the income between Indian and Spanish women university teachers.



HUSBAND'S INCOME

Having presented the Indian and Spanish university teachers' income, this section presents their husband's income. The FIG below gives the percentages.

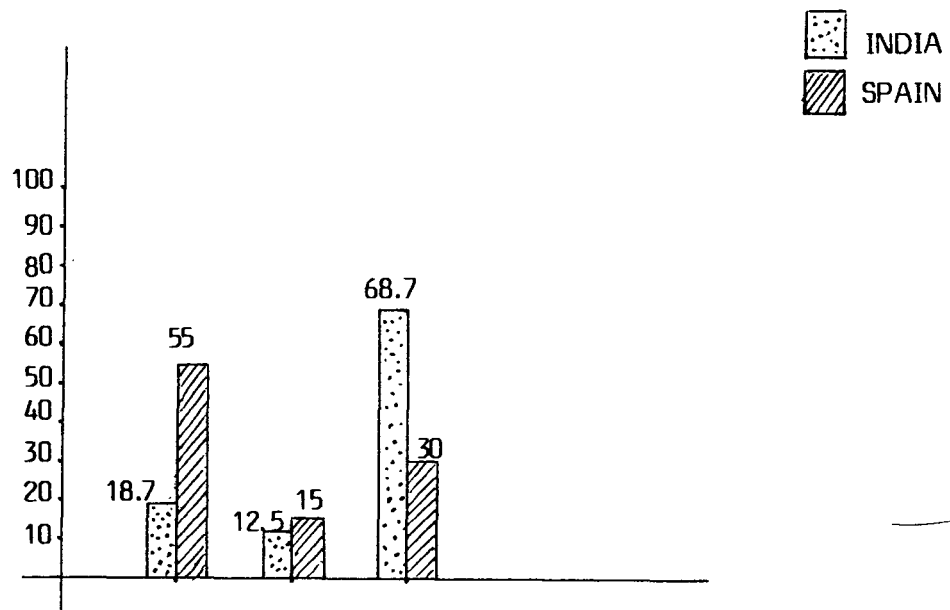
FIG: A comparison of husband's income between Indian and Spanish women university teachers



EDUCATIONAL LEVEL

This section presents the difference between Indian and Spanish teachers regarding the educational level which has been classified into three categories, that is, M.A., M. Phil, and Ph.D. The figure below give the details in percentages.

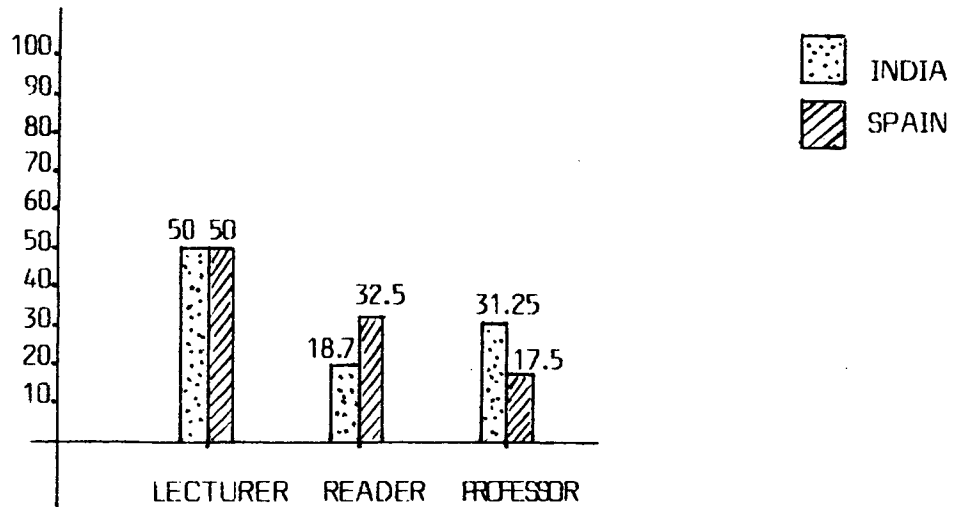
FIG. 4: A comparison between Indian and Spanish teachers regarding the educational level



OCCUPATION

In this section an attempt was made to compare the difference between Indian and Spanish women university teachers regarding their occupation in the university.

FIG 5: A comparison of Indian and Spanish teachers regarding their occupation in the university.



Having presented the above FIG. (2, 3, 4 & 5), the following inferences may be drawn:

1. As regards income level (FIG. 2) it is interesting to note that in the first level, that is Rs. 3000/- to 5000/-, Indian teachers had a significantly higher percentage, whereas there were larger percent of Spanish who fell in the higher income category, that is Rs. 7000/- and above. In the middle level of Rs. 5000/- to 7000/- it seems that almost equal percentage of Indian and Spanish teachers were drawing salaries in this category.
2. Regarding the husband's income of Indian and Spanish teachers who are married (FIG 3), it is interesting to note that there is a significant difference in the "Low" income level

were Indian teachers have a very high percentage as compared to the Spanish teachers. In the "Middle" income level, there was no statistically significant difference, whereas in the "High" level there were significant larger percentage of Spanish teachers as compared to Indian teachers.

3. Regarding the educational level (FIG. 4) there was a significant difference in the percentage of Indian and Spanish teachers who held "M.A." and "Ph.D" degrees. More specifically there were significantly more percent of Indian than Spanish teachers who had "Ph.D." degrees, whereas there were significantly more percentage of Spanish than Indian teachers who had "M.A." degree.
4. As for the designation in the university, 50% of both Indian and Spanish teachers who were working as "Lecturers", whereas there appeared a significant difference between the two groups of teachers in the other two levels. That is, Indian teachers had a higher percentage in the "Professor" category as compared to Spanish who were more in the "Reader" category

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN EDUCATIONAL LEVEL AND SALARY

Having presented the difference in the income, education and occupation of the Indian and Spanish women teachers and of their husband's income, an attempt has been made in the following section to find out how many teachers with higher level qualifications are drawing lower level salaries and how many with lower and middle level education are drawing higher level salaries; and within this, is there any difference which is significant between Indian and Spanish teachers. Such type of comparison led to in all

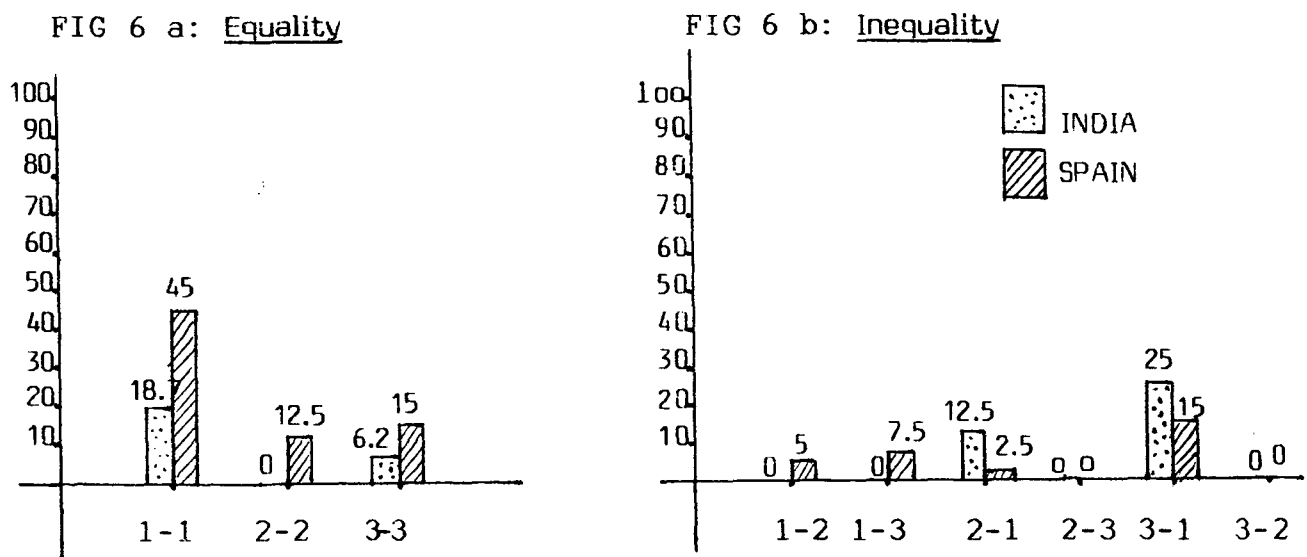
nine categories as follows:

1. M.A. level education and drawing Rs. 3000/- to 5000/- (1-1)
2. M.A. level education and drawing Rs. 5000/- to 7000/- (1-2)
3. M.A. level education and drawing Rs. 7000/- & above (1-3)
4. M.Phil level education and drawing Rs.3000/ to 5000/- (2-1)
5. M.Phil level education and drawing Rs.5000/ to 7000/- (2-2)
6. M.Phil level education and drawing Rs.7000/- & above (2-3)
7. Ph.D.level education and drawing Rs. 3000/- to 5000/- (3-1)
8. Ph.D.level education and drawing Rs. 5000/- to 7000/- (3-2)
9. Ph.D.level education and drawing Rs. 7000/- & above (3-3)

If 1-1, 2-2, and 3-3 could be taken as a balance between educational level and salary drawn, the remaining six categories would indicate an imbalance between these two variables

FIG 6,a and 6.b present the difference between Spanish and Indian women university teachers in regard to the balance and imbalance between educational level and salary drawn.

FIG 6: Educational level and salary drawn: A comparison between Indian and Spanish women university teachers



From the previous figures the following inferences may be drawn:

1. Regarding the FIG 6-a, it is very interesting to note that the balance between educational level and salaries of Indian teachers, that is, "1-1", "2-2" and "3-3" is very low whereas in Spain it is significantly higher especially in the "1-1" category where Indian teachers had 18.75% and Spanish teachers 45%. Though in the "2-2" category, 12.5% of Spanish teachers who were M.Phil and drawing Rs. 5000/- to 7000/- is worth noting.
2. An attempt was made to find out if the income level of the teachers was compatible with their educational qualifications. The FIG 6-b, presents the details. From the figure, it is seen that the highest educational qualification (Ph.D) and lower income are obtained significantly more amongst Indian teachers than among Spanish teachers.

Thus one may conclude to an extent that the balance between educational qualifications and salaries is rather relatively poorer amongst Indian teachers as compared to Spanish teachers.

