

The relationship between maternal employment and teenage character traits

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God, for placing this journey on my path.

My lovely daughter, Nadine, who is an inspiration to me, I *dedicate* this to you.

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of the study is to determine the relationship between maternal employment and teenage character traits.

Statistics show a significant increase in women entering the labour market and although demographics are changing rapidly, social attitudes and policies may lag behind, and the concept of mothers as principal caretakers and fathers as economic providers remains very much in place. The profound and sometimes contradictory convictions of individual members about working mothers and their children paralleled those of countless others and professional people where matched only by the equally profound lack of facts on which these convictions might be based.

The objective of the study is to measure the perceived character traits of teenage children in terms of self confidence, locus of control, independence, time management and ambition. The questions were measured within two different scenarios: the first, within households where both parents are employed, and the second, within households where only the father is employed. The aim of the study is to determine if there is any correlation between maternal employment and the presence or lack of presence of the specified character traits.

The empirical study was conducted using the quantitative research method with a non-probability sample. The data collection method used for the purpose of this study was in the form of questionnaires, based on the Likert scale. The content validity of the questionnaire was evaluated by a subject matter expert, while the face validity was determined by the Statistical Consultation Services of the North West University. Analysis of completed questionnaires involved descriptive statistics and practical significance.

The target population, high school teachers within the North West and Gauteng Province, consisted of 70 participants.

Based on the findings emanating from the research, there were no noticeable difference found between teenagers within households where both parents are employed and households where only the father is employed, although the results indicated a tendency for children within households where both parents are employed to be slightly more self confident, lean more towards an internal lotus of control, have higher ambition and are less dependent than those teenagers from households where only the father is employed. These findings, although not noticeable, agree with the literature.

There were limitations that had an impact on the results of this study. The limited population resulted in a small sample. The sample indicated that 41 percent have five years or less experience. Participants indicated that they are not always aware of the household dynamics. Additional limitations include the strict ethical roadblocks when conducting research on children.

It was recommended that a more comprehensive study should follow, which should include the participation of mothers and teenagers alike. This will give the researcher a distinct and clear result of what the influences could be within the household dynamics.

Key words: Maternal employment, household dynamics, family dynamics, maternal employment theories, maternal employment hypotheses, effects of maternal employment.

UITTREKSEL

Die doelstelling van hierdie studie is om te bepaal of daar 'n verwantskap is tussen werkende moeders en die karaktereienskappe van tieners.

Navorsing bewys 'n dramatiese toename van vroue in die arbeidsmark. Alhoewel daar aansienlike skuiwe in die demografie plaasvind, ontwikkel sosiale gesindhede en beleide nie parallel hiermee nie. Die persepsie van moeders as primêre versorgers en die vaders as voorsieners bly steeds die primêre persepsie. Die diep gewortelde, en soms teenstrydige, oortuigings of persepsies van individue aangaande werkende moeders en hul kinders is belyd met die van ander professionele persone. Hierdie is gewoonlik ongegronde afleidings, gemaak op 'n tekort of gebrek aan feite.

Die doelstelling van hierdie studie is om die waargenome karaktertrekke van tieners te bepaal in terme van selfvertroue, lokus van kontrole, onafhanklikheid, tydbestuur en ambisie. Die vraelys is opgestel om die volgende twee scenarios te meet. Eerstens, huishoudings waar beide die ouers werk en tweedens huishoudings waar slegs die vader werk. Daar is deur die studie gepoog om aan te toon dat daar 'n verwantskap bestaan tussen die feit dat 'n kind se moeder werk en die teenwoordigheid of afwesigheid van sekere karaktereienskappe.

Die empiriese studie is gedoen deur gebruik te maak van 'n kwantitatiewe navorsingsmetode waar 'n nie waarskynlikheid steekproef gebruik is. Vraelyste is as die data insamelingsmetode gebruik en die vraelyste is gebaseer op 'n vyf punt Likertskaal. Die inhoud van die vraelys is deur vakspesialiste geëvalueer en die geldigheid en betroubaarheid is deur die Sentrale Statistiekdiens van die Noordwes Universiteit bepaal. Die analise van die voltooide vraelyste sluit beskrywende statistiek en praktiese betekenis in.

Die teikengroep vir die studie populasie was 70 hoërskoolonderwysers in die Noordwes en Gauteng provinsie.

