



REVIEW OF RESEARCH

ISSN: 2249-894X

IMPACT FACTOR : 5.2331(UIF)

VOLUME - 7 | ISSUE - 4 | JANUARY - 2018



PARENTING OF WORKING AND NON-WORKING MOTHERS WITH THEIR CHILDREN

Punithavathi S.¹, Avril Anjalose², Jeevitha J.³ and Yuvasri S.⁴

¹ Assistant Professor,

^{2,3,4} I MSc Applied Psychology, Department of Psychology, PSGCAS.

ABSTRACT—

Parenting can simply be defined as a process of promoting and supporting the physical, emotional, social, financial and intellectual development of a child from infancy to adulthood. Parenting involves both the parents wherein mother plays a predominant role. Parenting style varies from working mothers to non-working mothers. This study focuses on the parenting of



were used for the computation of statistical analysis. No significant difference was found between the parenting of working and non-working mothers on their children. But there is a significant difference in the dimension Punishment of 0.024. The working mother's children mean value is higher than the other groups.

working and non-working mothers on their children. The total number of samples estimated for the study is 400 samples that is further again classified into 100 working mothers and their children and 100 non-working mothers and their children through Purposive sampling technique. Alabama Parenting Questionnaire (APQ) by Frick K (1991) was used for the study. The Mean, Standard deviation and One-way ANOVA

KEYWORDS: Parenting, Working mothers and Non-working mothers

INTRODUCTION:

Parenting can simply be defined as a process of promoting and supporting the physical, emotional, social, financial and intellectual development of a child from infancy to adulthood. Parenting involves both the parents. Wherein mother plays a predominant role. The present study focuses on parenting, especially the role of mother in bring up her children. Mother may be a Working or Non-Working women. This research mainly focused on finding out there exists any difference between the parenting of working and non-working mothers and their children. Bronfen Brenner (1995 & 2004), in his ecological theory stressed about the importance of family. Diana Baumrind (1971, 1996), a leading authority on parenting. She states that parents should be neither punitive nor aloof. Rather, they should develop rules for children while at the same time being supportive and maturing. Collins & Stenberg (2006) support, Baumrind view of parenting style. Baumrind says that parenting styles come in four main forms. Authoritarian parenting- a restrictive and punitive parenting style in which there is little verbal exchange between parents and children; associated with children's social incompetence. Authoritative parenting- a positive parenting style that encourages children to be independent but still places limits and controls on their actions; associated with children's social competence. Neglectful parenting- a parenting style of un-involvement in which parents spend little time with

their children; associated with children's social incompetence. Indulgent parenting- a parenting style of involvement but few limits or restrictions on children's behaviour; linked with children's social incompetence. Evidence links authoritative parenting with competence on the part of the child in research across a wide range of ethnic groups, social strata, cultures, and family structures (Collins & Stenberg, 2006; Shea & Coyne, 2008). Elements of the authoritarian style may take on different meanings and have different effects depending on the context (Parks & others, 2008).

However, Rath Chao (2005, 2007) argues that the style of parenting used by many Asian American parents is distinct from the domineering control of the authoritarian style. Instead, Chao (2005, 2007) argues that the control reflects concern and involvement in children's lives and is best conceptualized as a type of training. The high academic achievement of Asian American children may be a consequence of the 'training' provided by their parents. Requiring obedience to parental authority may be an adaptive strategy to keep children from engaging in antisocial behaviour that can have serious consequences for the victim or the perpetrator (Dixon, Graber, & Brooks- Geunn, 2008; Mcloynd, Ainars, & Burton, 2006). In addition to parenting styles, ethnic groups vary on many other factors, including their socioeconomic status (SES) (Harris & Graham, 2007; Patterson & Hastings, 2007).