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN EDUCATIONAL LEVEL AND OCCUPATION

In this section an attempt has been made to find out how many teachers with higher level qualifications had a lower occupation in the university and how many with lower and middle educational level had a higher occupation; and within this if there is any difference between Indian and Spanish teachers. Such comparison led to in all nine categories.

1. M.A. level education and Lecturer category (1-1)
2. M.A. level education and Reader category (1-2)
3. M.A. level education and Professor category (1-3)
4. M. Phil level education and Lecturer category (2-1)
5. M. phil level education and Reader category (2-2)
6. M. Phil level education and Professor category (2-3)
7. Ph. D. level education and Lecturer category (3-1)
8. Ph. D. level education and Reader category (3-2)
9. Ph. D. level education and Professor category (3-3)

If 1-1, 2-2 and 3-3 could be taken as a balance between educational level and occupation the remaining six categories would indicate an imbalance between these two variables.

FIG 7-a and 7-b presents the difference between Indian and Spanish women university teachers in regard to the balance and imbalance between educational level and occupation in the university.

FIG 7: Educational level and occupation. A comparison between Indian and Spanish women university teachers.

FIG 7-a: Equality

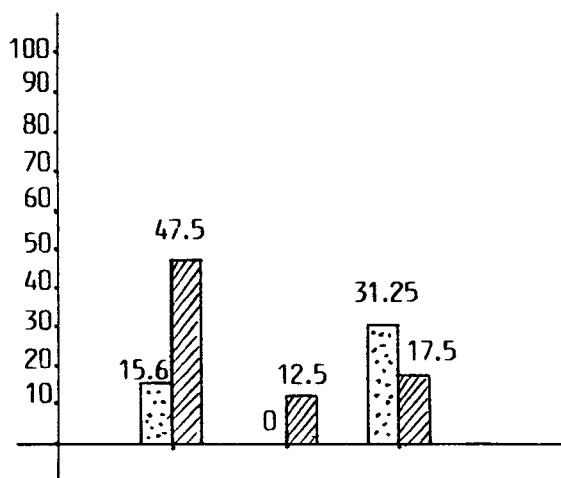
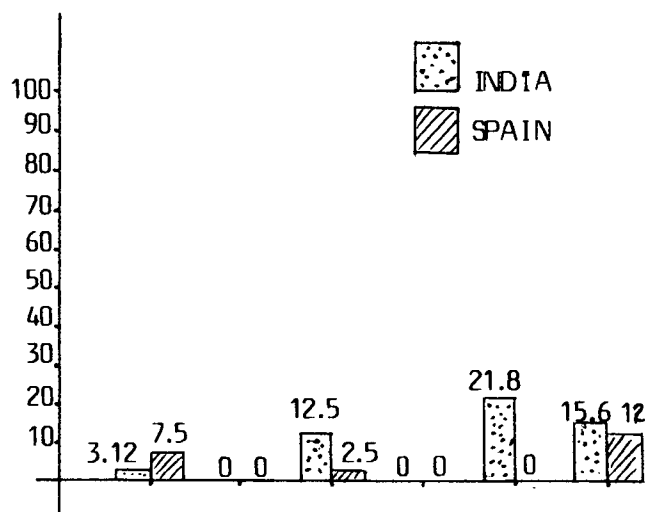


FIG 7-b: Inequality



From the above graphs, following conclusions emerge:

- a) In FIG 7-a, is observed that Indian teachers had significantly higher percentage in the "1-1" and "2-2" categories, whereas Spanish teachers had higher percentage in the "3-3" category.
- b) From the FIG 7-b, it is seen that the highest educational qualification and lower occupation is significantly higher among Indian teachers as compared to Spanish teachers.

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN OCCUPATION AND INCOME

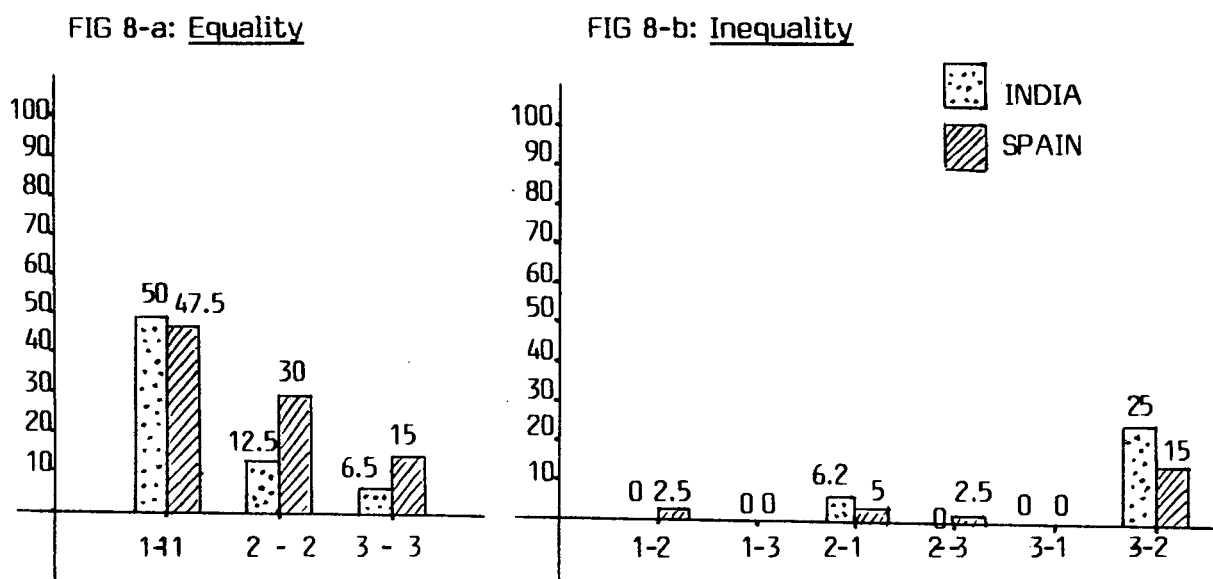
In this section an attempt was made to find out how many teachers with higher occupation in the university had a lower income and how many with lower and middle occupation had a higher income; and within this if there any difference between Indian and Spanish teachers. Such comparison led to in all nine categories as follows:

1. Lecturer and drawing Rs 3000/- to 5000/- (1-1)
2. Lecturer and drawing Rs. 5000/- to 7000/- (1-2)
3. Lecturer and drawing Rs. 7000/- & above (1-3)
4. Reader and drawing Rs. 3000/- to 5000/- (2-1)
5. Reader and drawing Rs. 5000/- to 7000/- (2-2)
6. Reader and drawing Rs. 7000/- & above (2-3)
7. Professor and drawing Rs. 3000/- to 5000/- (3-1)
8. Professor and drawing Rs. 5000/- to 7000/- (3-2)
9. Professor and drawing Rs. 7000/- & above (3-3)

If 1-1, 2-2 and 3-3 could be taken as a balance between occupation and income, the remaining six categories would indicate an imbalance between these two variables.

FIG 8-a and 8-b present the difference between Indian and Spanish women university teachers in regard to the balance and imbalance between occupation in the university and income.

FIG 8: Occupation and income. A comparison between Indian and Spanish women university teachers



From the above figures following conclusions emerge:

1. Regarding the FIG 8-a, that is the balance between occupation and income, very high percentages has been obtained in both Indian and Spanish teachers. There was no difference between the two countries, though in the "2-2" category Spanish teachers had a higher percentage than Indian teachers.
2. In the same way, in FIG 8-b, no significant difference has been obtained. The only category which expressed a significant difference was the "3-2" category, where Indian teachers had a higher percentage than Spanish teachers.

CULTURAL DIFFERENCES BETWEEN INDIAN AND SPANISH
WOMEN UNIVERSITY TEACHERS

As mentioned elsewhere in this thesis, the main objective has been to ascertain the typical characteristic features of Indian and Spanish women university teachers regarding their way of managing the household affairs and their view points and feelings related to their professional life. Also in this section an attempt has been made to find out the women university teachers' opinion in connection with the consequences of women employment outdoors.

TIME SPENT IN DOMESTIC WORK

Since women university teachers were involved in a full time job of teaching and research in the university, it was thought worthwhile to ascertain how much time they spent in household work, and whether there existed any difference between Indian and Spanish teachers regarding this aspect. Table 5 below presents the details.

TABLE 5: Time spent in household work

	%	
	INDIA	SPAIN
Time spent in domestic work	84	62
Did not spend time in domestic work	15	37

$$\chi^2 = 9.02, \quad df = 1, \quad p < 0.05.$$

From the above analysis one may infer the following:

1. Only about 16 % of Indian teachers as compared to 37 % of Spanish teachers reported that they did not spend time in household work. That is, most Indian women teachers spent their time in household work whereas two-thirds of Spanish women appeared to do so.

The above obtained differences were statistically significant in the sense that there were significantly more Indian teachers than Spanish who spent time in their household work.

The five Indian teachers who said that, they did not do any household, it was noted that all of them had servants to do the work for them at home. On the other hand, of the 15 Spanish teachers, two-thirds had a part-time servant and the remaining 6 had relatives at home who did the household work. This led to the next issue as to how much time they spent in household work.

As for the time devoted for work at home, the average time varied between 1 to 3 hours, with Indian teachers reporting that they spent minimum of 2 hours on household work, whereas Spanish teachers reported spending 1 to 3 hours every day. There appeared no significant difference between the teachers of the two countries in this regard.

To the question whether they took official assignments to do at home, Indian and Spanish teachers replied in the affirmative. As for the time they devoted at home for these assignments, there was no significant difference between Indian and Spanish teachers though, more than half

of the 30 Indian teachers reported to be devoting 2 to 3 hours on the assignments whereas 80 % of Spanish teachers appeared to be spending 2 to 5 hours per day on this work.

Not only the teachers brought official work home, but they also discussed official matters at home with their family members. In this regard also there was no significant difference between Indian and Spanish teachers, that is, 90 % of the teachers in both the samples said that they did so.

While in the Indian context only 38 % said that they discussed all sorts of matters with their family at home, the rest of the sample was proportionately distributed in the other categories, that is, "routine matters", "problem issue", "pleasant issues" and "specific incidents". In the case of Spanish teachers, three-fourths said that they discussed "all sorts of matters" with their family members. This shows relatively more openness and frankness amongst the Spanish as compared to Indian teachers in discussing varied matters with their family members.