Gebaseer op die bevindings van die navorsing was daar nie noemenswaardige verskille in die uitkomst van die studie tussen die twee scenarios nie. In huishoudings waar beide ouers in die arbeidsmark staan, bestaan daar die geneigdheid dat die kinders meer selfvertroue het, oor 'n hoër interne lokus van kontrole beskik, hoër vlakke van ambisie vertoon en meer onafhanklik is. Hierdie bevindings, alhoewel daar nie groot waarneembare verskille vertoon nie, stem ooreen met die literatuur.

Daar was beperkings wat 'n invloed/impak op hierdie studie gehad het. Die steekproef was klein as gevolg van die beperkte populasie. 'n Groot persentasie, 41 persent, van die respondente het aangetoon dat hulle vyf jaar of minder ondervinding in die onderwys het. Die kandidate het verder aangetoon dat hulle nie altyd bewus was van die werkstatus van ouers ten opsigte van tieners nie. Verdere beperkings sluit in streng etiese hindernisse ten opsigte van navorsing op kinders.

Daar is voorgestel dat 'n meer deeglike opvolgstudie gedoen moet word wat tieners en hul ouers insluit. Hierdie sal 'n duideliker beeld gee van die invloed van familiedinamika op die uiteindelijke sukses van leerlinge.

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CHAPTER 1

NATURE AND SCOPE OF THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Since the beginning of time men and woman were associated with specific roles which were accepted by society at large. Some of these principles were, and currently still are, embedded in society through religious principles. According to Strong, DeVault and Cohen (2011:129) the social structure reinforces traditional gender norms and behaviours and make some changes more difficult. Some religious groups strongly support traditional gender roles for example, the Catholic Church, conservative Protestantism, Orthodox Judaism, and fundamentalist Islam view traditional roles as being divinely ordained. Accordingly, to violate these norms is to violate God's will (Strong, DeVault & Cohen, 2011:129).

The Workplace helps enforce traditional gender roles. The wage disparity between men and women is a case in point. Such a significant difference in income makes it "rational" for many couples for the man's work role to take precedence over the women's work role (Strong, DeVault & Cohen, 2011:129).

Although demographics are changing rapidly, social attitudes and policies may lag behind, and the concept of mothers as principal caretakers and fathers as economic providers remains very much in place. One of Gartell's key arguments is that motherhood has become and "institutionalised" role, meaning that society holds particular expectations about how mothers should behave (Gatrell, 2005:11).

The late twentieth century witnessed dramatic changes in the way families organise their work and family lives. As men's earnings stagnated and women became increasingly committed to working outside the home, the breadwinner-homemaker household that predominated during the middle of the Twentieth Century gave way to a diverse range of work and family arrangements (Jacobs & Kathleen, 2004:1).

As the new century begins, we face a greatly altered family landscape, in which dual-income and single-parent families far outnumber the once ascendant two-parent, one-earner household (Jacobs & Kathleen, 2004:1).

The Census Bureau data show that 25.3 percent of women in double income marriages bring home the bigger paycheck, up from 17.8 percent in 1987. The salaries of college-educated women have risen much faster than those of male graduates, up 34.4 percent since 1979 versus 21.7 percent for men (Selvin, 2007:1). These findings are contradictory to the findings of Strong, DeVault and Cohen (2011:129) regarding salary differences in men and women, although this could be due to maternal education level.

Among individuals between the age of twenty and thirty, more women than men have college degrees. The gap is widest among twenty-five to twenty-nine year olds. The Census Bureau showed that 25.5 percent of men hold a bachelor's degree compared with 32.2 percent of women. Women now account for close to half of medical and law students, funneling them into lucrative careers (Selvin, 2007:1).

No matter what their age, women with fatter paychecks say they reflect their soaring career goals, release them from traditional roles as wives or mothers, and give them a stronger voice in their marriage (Selvin, 2007:2). According to historian Coontz (quoted by Selvin, 2007:2) "There is a certain exhilaration that women are feeling".