Working mother: Work can produce positive and negative effects on parenting (Crouter & McHale, 2005). Recent research indicates that what matters for children's development is the nature of parent's work rather than whether one or both parents works outside the home (Clarke- Stewaet, 2006). Ann Crouter (2006) recently described how parents bring their experiments at work into their homes. She concluded that parents who have poor working conditions, such as long hours, overtime work, stressful work, and lack of autonomy at work, are likely to be more irritable at home and engage in less effective parenting than their counterparts who have better working conditions in their jobs. A consistent finding is that, children (especially girls) of working mothers engage in less gender stereotyping and have more equalitarian views of gender (Goldberg & Lucas Thompson, 2008). Frances Gardener, Paul Montgomery and Wendy Knerr (2015) says that parenting interventions appear to be least effective in improving child's behaviour; Patty Leyten, Maartice A. J. Raaijmakers, Bram Orobio de Castro and Watter Matthys (2013) in their article shows that parent training program are effective in improving the problem behaviour when the problems are severe; Maxey Braisten and Golda S. Ginsburg (2010) researched and found that the importance of parental modelling and the potential role of both mothers and fathers in prevention and treatment for child anxiety; Ali Alami, Shabla Khorsravan and Fateme Hasseni (2014) investigated study that shows there were significant interactions between the child's self-esteem and the perceived parenting style of the parent; Nielsen D.M and Metha A (1994) in their article shows that perceptions of parental support and autonomy granting were perceptions of parental support and autonomy granting were related to multi-dimensional self-esteem; Furnham A. and Cheng H (2000) in his research found that stability, extroversion and maternal authoritative were significant predictions of self-esteem; Tafarodi R.W, Wild N, Ho C (2010) in their article shows that there is significant of parental authoritative for the child's self-esteem is mainly due to the nurture it provides; Narmen El Nakali, Heather J Bachmen and Elizabeth Votruba Drzal (2010) showed that in parental behaviour prediction helped in the decline of problem behaviour and improvement in social skills of their children; Emily A Waterman and Eva S Lefkowitz (2016) investigated a study that shows that both mothers and fathers parenting characteristics may affect the child's academic engagement; Aishwarya Raj Lakshmi and Meenakshi Arora (2006) say that parents who were perceived as being more acceptant tended to have adolescent children with higher academic success and competence; Donna Honcook Haskins (2014) in a study have shown that there is influence of parenting on adolescent outcomes.

Parenting is an important process in anyone's life. Parenting does not merely involve the economic and educational support given by the parent to the child. For an individual to become a good citizen, parenting plays a major role. Both mother and father play an important role in parenting. But, at early stage, mother plays a vital role.

METHODOLOGY:

The main aim of this study is to find out the parenting of working and non-working mothers and their children.

OBJECTIVES

- To find out the parenting of working mothers and non-working mothers and their children
- To find out the significant difference in the parenting of working and non-working mothers

HYPOTHESIS

Null Hypothesis:

- There is no significant difference between parenting of working and non-working mothers (mother's response/perspective)
- There is no significant difference between parenting of working and non-working mothers on their children (child's response/perspective)

SAMPLING TECHNIQUE

Purposive sampling techniques used for this study.

The total number of samples estimated for the study is 400 samples that is further again classified into;

- ❖ 100 working mothers and their children
- ❖ 100 non-working mothers and their children

Tool used

Alabama Parenting Questionnaire (APQ) developed by Frick K, (1991).

The APQ measures five dimensions of parenting. They are

- Positive involvement with children
- Supervision and monitoring
- Use of positive discipline techniques
- Consistency in the use of such discipline and
- Usage of corporal punishment.

The APQ (parent form and child form) contains 42 statements with 5 responses never, almost, sometimes, often, always. The reliability of the scale is 0.80. This scale is found to be highly valid.

Statistical analysis such as the Mean, Standard deviation and One-way ANOVA were used for the computation.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Table 1 shows the mean and standard deviation of working and non-working mothers and children respectively.