Generally working in the university and also at home may leave relatively less time to pursue one's hobbies and interests. An attempt was made to find out if this was so in the case of university teachers. It was interesting to note that while 87 % of Indian teachers said they did so, only 69 % of Spanish said that they could pursue their hobbies despite office and household work. To the question how much time they devoted for their hobbies, almost three-fourths of the Spanish teachers said that they devoted less than one hour every day whereas the Indian teachers replied that they spent a "few hours every day", sometimes "twice in a week or even just "one day in a month" for these hobbies

DEVOTING TIME TO CHILDREN

There were in all 29 teachers who were married and had children of which only 26 teachers responded to this question. Of these 26 teachers, 16 were Indians and 10 were Spanish. In both of the groups three-fourths of teachers had said that helped children in their home work and thus appeared to devote considerable time for their children. Furthermore, it was also observed that Indian and Spanish teachers reported to be spending substantial amount of time with their family members. However, no conclusive picture emerges as the cell frequencies are too small to compute any statistical differences.

MODE OF SPENDING TIME

While the teachers reported spending considerable time with their family after returning from work, it was though worthwhile to ascertain how and in what manner the teachers spent their time at home after return from university. Table below presents the details.

TABLE 6: A comparison of Indian and Spanish university teachers regarding the manner they spent their time after coming back from work.

	%	
	INDIA	SPAIN
Doing household work	84	47
Completing the remaining work	71.8	70
Watching T.V.	62.5	62.5
Speaking with friends	31.25	40
Spending time with children	84.4*	81.8*
Spending time with husband	100*	90.9*
Listening to music	46.8	40
Hobbies	50	37

*The percentages refer to the women teachers who are married and had children. That is, 18 Indian teachers and 11 Spanish teachers.

From the above table the following conclusions emerge:

1. It is important to mention that each teacher spent her leisure time in more than one way. The differences emerge between Indian and Spanish teachers in the combination of different activities in which they spent time.
2. Equal percentage of Indian and Spanish teachers spent time watching T.V. (62.5 %) and completing the remaining office work (India 71 % and Spain 70 %).
3. While most of the Indian teachers (84 %) spent time doing household work, only about 47.5 % of Spanish teachers reported to be spending time in household work.
4. While nearly half of the Indian teachers reported listening to music, only 40 % of Spanish teachers reported doing so.
5. While most of the Indian teachers spent time with husband (100 %) and children (94 %) only 90 % and 81.8 % of their Spanish counterparts spent time with husband and children respectively.
6. On the other hand, there were nearly 40 % of Spanish teachers spending time with their neighbours and friends whereas only one-third of Indian teachers reported so.

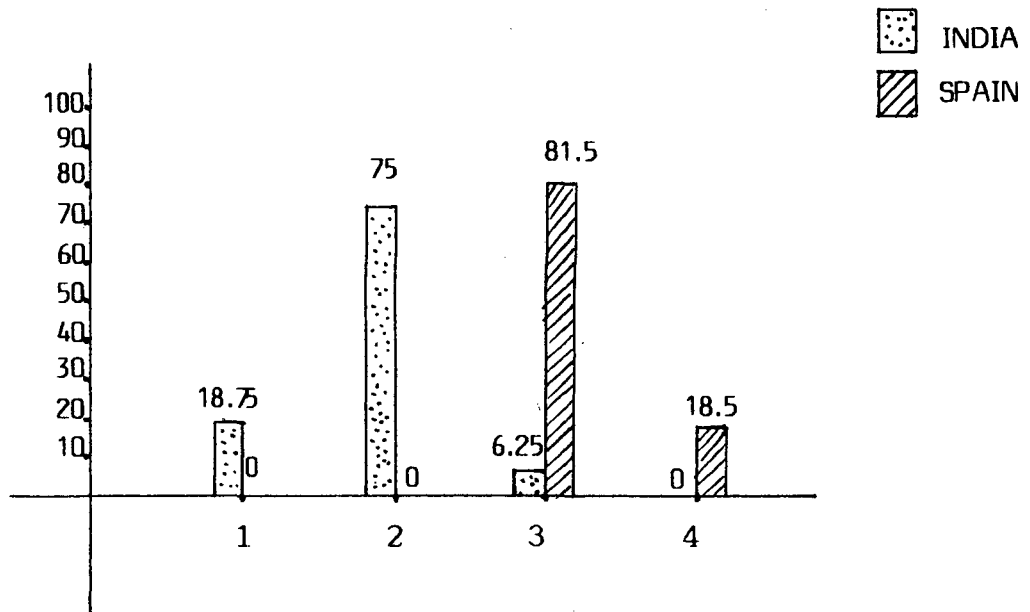
Thus there appeared considerable difference between Indian and Spanish teachers regarding their activities on which they spent their time.

When the number of days these teachers got holidays from work, in most cases, they had two days off in a week whereas in one-third of cases, they had only one day off. The distribution of teachers in terms of the holidays they got in a week, appeared to be more or less the same for both Indian and Spanish teachers.

MANNER OF SPENDING HOLIDAYS

Since the teachers in India and Spain had summer vacation and other long vacations, it was asked of them as to how they spent their holidays. The replies ranged from "household work", to "fine arts", to "sports", to "visiting friends", or "going on tours". The FIG below presents the details.

FIG 9: A comparison of Indian and Spanish teachers regarding the manner of spending holidays.



1. Household work
2. T.V., music, shopping
3. Visiting friends, tourism, sports
4. Completing the office work

From the above graph, one may infer the following:

1. Household work and music were not taken up at all by any of the Spanish teachers, whereas 75% of the Indian teachers

spent their holidays watching T.V., listening to music and doing shopping, and one-fifth of Indian teachers reported spending time on household work.

2. While no Indian teachers reported completing their office work during holidays, 17.5 % of Spanish teachers reported spending time completing their office work.
3. Most Spanish teachers went out to visit places (tourism) and practising sports during holidays. However only 6 % of Indian teachers appeared to have taken up any of these activities.

ATMOSPHERE AT THE PLACE OF WORK

An attempt was made to ascertain the perception of women university teachers regarding the atmosphere at the place of work where they are employed. While 97 % of Indian teachers said that the atmosphere at the place of work is congenial slightly lesser percent of Spanish teachers (90 %) expressed that the work atmosphere is congenial. Of the few who felt that the work atmosphere is not congenial, also advanced reasons for a negative atmosphere. The reasons included "male dominance", "high competition" and "poor interaction between the two sexes".

WORK RELATIONSHIP

An attempt was made to ascertain the relationship between Indian and Spanish teachers with their superiors, colleagues and subordinates. More than two-thirds of Indian teachers said that their relationship with superiors was

"good", whereas only 11 % felt that it was "very good" and 45 % said it was "neutral". These responses are presented in the table below.

TABLE 7: A comparison between Indian and Spanish teachers regarding their relationship with superiors, colleagues and subordinates

	%					
	INDIA			SPAIN		
	Very Good	Good	Neutral	Very Good	Good	Neutral
Superiors	11.53	73	15.4	24	51.3	24
Colleagues	13	67.7	19.35	23.7	65.8	10.52
Subordinates	30.76	54	15	22.2	69.4	8.33

From the above table the following inferences may be drawn:

1. Regarding the relationship with their superiors more than two-thirds of the Indian teachers replied that they had "good" relationship whereas only half of the Spanish teachers reported so.
2. As for the relationship between Indian and Spanish teachers with their colleagues said that they had "good" relations. It is interesting to note that while 20 % of Indian teachers had reported to have neither good nor poor relationship with their colleagues almost the same percent of Spanish teachers had reported "very good" relationship with their colleagues.
3. Regarding the relationship with the subordinates, only half the teachers said that they had good relations with their

subordinates whereas two-thirds of Spanish teachers reported so. While only 30 % of Indian teachers had very good relations with the subordinates, only 22 % of Spanish teachers said that they had very good relationship with their subordinates.

To the question if they enjoyed their work there was no significant difference between Indian and Spanish teachers in the sense that almost all of them except two teachers had said that they enjoyed their work. An attempt was made to ascertain if they wanted a change in their job and if so, what type of change they preferred. Only one of the two Indian teachers said that they wanted a change, whereas 14 % of Spanish teachers wanted a change. The reasons advanced by the three Spanish teachers for change was that the actual work was repetitive, and it required too much effort. The reasons for continuing in the present work was given by three Indian teachers who said that the present job was enjoyable and it afforded satisfaction.

OPPORTUNITIES FOR PROMOTION

An attempt was made to ascertain the available opportunities for promotion for the Indian and Spanish women university teachers in their respective universities. While two-thirds of Indian teachers said that they had enough opportunities for promotion, only slightly more than half the Spanish teachers felt so.

To the question if they were satisfied with the present status, all but one Indian teacher said that they were satisfied, whereas only two-thirds of Spanish teachers said that they were satisfied. On the remaining one-third who were

not satisfied with their status also offered certain suggestions to make it more satisfactory. While most of them wanted more promotional opportunities, the remaining expressed a desire to have better salary and tension free atmosphere.

As for rating their own accomplishments in their present job, there was no significant difference between Indian and Spanish teachers, even though relatively larger number of Indian teachers rated their performance as "good" to "very good", whereas only about 53 % of Spanish teachers did so. Not only rated their performance to be good, but most of them also said that they were able to carry out their responsibilities very satisfactorily at the office. It may be noted that of the only two Indian teachers who reported that they could not carry out their responsibilities satisfactorily, the reasons advanced by them were (a) the university was at far of distance from their residence and (b) lack of facilities within the university.

As for the perception of the university teachers regarding their how others rated their work in the university, only one-sixth (16%) of both Indian and Spanish teachers perceived their work being rated very highly by others in the office. Nearly equal percent (42 %) felt that "most praised their work" and "there was no specific feelings about their work". The Indian and Spanish teachers did not differ significantly in this regard.

SOCIAL LIFE

An attempt was made to ascertain the social life of Indian and Spanish teachers, and it was found that the two groups did not differ significantly in this regard. In both the

cases only about 10 % to 14 % of teachers appeared to have had neither good or poor social life.

To the question if their work required socialising and meeting people, half the Indian teachers replied in the affirmative and the remaining in the negative, whereas 85 % of Spanish teachers replied in the affirmative.

REASONS FOR WORKING

When given a choice to work or not to work, all the Indian and Spanish teachers unanimously chose to work. When queried the reasons for choosing to work nearly 38 % said that they chose to work for supplementing the family income, one-fourth expressed that they chose to work because they wanted to use their talents and intelligence. Within this broad trend, all those who said that they chose to work for supplementing their family income were all Spanish teachers, whereas relatively more Indian than Spanish teachers appeared to work because they enjoyed working. To become financially independent and getting thus integrated into the society dominated by males, was expressed by more Spanish than Indian teachers.

To the question if women in general should go for work, all the respondents from both Indian and Spanish universities replied in the affirmative. The reasons advanced by them were as is presented in the table overleaf.

TABLE 8:A comparison of the reasons given by Indian and Spanish teachers why women should go for work.

	%	
	INDIA	SPAIN
Economic independence	35	24.4
Confidence, intelligence, aim in life	39	38
Right to work like a citizen	10.2	12.2
Integration in society	13.5	17
There are no difference with men	2.7	0
Compart rights and obligations with men	0	7

$$\chi^2 = 4.8, \text{ df} = 4, \text{ p} < 0.05$$

Though the difference is not significant, it is interesting to note that whereas in the category of "economic independence" 35 % of Indian teachers had responded, only 24.4 % of Spanish teachers had offered this as a reason.

TREATMENT OF WOMEN TEACHERS

In this section, an attempt has been made to ascertain if Indian and Spanish women university teachers feel that they get the same level of treatment as their men colleagues. The analysis of the responses of teachers showed that Indian teachers felt that they had the same level of treatment whereas one half (56 %) of Spanish teachers perceived that it was not so. The reasons for feeling that there was an unequal treatment of women and men teachers were advanced by the respondents, and these have been grouped into six categories as given in the table overleaf.

TABLE 9: A comparison of the reasons of Indian and Spanish teachers regarding the unequal treatment of women in the university

	%	
	INDIA	SPAIN
Cultural values	0	23
Women are not treated seriously	40	0
Men never accept a woman as a superior	20	0
Male dominance	0	46
Discrimination in professions	20	23
Women work very hard to stablish their competency on jobs	20	7.8

From the above table the following conclusions emerge:

1. Though the difference does not appear to be statistically significant, it is interesting to observe that whereas no Indian teacher has taken the "cultural values" and "male dominance" categories, 23 % and 46 % of Spanish teachers had considered these factors as important for unequal treatment. On the other hand, no Spanish teacher advanced the two causes (Table 10) that "men feel women are incapable" and "only very capable women are accepted" whereas 12 % and 8 % respectively of Indian teachers had felt so.

TABLE 10: A comparison of Indian and Spanish teachers regarding the causes for unequal treatment

	%	
	INDIA	SPAIN
Male dominance	29.4	14.5
Men feel women are incapable	11.7	0
Biological reasons. Prejudices	14	21
Social values	35	49.2
Only very competent women are accepted	8	0
Competition	0	15

From the Table 10 the following conclusions emerge:

1. The categories "men feel women are incapable" and "only very competent women are accepted" were not taken up at all by any of the Spanish teachers whereas 11.7 of Indian teachers said that "men feel that women are incapable", and 8 % said that "only very competent women are accepted".
2. While no Indian teachers reported "competition" as a cause for unequal treatment of women in certain jobs, 15 % of Spanish teachers felt that this was an important cause.
3. Whereas half of Spanish teachers responded that the social values were the main cause for unequal treatment in certain jobs, only one-third of Indian teachers said so.
4. One-fifth of Indian teachers responded "male dominance" as a cause for unequal treatment. In this regard only 14.5 % of Spanish teachers felt so.
5. "Biological reasons and prejudice" were advanced as the main cause for unequal treatment of women by 20 % of Spanish teachers, whereas only 14 % of Indian teachers advanced this cause.

While there had been a feeling amongst both Indian and Spanish women teachers that the men and women teachers are not treated at par with each other, it was thought worthwhile to find out the degree to which they felt that these two groups were treated equal. The responses obtained were grouped into four categories, namely (a) "They are both treated equally in most aspects"; (b) "They are treated equally in some important aspects"; (c) "They are both treated equal in very few aspects" and (d) "They are treated unequally in most aspects".

The analysis of the responses of both Indian and Spanish women university teachers showed that 50% of both these groups of teachers said that they are being treated equally in some important aspects. The remaining 20 Indian teachers and 16 Spanish teachers were almost equally distributed in the other three categories of responses. This goes to show that whether Spanish or Indian teachers they appear to feel almost the same in regard to the different aspects on which the women and men are treated equally.

- CHAPTER 5 -

ATTITUDE, MOTIVATION AND
WORK VALUE.

A comparison of Indian and Spanish
women university teachers

Having presented in the previous chapter the results of sociodemographic, socioeconomic and cultural factors and the differences thereof between women university teachers of India and Spain, the present chapter compares the attitude towards society, motivation and work value of Indian and Spanish women university teachers.

ATTITUDE TOWARDS SOCIETY

A standardized attitude scale by D. Banerjee (1962) was administered to women teachers of India and Spain to ascertain what type of attitude they had towards society. The scoring has been obtained by sumating rankings, so that the positive and negative direction of the results are obtained as indicate below:

Scoring from 20 to 100:

- Very much important.....20 to 35 Negative att.
- Very important.....36 to 60
- Important.....62 to 67 Neutral att.
- Not very important.....68 to 83
- Not at all important....84 to 99 Positive att.

TABLE 1

A comparison of Indian and Spanish women university teachers
regarding their attitude towards society

INDIA (N = 32)		SPAIN (N = 40)		Value of t
Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
60.78	7.05	62.47	8.76	- 0.87

It is interesting to note that both Indian and Spanish teachers appear to have a neutral attitude towards society with a mean of 60.78 and 62.47 respectively. In other words, they appear to have neither a positive nor negative attitude towards society. In this regard there appeared no significant difference ($t = 0.87$) between the women teachers of the both countries.

ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION

The achievement motivation scale was standardized by V.S. Shantamani and A. Hafeez (1968) and it was administered to Indian and Spanish women university teachers. There are 50 questions with 3 alternatives and the subjects had to indicate the alternative they generally preferred. The scoring ranged from 0 to 50 by summing up the scores. To ascertain the direction of results, that is whether the teachers had high or low achievement motivation, the score obtained were categorized as following

Scoring from 0 to 50:

- 0 to 10 Low achievement motivation
- 11 to 20
- 21 to 30 Average achievement motivation
- 31 to 40 High achievement motivation
- 41 to 50

Table 2 below presents a comparison of Indian and Spanish teachers' achievement motivation.

TABLE 2
A comparison of Indian and Spanish women university teachers
regarding their achievement motivation

INDIA (N = 32)		SPAIN (N = 40)		
Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Value of t
20.90	4.49	18	4.42	1.96

As for motivation to achieve or do something of excellence, it is seen that in both countries, women teachers appear to be having somewhat low achievement motivation. Within the low motivation, Indian teachers seems to have more positive motivation to achieve with a mean of 20.90, as compared with their counterparts in Spain with a mean of 18. This difference between the women teachers of the two countries is statistically significant at 0.05 level ($t=1.96$).

WORK VALUES

A standardized work value inventory by A. Vasantha (1971) has been administered to women university teachers of India and Spain to ascertain the type of work values they had.

The inventory was rated on a 5 point scale and the order of this rating was as follows:

Scale point	Importance of value	Quality of value
1	Very much important	Positive
2	Very important	Positive
3	Important	Neutral
4	Not very important	Negative
5	Not at all important	Negative

The responses of the teachers were scored for each value item and the same are presented in Table 3 overleaf.

In Table 3, it is interesting to observe that the work values which have a significant difference between Indian and Spanish women teachers are 2, 4, 7 and 11, that is "continued employment", "work in which the fellow workers are the kind of people you would like to work with", "work in which you do many

different things on the job", and "work in which you have the satisfaction of having helped people".

TABLE 3

Mean, SD, and t value for work value scores of
Indian and Spanish women university teachers

Items	INDIA		SPAIN		Value of t
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
1	3.18	1.31	2.70	1.82	1.54
2	2.03	1.17	2.67	1.25	-2.13
3	2.50	1.06	2.60	1.10	-0.38
4	1.60	0.73	1.30	0.73	2.05
5	1.87	1.11	1.55	1.05	1.28
6	2.12	0.95	1.72	1.009	1.66
7	2.87	0.97	1.55	1.95	5.79
8	1.34	0.53	1.32	0.55	0.15
9	1.56	1.02	1.37	0.83	1.00
10	1.40	0.62	1.22	0.82	1.28
11	1.84	0.71	1.37	0.82	2.47
12	1.81	1.02	1.45	0.89	1.71
13	1.56	0.60	2.00	1.04	-1.83
14	2.06	1.01	1.82	0.92	1.09

The above work value statements were then grouped into six categories, as follows:

- Theoretical value (Q, 1 and 3)
- Economic value (Q, 2, 12 and 13)
- Aesthetic value (Q, 5, 6 and 11)
- Social value (Q, 4 and 14)
- Moral value (Q, 8, 9 and 10)
- Political value (Q, 7)

These six values need further explanation.

Theoretical value in this context is taken to refer to what would and could exist theoretically. For instance how one attaches importance in organising others activities and expect or anticipate novel or unexpected situations. Because such things exist in work situations, the individual works and also has a value for work. Thus such a value could be described as theoretical value. In this inventory, items 1 and 3 appear to indicate the theoretical value and the scores of each teacher on these two items have been added and averaged to obtain the final score on theoretical value.

Economic value refers to how one attaches importance to continued employment, to the opportunity to improve skills and more further on the job and how to combine career and good family life. In this context, items 2, 12 and 13 appear to describe the economic value. The scores has been added and averaged to obtain the final score on economic value.

Aesthetic value is described by the items 5,6 and 11 which refer to good conditions of work: not too hot, or not too cold, quick, clear, etc, to compatibility with one's hobbies and interests, and work in which one could obtain satisfaction of having helped people. These values could be defined as aesthetic value. The final scores has been obtained by summing and averaging the individual scores of each teacher on these three items.

Social value is taken to refer to how one attaches importance to work in which the fellow workers are the kind of people one would like to work with, and work in which one could win the respect and admiration of people. This value could be described as social value. In this inventory the items which appear to indicate the social value are 4 and 14. The final scores have been obtained by summing the individual scores each teacher and obtained the mean value by average.

Moral value in this context, refers to how one person gives importance to work in which one can express one's own ideas, talents and skills, to work in which one can invent new things, design new products and develop new ideas, and obtain also personal satisfaction on the job. In this inventory, items 8, 9 and 10 refer to these three aspects, which can be described as moral value. The scores of each teacher have been added and averaged to obtain the final score on moral value.

Political value refers to how one person attaches importance to work in which one does many different things on the job. This value in this inventory is defined by the item 7. The final scores have been obtained, as above, by summing and averaging the individual scores of each women university teachers of both countries.