DIMENSIONS		SAMPLE SIZE	MEAN	STD.DEVIATION
INVOLVEMENT	WM	100	37.92	5.56
	NWM	100	38.26	5.46
	WMC	100	37.63	6.72
	NWMC	100	37.13	7.89
	Total	400	37.73	6.47
POSITIVE PARENTING	WM	100	24.00	4.18
	NWM	100	24.14	4.14
	WMC	100	25.14	17.04
	NWMC	100	21.66	5.93
	Total	400	23.73	9.54
POOR MONITORING	WM	100	21.44	7.94
	NWM	100	22.38	7.72

	WMC	100	20.94	7.06
	NWMC	100	22.60	8.43
	Total	400	21.84	7.80
INCONSISTENT DISCIPLINE	WM	100	17.29	4.96
	NWM	100	17.04	3.70
	WMC	100	16.37	4.26
	NWMC	100	16.95	5.14
	Total	400	16.91	4.55
PUNISHMENT	WM	100	6.40	2.93
	NWM	100	7.80	2.89
	WMC	100	7.13	4.13
	NWMC	100	7.38	3.06
	Total	400	7.17	3.32
OTHERS	WM	100	14.09	4.73
	NWM	100	14.44	4.43
	WMC	100	13.19	3.31
	NWMC	100	13.75	4.88
	Total	400	13.86	4.39

Table 2 showing the ANOVA details of the various dimensions of parenting and their children

DIMENSIONS		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
INVOLVEMENT	Between Groups	68.69	3	22.89	.544	.652
	Within Groups	16667.22	396	42.08		
	Total	16735.91	399			
POSITIVE PARENTING	Between Groups	651.39	3	217.13	2.410	.067
	Within Groups	35674.52	396	90.08		
	Total	36325.91	399			
POOR MONITORING	Between Groups	183.92	3	61.30	1.006	.390
	Within Groups	24135.84	396	60.94		
	Total	24319.76	399			
INCONSISTENT DISCIPLINE	Between Groups	45.44	3	15.14	.730	.534
	Within Groups	8216.49	396	20.74		
	Total	8261.93	399			
PUNISHMENT	Between Groups	103.52	3	34.50	3.174	.024*
	Within Groups	4304.87	396	10.87		
	Total	4408.398	399			
OTHERS	Between Groups	85.008	3	28.33	1.473	.221
	Within Groups	7616.970	396	19.23		
	Total	7701.978	399			

*p < 0.05

Table: 1 shows that

The mean value and standard deviation of working and non-working mothers and their children are **37.92, 38.26, 37.63, 37.13 and 5.56, 5.46, 6.72, 7.89** respectively for the dimension “Involvement”. There is no significant difference found between the parenting of working and non-working mothers and their children for the dimension “Involvement” at 0.05 level of significant difference. The non-working mothers’ mean value is higher than the other groups. The mean value and standard deviation of working and non-working mothers and their children are **24.00, 24.14, 25.14, 21.66 and 4.18, 4.14, 17.04, 5.93** respectively for the dimension “Positive parenting”. There is no significant difference found between the parenting of working and non-working mothers and their children for the dimension “Positive parenting” at 0.05 level of significant difference. The working mother’s children mean value is higher than the other groups. The mean value and standard deviation of working and non-working mothers and their children are **21.44, 22.38, 20.94, 22.60 and 7.94, 7.72, 7.06, 8.43** respectively for the dimension “Poor monitoring”. There is no significant difference between the parenting of working and non-working mothers and their children for the dimension “Poor monitoring” at 0.05 level of significant difference. The non-working mother’s mean value is higher than the other groups. The mean value and standard deviation of working and non-working mothers and their children are **17.29, 17.04, 16.37, 16.95 and 4.96, 3.70, 4.26, 5.14** respectively for the dimension “Inconsistent”. There is no significant difference between the parenting of working and non-working mothers and their children for the dimension “Inconsistent” at 0.05 level of significant difference. The working mothers mean value is higher than the other groups. The mean value and standard deviation of working and non-working mothers and their children are **6.40, 7.80, 7.13, 7.38 and 2.93, 2.89, 4.13, 3.06** respectively for the dimension “Punishment”. There is a significant difference between the parenting of working and non-working mothers and their children for the dimension “Punishment” at **0.024** level of significant difference. The working mother’s children mean value is higher than the other groups. The mean value and standard deviation of working and non-working mothers are **14.09, 14.44, 13.19, 13.75 and 4.73, 4.43, 3.31, 4.88** respectively for the dimension “Others”. There is no significant difference between the parenting of working and non-working mothers and their children for the dimension “Others”. The working mothers mean value is higher than the other groups.