Having defined the six work values, the Table below presents the mean, standard deviation and t value of the above mentioned values of Indian and Spanish teachers.

TABLE 4
Mean, SD and t value of Indian and Spanish
women university teachers

Work values	INDIA		SPAIN		t value
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
Theoretical	2.73	1.03	2.67	1.32	0.21
Economic	1.79	0.64	2.03	0.84	-1.41
Aesthetic	2.03	0.75	1.49	0.76	1.00
Social	1.85	0.74	1.56	0.71	1.81
Moral	1.43	0.54	1.28	0.46	1.36
Political	2.87	1.11	1.55	0.92	5.73

From the above table (Table 4) the following inferences may be drawn:

1. By and large there appears no significant difference in the work values of Indian and Spanish women university teachers except in political values. In this regard, Spanish teachers have shown significantly high political values than Indian teachers, which in turn shows the high political awareness amongst the Spanish teachers as compared to their Indian counterparts.
2. The Spanish teachers have also shown higher work values related to all other values except economic related aspects, as compared to the Indian teachers, though these differences do not appear statistically significant.

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ATTITUDE TOWARDS SOCIETY AND MOTIVATION

Until now an attempt was made to ascertain the typical attitudes and motivation of the teachers of the two countries. While they appear to have a neutral attitude and somewhat a lower level of achievement motivation, it was considered worthwhile to find out if there exists any relationship between attitude and motivation. That is, if a teacher has a high motivation, does she also have a positive attitude towards society and viceversa?

For this purpose, a correlational analysis was carried out by computing Kendall Rank Coefficient of correlation. The computed values are presented in the Table below.

TABLE 5
Kendall coefficient of correlation between Indian and
Spanish women university teachers

	INDIA	SPAIN
τ	0.028	-0.009

From the above analysis it appears that there is no correlation between attitude towards society and achievement motivation in both the countries.

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ATTITUDE TOWARDS SOCIETY AND WORK VALUE

An attempt was made to ascertain the correlations between attitude and work value, taking the six categories of values as presented in the previous section.

Table below presents the Kendall correlation between the Indian and Spanish women university teachers, obtained by ranking both scores.

TABLE 6

Kendall coefficient of correlation between attitude towards society and work value of Indian and Spanish women university teachers

	INDIA	SPAIN
Theoretical	0.32	-0.079
Economic	0.25	-0.14
Aesthetic	0.33	-0.055
Social	0.31	-0.017
Moral	0.17	-0.038
Political	0.16	-0.009

From the above Table, it is interesting to note that whereas for Indian teachers there is positive and somewhat light correlation between attitude towards society and theoretical, economic, aesthetic and social values. However almost negligible correlation was obtained among the Spanish women teachers amongst these variables.

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION AND WORK VALUE

In this section, an attempt was made to ascertain the correlations between motivation and the six work values presented in previous sections.

Table below presents the Kendall rank correlation between Indian and Spanish women teachers.

TABLE 7

Kendall correlation between achievement motivation and work value of Indian and Spanish women teachers

	INDIA	SPAIN
Theoretical	-0.078	-0.024
Economic	0.17	0.17
Aesthetic	0.07	0.11
Social	-0.17	0.066
Moral	-0.19	0.22
Political	-0.12	-0.009

From the above Table following conclusions emerge:

1. In regard to moral values related to motivation, there appears a positive correlation amongst teachers in Spain; but a negative correlation amongst Indian teachers. In other words in the Indian context, higher the moral values lower the motivation. This may perhaps be explained in the sense that in India, generally there is more deterministic tendencies due to the religious preachings. This might have brought in the negative correlation, though however small.
2. There is a positive correlation in both Indian and Spanish teachers between economic value and achievement motivation. That is, higher the economic value orientation, greater

the motivation which is understandable in general. A person wanting to earn more would also be motivated to work more so as to reach higher position and earn more. Perhaps this is one of the reason for the positive correlation between this two factors. Larger sample may yield more meaningful results.

CHAPTER 6

DISCUSSION

Having presented the results of the analysis of the data in the previous chapter, an attempt has been made in this chapter to discuss the above results in the light of other studies and research related to this topic.

Before embarking on the discussion it would be worthwhile to recapitulate the results obtained in this study. As mentioned elsewhere, the present study set out the main objective to compare the Indian and Spanish women university teachers on a number of sociodemographic, socioeconomic and other work and home related factors and to ascertain if there existed any difference between the two groups and if so, on what specific dimensions.

A total of seven hypotheses were formulated and put to empirical test, by using a questionnaire to study the socio-demographic dimension, as well socioeconomic and educational scale, and attitude, achievement motivation and work value scale.

The results categorically showed that there was a significant difference between the Indian and Spanish women university teachers on the following aspects:

(1) Sociodemographic factors. The Spanish women university teachers appeared to be younger than Indian teachers, most percent were unmarried and practiced a kind of life in which freedom and social life were the most important features. Their economic status which usually is high or very high, appeared to permit them to be independent of their family. Though the women teachers who were living independently is a minority, it is possible to find out those women teachers who maintain a high standard of living in a rented or one's own house which facili-

tated the freedom of choice in respect to the kind of partner they preferred. Hence, it is not strange to find a proportion of women who practiced the liberal union without marriage.

Also there was a sizeable proportion of women university teachers who were unmarried and living with their parents. The age of married women was delayed because the women preferred to settle down on a good and highly specialized job before they got married. The economic and competitive situation in Spain also compelled the new couples to wait for a stable job and a comfortable home life such as having one's own house, car, etc., and thus, they wait in the parents house until they are able to acquire all the necessary comforts before getting married.

On the other hand, most Indian teachers are married and they practice an orderly life, in the sense that they are restricted to the social stereotypes of Indian culture. They are household makers, wives, mothers and they have a professional life in their respective places of work. The social life is limited to the family and a handful of friends and mostly of the same sex.

According to the concept of the traditional Hindu marriage, "marriage was a social duty towards the family and the community, and there was little idea of individual interest" (Kapadia, 1958, p.168), whereas according to the contemporary Western point of view, marriage is a social contract which is essential for the fulfilment of personal needs and happiness. Whatever views are accepted for understanding the changing attitudes towards marriage, it is essential to know the change in the attitudes towards some of the important issues related to marriage. Some of them are:

-Types of marriage. Change in the attitude towards marriage is indicated by the change in their response pattern to the question, what type of marriage they thought was the best, and

which type they would prefer most. Merchant in his study (1935) had found that nearly 78 % of women supported marriage by choice. In Hate's study (1946), 74 % of her unmarried subjects opined that they would like to choose their partners themselves, whereas in a study by Fonseca (1966), 56 % of the educated female respondents reported the same.

In order to study scientifically the change in the attitudes of educated working women, two matched samples, each consisting of 500 of these women, were interviewed by P. Kapur with a gap of ten years (Love Marriage and sex, 1973).

In the first phase of the study, it was found that the educated working women not only disapproved of purely arranged marriage but the majority of them (63%) preferred love marriages. But then years later, in the second phase of the study, a change was observed not only in their attitudes towards love marriage but also towards arranged marriage which was preferred by more of them than was done ten years earlier.

This finding is supported by the fact that in ten years the total percentage of women preferring the various categories of arranged marriage has gone up from 37% to 52%, while the percentage of those preferring love marriage had gone down from 63% to 48%. A recent survey of the middle and upper class families in Delhi also pointed out that "arranged marriage are largely favoured".

Mehta's study (1970) of the Western-educated Hindu women also indicates similar findings. Cormack in her study (1960) also found prevalence of similar attitudes among the college students in India.

(2) Educational and Economic status. As for the educational and economic status of teachers, the results in this study showed that in India, women teachers have more qualification

than their counterparts in Spain. There appeared a correlation between age and income; however, there were contradictions in the salaries vis-a-vis the qualifications. That is though Indian teachers were highly qualified the salaries drawn by them were relatively less in terms of qualification. On the other hand, Spain, according to the occupation in the university, the salaries were very high and competitive, and the salaries were in consonance with the qualification and occupation.

The economic status and the amenities at home showed that the most important differences in favour of Spanish teachers were washing machine, dish washer, V.C.R, and own house; whereas in favour of Indian teachers were servants and air conditioner.

In teaching, women have proved very successful and have played an important professional role. There are a number of high-level post for which women are eligible and have been selected (principals of schools, supervisors, inspectors, directors of education, state ministers of education and so on. (Khandwala. V, 1971).

"The need of India today is leadership from among her own people; leadership, not of impulsive enthusiasm, not of prejudice but of matured judgement and conscientious conviction" (Marjorie A. Dimmit: Isabella Thoburn College, p.19). India needs teachers with a high sense of profession. Regreably, circumstances in the past India have tended to mount against professionalism. The educated woman of the present cannot accept misuse of education. She is determined to break the self perpetuating vicious 'karma' wheel of the present teacher. The educated woman of today has the responsibility for guiding this revolution of expectations in teaching standards.

The educated woman of today is already a substantial organiser. Monarch in her home, she has been used to organising

her household. As a working woman she has had to learn to organise her time. She must get to work on time, meet the demands that the teaching profession makes of her, and without neglecting her domestic responsibilities. Whether she is married or has to provide for her parents or has to do her own house-keeping, the teacher has household duties to attend to. To organise her day so as to find time for all the essentials of private and public life is the first step towards professionalism.

Professionalism has two vectors. The external vector is the force that acts upon the teacher's motivation in terms of the status and protection that are guaranteed to her by the land and the conditions of service. But the internal vector is even more compelling. The teacher's own intellect, her competence, her achievement motivation, and deep involvement in her job will significantly influence the degree of professionalism that she brings to her job. If either of these vectors is negatively disposed the result is incompetence. Both forces must be positive and should interact to produce the best results. Without this interaction and balance, the teacher of today will remain a problem to society instead of being a problem-solver for society.

The Kothari Commission (Report of the Education Commission, 1964-66, p. 46-66) has made several recommendations to improve the status of teachers and their working conditions. The Commission suggest better salary grades, study leave, retirement benefits, promotional prospects, residential facilities, possibilities for additional earnings, etc. The Commission also makes some suggestions for motivating the teachers through reinforcements such as advance increments for upgrading her qualifications and training. 'Happy teachers will, it is hoped, make better teachers' (Shipstone E.I, 1971).

Another important feature is the husband's occupation and his income. Whereas the husbands of married Spanish teachers draw high or very high salaries and had a good job, their counterparts in India had middle and low income salaries. This implies that if the standard of the family is measured by the income drawn by the head of the family, often the women university teachers' families in Spain appear to have higher social status and consideration than that in India.

It is well known that in India a woman's status is not dependent on how highly qualified and educated she is, or on what high level of occupation she holds, but her status is determined more by what qualification and occupation her husband has. Hence, the tendency in Indian women teachers to perceive her status more in terms of her husband's occupation and social status, than of her own. (Ghurye, 1950; Desai, 1957; Kapadia, 1955 & 1959; Kapur, 1972 & 1974; Sengupta, 1970)

Regarding the occupation in the university, in India, there are significantly more number of 'Professors' than in Spain.

All the above contradictions in regard to salary, occupation and educational level in India, may be due to the superpopulation of India and the high competence amongst the educated people to get a stable job as teacher in the university. In Spain the competition is not measured as intellectual but economical resources.

(3) Cultural Factors. As for the cultural factors between Indian and Spanish women teachers, a number of differences has been obtained.

3.1. Regarding the amount of time that Indian and Spanish teachers spent in domestic work, it is seen that Indians spent more time on this activity than Spanish teachers.

The notion that a woman's primary role is to bear, and rear children, and cook, clean and scrub at home, is not

peculiar to any one culture (Ann Oakley, 1974). Of relevance in India are the cultural and ideological variations with legitimise some kinds of individual behaviour and societal interaction, and not others. Notwithstanding regional differences however, it is generally believed that a woman's role in reproduction assigns to her a near-monopoly of instinctive qualities associated with mothering, nurturance and home management. However, emphasising the strength of umbilical cord can hardly be logically extended to denying the existence of other, nonbiologically conditioned qualities, nor the sharing of 'feminine' instincts by men (Ashis Nandy, 1980). Clearly, there are certain advantages to be had in stressing conventional role stereotypes; they not only facilitate male dominance in the field of public power, authority and decision-making but also ensure that women are safely at home taking care of the future generations of mothers and leaders. Even if women do work outside the home, the pervasive influence of an ideology which stresses the glorification of motherhood, successfully limits involvement with a non-home-oriented life (Malavika Karlenkar, 1988).

For this reason, the higher amount of time spent by the Indian teacher avoid the cognitive dissonance (Festinger) in the dual role of working woman and housewife. In the Spanish society, though this dissonance still exists, the new generation does not feel as much as in the past years. Also the amount of facilities that they can enjoy at home and the climate conditions of Madrid facilitates the combination of roles in an easier way that in India.

3.2. In relation to the manner in which Indian and Spanish teachers spent their holidays, it is observed that whereas Indian teachers prefer activities such as shopping, family chores, watching T.V. and visiting families, their Spanish counterparts being younger and in many cases unmarried, prefer acti-

vities such as sports, tourism and enjoyments which demand physical effort as well social relations.

3.3. As for social life both the groups, Indian and Spanish teachers did not differ significantly but it may be noted that the social life is perceived in a defferent way in India and Spain.

In India, to establish the feminine identity, a young girl should avoid masculine demeanour and behaviour. This identity, however, demands that she should be circumspect with men. A girl who has come of age has to be protected not only from men but also from herself. She has to be carefully guarded against even a remote resemblance to a woman of lose character, a woman of the street, someone her uses her charms to attract men. For a post-puberal girl whistling is not merely being tomboyist; it signifies amorous inclination. This is also true of the jingling of bangles. Smiling without purpose, and 'furtively', looking through the corners of one's eyes do not become 'well-bred' girl. Shyness and modesty are aproved of and considered as 'natural' feminine qualities. In North India the association of a curved posture with a dancing girl is so strong that even an unconscious act on the part of a girl of leaning against a wall or pillar brings forth rebuke from elders. In many parts of India girls were traditionally forbidden to look into a mirror or to comb their hair after the sunset since this acts were associated with a prostitute getting ready for her customers. Restrictions on the wearing of bright and gaudy clothes by unmarried girls are also rooted in similar associations (Leela Dube, 1988, p. 166).

All the above traditional concepts about a well-edu cated and feminine girl are not practised at present in India, especially amongst the educated and urban working woman, but the cultural phenomena can be extended to a general attitude of

passiveness, acceptance, and conformism which correlates with a traditional social life in which activity, self confidence and attractiveness, are a far cry of Indian womanhood.

For instance, social life in India is limited to visiting friends or an occasional gathering familiar or professional, etc, whereas in Spain social life is very important and it is part of everyday life on any individual. The structure of Spanish society is such that without an active social life one won't be able to lead a normal life. For example in Spain the marriage is not arranged by the parents as in India, there one has to find one's own partner and it is possible though social gatherings in the form of discoteques, parties, etc. This does not mean that an active part of social life cease to exist after the marriage on the contrary it goes on unhindered may be not so much of music or discotheque as when one is young. Since most of the womenfolk are also working and since economically independent they enjoy the same level of social life as men.

Social life at work is not limited to professional matters and also it is extended to persons of the other sex. For example, it is very usual after the working time to go with the colleagues to have a cup of coffee or a beer, with the simple purpose to converse of personal and social matters. No distinction of sex is made and nothing wrong happens if they are married, because usually they go in groups.

In that sense, the obtained non-significant difference between Indian and Spanish teachers is not comparable due to the fact of the different kind of socialization and enjoyment between Indian and Spanish population.

3.4 The satisfaction at the present status and the perception of opportunities for promotion differs significantly between Indian and Spanish teachers, where Indian teachers appears to be more satisfied and they perceive more opportunities for promotion than their Spanish counterparts.

In Ramu's study about the nature of job satisfaction in dual-earners-wives (DEWs), the findings showed that 65% of DEWs reporting 'extremely satisfied' or 'just satisfied', with the rest expressing varying degrees of dissatisfaction. An analysis of the degree of satisfaction of the respondents showed that the level of income and the type of occupation had more influence on job satisfaction than the level of education. That is, the higher the level of income, the greater was the degree of satisfaction. The respondents who expressed various degrees of dissatisfaction offered a variety of reasons such as domestic problems, economic need and monotonous work.

With regard to their chances of occupational mobility, in Ramu's study, they are restricted on account of their gender. In this study an attempt was made to inquire into parity in the wages of men doing the same work in office or factory, and also the opinion of the DEWs on promotions. On parity in wages, nearly all respondents reported that there was no discrimination in scales of pay. On promotion only 6.5% of the DEWs reported that discrimination on account of gender was common in the industries where they worked. In fact, nearly 6% indicated that their promotions were blocked by male superiors not because of their work performance, but because of gender (Ramu, G.N., 1989, p.36 & 74).

On the other hand, Spanish women university teachers feel less satisfaction and they have a perception for promotion lower than Indian teachers. The reasons given by them were that being young they want to promote more in their profession.

3.5. Treatment on jobs. To the question if Indian and Spanish women university teachers perceive an unequal treatment in their job, and if so, for what reasons, both the groups differ

in the kind of responses they offered. Whereas Indian teachers perceived more equality in the treatment, Spanish teachers perceived more inequality. The reasons of Indian teachers were more concret as 'women are not treated seriously' and 'men feel women are incapable', whereas the reasons of Spanish teachers were such as 'cultural values', 'men dominance', 'biological reasons' and 'prejudice'.

Historically, one of the critical factors that restrained middle-class wives in India from entering the labour force was the potential danger to their moral integrity posed by their working by men. In recent years, the inability of the middle-class husband's wages to maintain family solvency has brought about a change in the attitude towards women's work. The rise of cosmopolitan values has simultaneously made it possible for women to work with men without suspicion to their character or reputation from husbands or parents.

When the DEWs were asked 'how are you treated by your male co-workers in office of factory', they reported "very good" in 45.3%, "kind and understanding" in 27.8%, "do not discriminate" in 12.2%, and "resentful and nasty" 14.7% (Ramu, 1989, p.75). But a major contributing factor to the positive opinions about men co-workers, however, was the nature of the setting in which most DEWs worked.

(4) Attitude towards society. In regard to attitude towards society, both Indian and Spanish teachers appear to have a neutral attitude and no significant difference was observed.

In Mehta's study (1979), a comparison between students and teachers about their attitudes towards nine different variables, showed that out of the nine independent variables, four of them, marital status, religion, socioeconomic status and educational status of the respondents' families,

proved to be statistically non-significant. Rest of five variables give significant results, that is, age, family background (progressive and conservative), religious outlook, science and arts.

The results showed that younger the age of the respondents, the more progressive was the attitude. Respondents coming from very progressive families were found to be more liberal and modern in their attitudes than the respondents coming from less progressive families. Respondents coming from very conservative families were more traditional than the respondents coming from less conservative families. Less religious respondents were more modern and liberal in their attitudes than very religious respondents. Impact of Science on the respondents led them towards radical and progressive attitudes, whereas the Arts group proved to be more traditional and conservative.

(5) Achievement motivation. As for achievement motivation, both Indian and Spanish teachers had low achievement motivation. Within the low motivation, Indian teachers seem to have more positive motivation to achieve than Spanish teachers.

There are several motivational syndromes prominent among married working women. These can broadly be classified under three categories relating to (a) monetary or economic, (b) social role, and (c) personality. One who works under economic stress aims to procure the necessities of life whereas one who works to raise the standard of living does so for securing additional comforts. Highly educated women who work as lecturers, doctors and others, state that due to high cost of living they are not able to save something which is necessary for a safety margin.

In Kala Rani's study (1976, p. 6 & 62), about 150 (minimum matriculate) from educated married working women in

the city of Patna, showed, that the five main motives selected by them were: - To make use of high or professional education; - Engagement for spare time; - To supplement husband's income and raise economic status; - Gross necessity; - To have an independent income.

(6) Work values. As for work values, from the six categories of work values adopted in the present study, the main differences between Indian and Spanish teachers were in the following way. Whereas Spanish teachers shown significantly higher preference for political values, they have also shown higher work values related to all other values such as theoretical, aesthetic, social and moral values, and lower in the economic value were Indian teachers shown more preference.

In recent years researchers have been increasingly recognising the importance of certain environmental factors for better understanding of the concept. Bhushan and Singh (1980) found socioeconomic level significant in the development of value preferences. Ananthraman (1980) results indicate that the subjects who belong to high socioeconomic status have more religious value, subjects from urban locality have lesser theoretical value and more aesthetic value. Sharma (1981) brings forth the fact that social is the most dominant value and aesthetic is the least preferred value among older adolescents of Banaras Hindu University.