DISCUSSION

The data collected from the working and the non-working mothers and their children shows that the mean value is high for non-working mother in the dimension “**Involvement**”. This means that the non-working mothers are very much involved in the child’s development. In spite of the household works and other commitments, the non-working mothers are always with their children. They help the children in all their activities like home works and help them in solving problems, etc. Whereas, the working mothers plays a dual role and have less time to spend with their child which makes them less involved with their children. The mean value is high for working mothers in the dimension “**Positive Parenting**”. This means that the working mothers are very much exposed to the social environment. Hence they knew the problems and crises of society and make their children understand and act accordingly in such situations. As they are working, they are exposed to lot of situations and again more knowledge and experiences, which in turn help them to teach their children positive approach than non-working mothers comparatively. Similarly, the mean value is high for working mothers in the dimension “**Poor monitoring**”. As the working mothers are away most of the time, they may not be able to attend to the child’s needs. The child might have been left in child care homes or care takers resulting in poor monitoring. All these factors lead to poor monitoring in parenting of mothers. The mean value is high for working mothers in the dimension “**Inconsistent discipline**”. As the working mothers leave their children in the child care homes, they are not disciplined properly. They are mostly without the supervision of the parents, which results in the undisciplined behaviour of the children. The mean value is high for non-working mothers in the dimension “**Punishment**”. As the non-working mothers continuously monitor their children they are keen in the discipline of their children and so in case of any maladaptive behaviour they punish them so that they don’t repeat that behaviour again.

CONCLUSION

- There was no significant difference found between parenting of working and non-working mothers.

- There was no significant difference found between parenting of working and non-working mothers on their children.

LIMITATIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

- The size of the sample is small. The study could have been done on a larger sample based on the growing women population in the country.
- Also, the study was done in a particular geographical location. Thus, the study could have been expanded into a larger geographical background.

Having this study as a base, there could be more researches on this topic as the rate of working mothers is drastically increasing. Longitudinal studies could also be done to understand the complete differentiation of working and non-working mother's parenting and its influence on their children.

REFERENCE:

1. Frances Gardner, Paul Montgomery and Wendy Knerr (2015). Transporting evidence-based parenting programs for child problem behaviour (age 3-10) between countries: systematic review and meta-analysis. vol 45, page no:749-762.
2. Stephaine L. Sitnick, Daniel S. Shaw, Anne Gill, Thomas Dishion, Charlotte Winter & Rebecca Waller (2014). Parenting and the family check-up: Changes in observed parent-child interaction following early childhood intervention. vol 44, page no:970-984. doi: 10.1080/15374416.2014.940623.
3. Patty Leijten, Maartje A.J. Raaijmakers, Bram Orobio de Castro & Walter Matthys (2013) Meta-analysis on parent training for Effectiveness for Disruptive child behaviour. 42,384-392.
4. Narmen E ElNakali, Heather J B achman and Elizabeth VotrubaDrzal*(2010). Parenting involvement and children's academic and social development in elementary school. 81,988-1005.
5. Rachel Brown & Jane Odgen Children's eating attitude and behaviour: a study of the modelling and control theories of parental influences. 19,261-271. Doi: <https://doi.org/10.1093/her/cyg040>.
6. Aishwarya Raj Lakshmi & Meenakshi Arora (2006). Perceived Parental Behaviour as Related to Student's Academic School Success and Competence. 32,47-52.
7. Landry SH, Smith KE, Swank PR, Assel MA, & Vellet s. Does Early Responsive Parenting have a Special Importance for Children's Development or is Consistency across Early Childhood Necessary? 37, 387-403.
8. Berrier A, Carlson SM, & Whipple N (2010). From External Regulation to Self-regulation: Early Parenting Precursors of Young Children's Executive Functioning. 81, 326-339.
9. Anne Case & Christion Paxson (2002). Parental Behaviour and Child Health. 21.
10. Nielsen DM, & Metha (1994). "Parental behaviour and adolescent self-esteem in clinical and non-clinical samples". 29, 525-542.
11. Furnham A & Cheng H (2000) Perceived parental behaviour, self-esteem and happiness. 35. 463-470.
12. Usha R. Rout, Cary L. Cooper, & Helen Kerlake (1997). Working and Non-working mother: a comparative study, 12, 264-275.
13. Sandra Achtergarde, Christian Postert, Ida Wessing, Georg Romer, & Jörg M. Müller (2015) Parenting and Child Mental Health Influences of Parent Personality, Child Temperament, and Their Interaction. 49, 1166-1174.
14. Sofie Rousseau PhD, Hans Grietens Prof. Dr, Johan Vanderfaeillie Prof. Dr, Karel Hoppenbrouwers Prof. Dr., Jan Roelf Wiersema, Prof. Dr. Karla Van Leeuwen Prof. Dr (2013) studied on "Parenting Stress and Dimensions of Parenting Behaviour: Cross-Sectional and Longitudinal Links with Adolescents' Somatization". 46(3), 243-270.
15. Cliff McKinney, Melanie Morse, & Joe Pastuszak (2016). Effective and Ineffective Parenting Associations with Psychological Adjustment in Emerging Adult 37(9), 1203-1225.

16. Grolnick, W.S., Ryan, R.M., & Deci, E.L. (1991). Inner resources for school achievement: Motivational Mediators of Children's Perception of their Parents. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 83, 508-517. doi: 10.1037/0022-0663.83.4.508.
17. Guion, J.K., Murg, S., & Windle, M. (2009). Predictive value of informant discrepancies in reports of parenting: Relations to Early Adolescent's School Adjustment. *Journal of Research on Adolescence*, 19, 17-30. doi: 10.1007/s10802-008-9253-5.
18. Abar, B., Carter, K.L., & Winsler, A. (2009). The Effects of Maternal Parenting style and Religious Commitment on Self-regulation, Academic Achievement and Risk Behaviour among College Students. *Journal of Adolescence*, 32, 259-273.
19. Dolores Gold & David Andres (1978). Developmental Comparisons between Ten-Year-Old Children with Employed and Non-employed Mothers. *Journal of Research on Adolescence*, 8, 75-84. doi: 10.2307/1128595.
20. Hoffman, Lois W. (1980). The Effects of Maternal Employment on the Academic Attitudes and Performance of School-aged Children. *Journal of Research on Adolescence*, 9(4), 319-335.
21. Anita M. Farel (1980). Effects of Preferred Maternal Roles, Maternal Employment and Socio demographic Status on School Adjustment and Competence. *Journal of Research on Adolescence*, 11, 1179-1186.
22. Hock, Ellen. (1978). Working and Non-working Mothers with Infants: Perceptions of their Careers, their Infants' needs, and Satisfaction with Mothering. *Journal of Research on Adolescence*, 14(1), 37-43. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0012-1649.14.1.37>.
23. Barbara Heyns & Shphia Catsambis (1986). Mother's Employment and Children's Achievement: A Critique. *Journal of Research on Adolescence*, 59, 140-151. doi: 10.2307/2112336.
24. Claire Etaugh (1974). Effects of Maternal Employment on Children. *Journal of Research on Adolescence*, 20, 71-98. <http://www.jstor.org/stable/23083669>.
25. Scarr, Sandra, Phillips, Deborah, McCartney, & Kathleen (1989). Working mothers and their children. *Journal of Research on Adolescence*, 44(11), 1402-1409. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/003-066X.44.11.1402>.