CHAPTER 7

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

Thus in the foregoing sections, an attempt was made to discuss the findings of the present research in the light of other research studies in this area. By and large the conclusions though are in the expected direction, yet one cannot but underline the fact that eventhough highly and equally qualified, the women university teachers of India and Spain showed considerable differences in all aspects of their life, including their culture, tradition, sociodemographic and socioeconomic factors. However one factor common to the women university teachers of the both the countries appears to be, the eluding equality of status with men in the teaching profession as well as other professions. Perhaps one may have to contemplate on the psychodynamics underlying this eluding equality.

The present study set out with the objectives of comparing the Indian and Spanish women university teachers on sociodemographic, socioeconomic, educational and cultural factors as well as attitude towards society, achievement motivation and work values.

Seven hypotheses were formulated and put to empirical test using six tools, i.e. a questionnaire covering sociodemographic, socioeconomic and cultural factors, all devised by the researcher, and three standarized scales viz. attitude towards society scale by D. Banerjee (1962), achievement motivation scale by Shantamany and Hafeez (1968) and work value inventory by A. Vasantha (1971).

The results showed the following conclusions:

1. Sociodemographic factors. Indian women university teachers appeared to be younger than Spanish teachers, mostly married as compared to their Spanish counterparts who were mostly unmarried.
2. Economic and Educational factors. Indian women university teachers had more qualification, lower level occupation in the university and were drawing less salaries than the Spanish teachers.
3. Cultural factors. Indian women university teachers spent more time in domestic work, and they dedicated their free time in holidays to household activities, whereas the Spanish women teachers spent their time in sports and tourism, and they did not dedicated as much time as the Indian teachers to household activities.

In social life, though no significant difference had been obtained between Indian and Spanish women university teachers, yet in India it appeared that a well educated woman did not have a very high social life in basis of her education, but was considered high in status more on the basis of what occupation the husband had, whereas in Spain, such ideas were considered erroneous particularly by the new generations and they considered themselves high in status more by their education and occupation.

Indian women university teachers appeared to be more satisfied in their present status: they perceived more opportunities for promotion and enjoyed more equality in the way they were treated on their job as compared to the Spanish women university teachers, who seemed to be discontented in treatment at their work place.

4. Attitude towards society. Both the groups, Indian as well as Spanish teachers appeared to have a neutral attitude towards society.
5. Achievement motivation. Though the achievement motivation was rather low for both the groups, Indian women university teachers seemed to have relatively more positive motivation to achieve than Spanish teachers.
6. Work value. Indian women university teachers showed more preference for economic values, whereas the Spanish teachers did showed preference for political, theoretical, aesthetic, social and moral values. In other words, they were working more for the latter values than for mere economic aspects.

The above results were discussed in the light of other studies in the area.

Despite the singular contribution made by this study in understanding the differences and similarities in the above mentioned variables of Indian and Spanish women university teachers, there have been certain limitations in the study. These limitations are given below:

1. This study was limited to the Jawaharlal Nerhu University in New Delhi, and Complutense University in Madrid. Hence is not possible to generalise the findings of this study to women university teachers in general.
2. The three standarized tools used were all standarized under indian conditions and so may not have obtained adequately representative responses from the Spanish women university teachers, eventhough the workability of the translated tools was tested and suitable modifications were carried out.

3. The size of the sample was rather too small, as many Indian women university teachers refused to respond to the questionnaires due to the lack of time.

Despite the above limitations, the present research has been able to highlight some of the important similarities and differences in sociodemographic, socioeconomic, cultural and certain characteristic features related to household and work areas, the women teachers attitude to society, their work values and motivation to achieve. Though the women university teachers in the two countries do differ on a number of factors, there appeared an important common factor, that is of inequality in the treatment of women workers vis-a-vis men workers in different occupations including teaching profession in the field of higher education. #

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APPENDIX

QUESTIONNAIRE

SOCIODEMOGRAPHIC SCALE

I. BASIC INFORMATION

NAME

- AGE 1. Below 25
2. 25 - 29
3. 30 - 34
4. 35 - 39
5. 40 & above

- MARITAL STATUS : 1. Unmarried
2. Married
3. Divorced
4. Widow
5. Separated
6. Remarried

- LIVING STATUS : 1. Living with parents
2. Living alone
3. Living with husband and children
4. Living with children only
5. Living with friends/familiars
6. Living with husband's family
7. Any other (specify)?

NUMBER OF MEMBERS IN THE FAMILY

1. Only one (self)
2. Self and husband/friend (2)
3. Self, husband and children (3-6)
4. Self, husband and children (6-10)
5. Others members (10 and above)

AMENITIES AT HOME :

1. Helpers/Servants:
- For washing
 - For cooking
 - For cleaning
 - For looking after babies
2. Washing machine
3. Vacuum cleaner
4. Dish washer
5. Cooking range
6. Refrigerator
7. Air conditioner
8. Car
9. Stereo
10. Television
11. V.C.R.
12. Own house
13. Any other (specify)

OCCUPATION OF HUSBAND AND CHILDREN

	occupation	income
Husband		
Child 1		
Child 2		
Child 3		
Any other (specify)		

QUESTIONNAIRE

1. Do you spend time in domestic work before you go for work? Yes/No
 If Yes, could you state how many hours you spend?hours (approx.)
 If no, how is the domestic work managed? (Tick mark all that which is applicable to you)
 - (a) My husband gives my a hand in domestic work
 - (b)* My children help me
 - (c) I have a servant at home who works full time
 - (d) I have a part time time servant who helps
 - (e) My relatives stay with me and they take care of the domestic work
 - (f) Any other, specify
2. Do you take assignments home? Yes/No
 If Yes, how much time you have to devote for these assignments?
 - (a) Less than 1 hour
 - (b) 2 to 3 hours
 - (c) 4 to 5 hours
 - (d) 6 hours and more
3. Do you discuss official matters at home? Yes/No
 If Yes, what sort of matter?
 - (a) Routine matters
 - (b) Problem issues
 - (c) Pleasant issues
 - (d) Some specific incident which either excited you or bothered you
 - (e) All sorts of matters
 - (f) Any other, specify
4. After attending to office and domestic work, do you have time to devote for your hobbies? Yes/No
 If Yes, how much time you devote?
 - (a) A few hours every day
 - (b) Less than an hour every day
 - (c) Once in two days
 - (d) Once in three days
 - (e) Once in a week
 - (f) Twice in a week
 - (g) Once in a month
 - (h) More than once a month
 - (i) Any other, specify
5. Do you help children in their home work? Yes/No
6. After spending your day in the office and attending to the household chores at home, do you have time to spend with your husband and children? Yes/No
 If Yes, indicate how much time?

	Children	Husband
(a) All my leisure hours	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
(b) Part of my leisure hours	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
(c) Very little time	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
(d) No time spent	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
(e) Any other, specify	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6. How do you spend your time after coming back from work?
 - (a) Doing household work
 - (b) Completing the remaining office assignments brought home
 - (c) Spending time on watching Television
 - (d) Spending time with neighbours

- (e) Spending time with children
 - (f) Spending time with husband
 - (g) Listening to music or other fine arts in the radio
 - (h) Indulging in the hobbies of your interest
 - (i) Any other, specify
8. How many days in a week you get off from your work in addition to the general holidays declared by the Government?
- (a) One day (Sunday)
 - (b) Two days (Saturday & Sunday)
 - (c) All Sundays and one Saturday in a month
 - (d) All Sundays and two Saturdays in a month
 - (e) Any other, specify
9. How do you spend the holidays?
-
-
10. How would you rate the atmosphere at the place of work?
- (a) Very congenial
 - (b) Congenial
 - (c) Not at all congenial
11. If it is not congenial could you specify the reasons for the same?
- (a)
 - (b)
 - (c)
12. How would you rate your relationships with the following:
- | | Superiors | Colleagues | Subordinates |
|---------------------|-----------|------------|--------------|
| (a) Very good | | | |
| (b) Good | | | |
| (c) Neutral | | | |
| (d) Poor | | | |
| (e) Very poor | | | |
13. Do you enjoy working in the place where you are employed presently? Yes/No
- (a) If No, would like to have a change? Yes/No
If yes, what type of change? (Please specify)
 -
 - If no, give the reasons
 -
14. Do you think you have enough opportunities to get promotions in the present job? Yes/No
- (a) If yes, are you satisfied with your present status
 - (b) If no, what are your alternative suggestions to make it more satisfactory
.....
 -
15. How would you rate your accomplishments in the job?
- (a) Very good
 - (b) Good
 - (c) Normal
 - (d) Poor
 - (e) Very poor
16. Are you able to carry out your responsibilities fully at the office? Yes/No
- (a) If no, could you indicate the reasons for the same
 -

17. How would you rate others feelings about your work in the office?
- (a) Everyone praises my work
 - (b) Most praise my work and a few think I am not good
 - (c) There is not specific feeling about my work
 - (d) Very few like my work
 - (e) No one likes my work
18. How would you rate yourself in regard to social life?
- (a) Very social
 - (b) I am social but to a limited extent only
 - (c) Neither social nor non-social
 - (d) I am generally not social
 - (e) I just keep to myself
19. Does your work require socialising meeting people? Yes/No
If Yes, do you enjoy it? Yes/No
20. If given a choice "Not to work" versus "Work", which would you choose? Indicate why
21. Do you think women in general should go for work? Yes/No
- (a) If no, indicate the reasons
 - (b) If yes, indicate the reasons
22. Do you think in the profession in which you are presently employed men and women are treated equally? Yes/No
- (a) If no, kindly give your reasons
23. What is the general trend according to you in regard to men and women being treated equally on jobs?
- (a) They are both treated equally in all aspects.....
 - (b) They are treated equally in some aspects
 - (c) They are treated unequally in a few aspects
 - (d) They are treated unequally in most aspects
 - (e) They are treated unequally in all aspects
24. What do you think are the causes for unequal treatment of women in certain jobs? Specify.
25. In your opinion, can women occupy the highest position in an organisation? Yes/No. Give your reasons for either answer
26. Which type of work you think women are most suited?
- (a) Teaching job
 - (b) Entrepreneurial jobs
 - (c) Clinical jobs
 - (d) Running voluntary welfare organizations for women or children
 - (e) Politicians jobs
 - (f) Bureaucratic and administrative jobs
 - (g) Jobs related to fine arts and crafts
 - (h) any other, specify

27. It is generally said that "women entering the mainstream of employment at all levels would lead to employment crisis in a country". Do you agree with this view?
 (a) If Yes, could you suggest any remedy?

 (b) If no, why do you think such a view prevails?

28. DO you agree with the view that women are better than men for managing and administering an organisation/institution? Yes/No
 If yes or no, give your reasons for your opinion

29. Do you think it is right for women to smoke? Yes/No
 in general? Yes/No
30. Do you smoke? Yes/No
 If no, why do you think other women are smoking?

31. Do you agree with the view point that working women feel generally guilty of not doing justice to their household duties? Yes/No
 If Yes, do you think it is justified? Give your opinion
32. "For a country to prosper in all directions, women should be involved at all levels of occupation". Do you agree with the above view? Yes/No

SOCIOECONOMIC SCALE

- I EDUCATION..... 1. M.A. only
 2. M.Phil
 3. Ph. D.
 4. Postdoctoral
- II OCCUPATION..... 1. Lecturer
 2. Reader
 3. Professor
- III INCOME..... 1. 3000 to 5000
 2. 5000 to 7000
 3. 7000 & above

ATTITUDE TOWARDS SOCIETY SCALE

The following items are to be checked on a 5-point scale of importance:

1. Very much important; 2. Very important; 3. Important; 4. Not very important; 5. Not at all important.

Please, put a circle on the number selected; Example, 1 2 3 **4** 5. In case of error put a cross and a circle on the new number; Example, 1 2 3 ~~4~~ **5**.

1. Any sort of marriage others than sacramental should be highly pursuable..... 1 2 3 4 5
2. Early marriage has done harm to the society 1 2 3 4 5
3. It is necessary for the males and females to have equal rights and opportunities in the sphere of service 1 2 3 4 5
4. Sex education during student-life is not at all desirable 1 2 3 4 5
5. Wide publicity of planned parenthood is necessary for the development of society 1 2 3 4 5
6. The opportunity for free mixing between boys and girls is detrimental to society 1 2 3 4 5
7. It is necessary to marry early for having peace in domestic life 1 2 3 4 5
8. It is necessary to impose proper physical punishment on students for violating discipline 1 2 3 4 5
9. It is highly necessary to minimise the grandeur of religious rights for the progress of society 1 2 3 4 5
10. Registration marriage has brought no evil effects in the society 1 2 3 4 5
11. It is necessary before marriage to have the right of mixing between the sexes 1 2 3 4 5
12. It is necessary to establish socialism by abolishing the system of individual profit making 1 2 3 4 5
13. It is necessary to impart sex education to the school students 1 2 3 4 5
14. So much deterioration of the society is due to the abolition of casteism 1 2 3 4 5
15. Love marriage never ends in happiness 1 2 3 4 5
16. Introduction of marriage among different tribes will advance the society. 1 2 3 4 5
17. Widow-marriage in a large scale should be introduced in the society 1 2 3 4 5
18. Introduction of love marriage is necessary of a happy marriage life 1 2 3 4 5
19. The rich in the society always enjoy happiness 1 2 3 4 5
20. Caste system is necessary for keeping the social structure in force 1 2 3 4 5

WORK VALUE INVENTORY

The following items are to be checked on a 5-point scale of importance:

1. Very much important; 2. Very important; 3. Important; 4. Not very important; 5. Not at all important.

Please, put a circle on the number selected; example, 1 2 3 ④ 5. In case of error, put a cross and a circle on the new number; example, 1 2 3 ~~④~~ ⑤

- | | |
|--|-----------|
| 1. Work in which you plan, organize and direct the activities of others | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 2. Work in which there is certainty of continued employment | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 3. Work in which you tackle unexpected or novel situations | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 4. Work in which the fellow workers are the kind of people you would like to work with | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 5. Work in which you work under conditions you like; not too hot or not too cold, quick, clear etc. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 6. Work in which you have hours that enables you to pursue your hobbies and interests | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 7. Work in which you do many different things on the job | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 8. Work in which you can express your ideas, talents and skills | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 9. Work in which you invent new things, design new products and develop new ideas | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 10. Work in which you have a feeling of personal satisfaction | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 11. Work in which you have the satisfaction of having helped people | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 12. Work in which there is the opportunity to improve skills and move further on the job | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 13. Work in which you can combine a career and good family life | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 14. Work in which you win the respect and admiration of people | 1 2 3 4 5 |

SENTENCE COMPLETION TEST
OF ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION

In this test there are 50 sentences each of which has three alternatives A, B, C, and you have to indicate the alternative you generally prefer. Please put a circle on the sentence selected. Exemple, A B C. In case of error put a cross and a circle on the new letter, A B C

1. I like A. to be faithful to my friends and colleagues
B. to be very systematic in my work.
C. to do my best in whatever work I undertake.
2. In accomplishing a task I like A. to be neat and clean.
B. to do it much better than others.
C. to finish it before time.
3. I wish I could have always been A. successful in doing difficult things.
B. generous with my friends.
C. sympathetic to the sick and poor.
4. When working in groups I desire A. to take the lead.
B. to excel others in similar tasks.
C. to do every thing in an orderly fashion.
5. My aim of life is A. to make a long record of successful achievements.
B. to serve my nation.
C. to attain high status in the society.
6. I often desire to be A. a silent worker in uplifting the poor.
B. successful in doing something very significant.
C. a true devote of God .
7. I am of the opinion that for plea -
sure and hapiness one must..... A. support charities.
B. get the basic amenities of life.
C. enrich the record of one's achievements.
8. I want to know A. the easiest path to achieve-salvation.
B. how I can be successful in whatever I undertake.
C. the honest means of accumulating wealth.
9. I like A. reading fiction, adventure, travel, etc.
B. visiting different places in the world.
C. to think of my future career.
10. I believe that it is possible for me... A. to be a recognised authority.
B. to achieve social status.
C. to get sufficient power in my hands.
11. I frecuently desire A. to be a popular social reformer.
B. to be a great political leader.
C. to do something of great significance.
12. I am very serious A. about being truthful.
B. about helping those who really deserve help.
C. about being a great man in life.
13. I consider my self better than
those A. who do not have any aim in life.
B. who are unsociable in nature.
C. who are irresponsible.
14. I will be very happy if A. I can do somethig very valuable.
B. I can earn a lot.
C. I can be my own boss.

15. I like to praise those who A. have devoted their life to social service.
B. have earned a reputation in their own field.
C. have some principles of life.
16. In whatever work I undertake A. I like to make advance plans.
B. I like to do my very best.
C. I like to assume full responsibility for it.
17. It is my nature A. to keep things neat and orderly.
B. to do things for my friends.
C. to undertake tasks which require great skill.
18. I like to be A. friendly and sympathetic with those in trouble.
B. a great authority in some job or profession.
C. very systematic in all my activities.
19. I am always keen A. to fight for a noble cause.
B. to remove untouchability and other social evils.
C. to develop my qualifications.
20. I feel best when A. I tell others about my personal experience.
B. I am assigned a difficult job.
C. I am requested to give advice to others
21. I frequently aspire to be A. a person with wonderful achievements.
B. a very rich person.
C. the centre of others' attention.
22. I am happiest when A. making others happy.
B. successful in my work.
C. I become the centre of others' attention.
23. I often think of A. accomplishing something great.
B. helping those who are hurt or sick.
C. being respected as a leader.
24. I like to be able A. to forgive those who have hurt me.
B. to use words that others do not know the meaning of
C. to do things better than others.
25. I feel A. unhappy when I fail to do my best in the examination
B. depressed when I hear about somebody's death.
C. angry when I see injustice done to my friends.
26. My secret ambition in life is A. to enjoy a happy married life.
B. to obtain a highly paid job.
C. to establish a glorious record of achievements.
27. I like to do something which A. others can hardly do.
B. will make me wealthy.
C. others regard as a manifestation of leadership.
28. It gives me great satisfaction A. to supervise and direct others.
B. to be in the company of distinguished persons.
C. to undertake very difficult tasks.
29. In most social situations A. I try to follow the customs.
B. I do not always accept and follow the usual religious practices.
C. I try to impress others.
30. What I want most in my life is A. to get an ideal home life.
B. to do something requiring effort.
C. to be a popular man in society.
31. I like others to think of me as A. very intelligent.
B. very industrious.
C. very happy.
32. In judging my merit, I believe that .. A. my grades were justified.
B. my grades were not a fair index of my work.
C. my teachers were partial to others.

33. I wish the atmosphere A. in my home were more congenial to study.
B. in my school would really help me to achieve something
C. in my city were more peaceful and healthy.
34. I am A. quite punctual and I am never late for work, school,
appointment, etc.
B. quite neat and organised in what I do.
C. courageous, but avoid unnecessary danger and risk.
35. I am always careful A. to please everybody with my manners.
B. to do my best in whatever I undertake.
C. to perform my activities in my own way.
36. I have a general tendency A. to continue a work till it is finished.
B. to analyse others judgement critically.
C. to be polished in my manners.
37. Before starting a difficult task A. I would take other's suggestion.
B. I would plan its details so as to lead to success.
C. I would imagine the difficult that might arise.
38. I am anxious A. to know my own defects so as to overcome them.
B. to do something of great significance.
C. to be the object of attraction in the group.
39. In general I might be described as .. A. Optimistic (believing that everything is ordered forth
best).
B. tolerant.
C. polite.
40. I take pains A. not to hurt other's feelings.
B. to overcome obstacles and attain a high standard.
C. to avoid blame from others.
41. I am often tempted A. to undertake very difficult tasks.
B. to see new places, new people and new things.
C. to be sympathetic with those who are unhappy.
42. I am sure that after ten years A. I will be achieving true freedom.
B. I will be earning a lot.
C. I will be a recognised authority in my field.
43. I am A. tolerant about people who hurt.
B. a morally upright person.
C. determined to work towards a high goal.
44. I enjoy A. a long spell of continuous activity to solve a difficult
problem.
B. the company of fun-loving people.
C. the company of children.
45. I feel happy A. If I get an opportunity to do someone a favour.
B. If I get an opportunity to entertain others with some
jokes.
C. When I have finished successfull a difficult task.
46. I avoid A. gay and irresponsible pleasure.
B. mental confusion and disorder seekers.
C. those situations which are not competitive.
47. I prefer A. getting encouragement from my friends and elders.
B. difficult tasks to easy ones.
C. the company of elders and experienced persons.
48. I feel upset whenever A. I am blamed.
B. I fail to reach my desired goal.
C. I am neglected or not loved.
49. I believe that A. It is better to be faithful than famous.
B. love is more just than justice.
C. my future depends upon my doing some notable work.
50. I would like to solve A. the socio-economic problems of my country.
B. very difficult puzzles and quies.
C. those problems which will give me novel experiments.