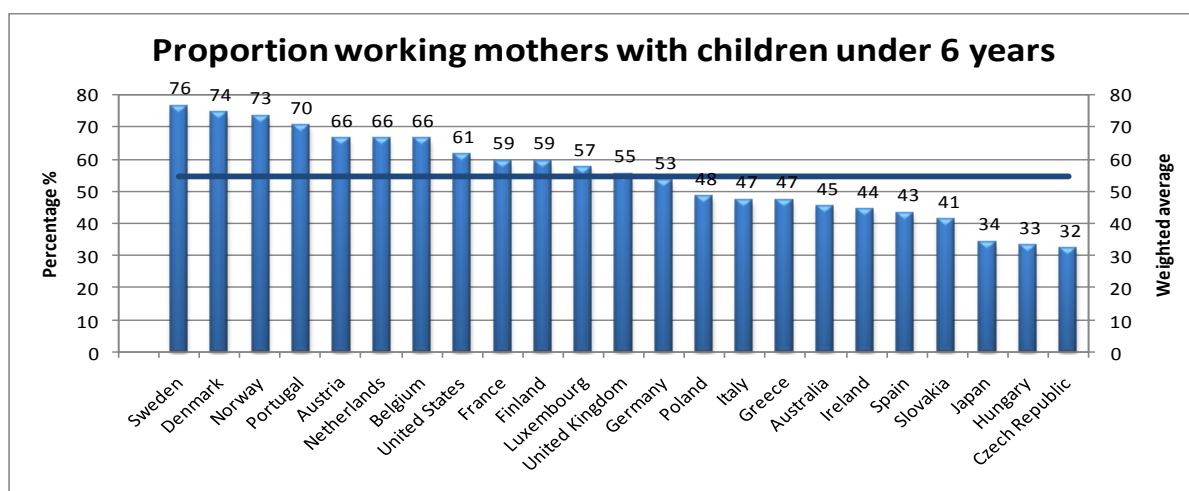
Women have suddenly been freed to pursue ambitions that they once had to channel into finding a successful partner rather than being a successful person in their own right. Wives are reporting that their husbands are rolling up their sleeves more often, doing dishes and laundry and caring for the children (Selvin, 2007:2). According to Galinsky (quoted by Selvin 2007:2) the figures state 34 percent as compared to 24 percent a decade ago.

1.2 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY (MOTIVATION)

The decision of a mother to go out to work may sound a relatively simple one, but is actually the result of many factors. Mothers themselves often give several reasons for going out to work; often there is one major reason and several subsidiary ones. Moreover, the reason or reasons which prompt a mother to go out to work directly affects the family situation (Yudkin & Holme, 1963:43).

A study conducted by Han, Waldfogel and Brooks-Gunn (2001) indicate that early maternal employment has a significant negative effect on white children's cognitive outcomes at age 3 to 4 and that these effects persist to age 7 to 8 in some instances, but not in others. Harris (2010) agrees with these findings and found that three-year-olds whose mothers went back to their full time jobs in the first nine months have poorer verbal skills and are less capable than those whose mothers stayed at home. According to the Journal of Child Development, there were particularly low scores among children whose mothers went back to work between six and nine months (Harris, 2010:1).

Research conducted by Pew Research Center (1997) found society at large still believes and condemns working mothers as being bad for their children. Graph 1.1 illustrates the researched figures of the latest available data of working mothers with children younger than 6 years, sorted by country (2001). These are the figures as published on Nation Master.com.



Graph 1.1 Proportion working mothers with children under 6 years

Brown-Quin (2010:1), indicated that children of working mothers in relation to children of non-working mother scored lower on cognitive tests. This agrees with the findings of Han, Waldfogel and Brooks-Gunn (2001) and Harris (2010:1) although they still proved that the positive effects of maternal employment offset the negative effects.

Brown-Quin (2010:1), found that working mothers have many positive impacts on not only child development, but also on the father, mother-father partnership, mother and the organisation. Jane Waldfogel (quoted by Brown-Quin, 2010:1), commented on the consequences of a mother returning to the workplace, "In reality, lots of other things change the minute she goes out to work, including the quality of childcare, the mother's mental health, and the relationships with the family and their household income."

A separate study: "The Effect of the Mother's Employment on the Family and the Child" conducted by Hoffman (1998:1) agrees with the positive findings of working mothers. They found that, the mother's employment status *does* have effects on families and children, but few of these effects are negative ones.

In collaboration with the findings of Brown-Quin (2010:1), Han, Waldfogel and Brooks-gunn (2001) and Harris (2010:1), the study conducted by the Society for the Advancement of Education (2000:1) found that the husbands of working mothers assisted more with child care and household tasks. One of the effects of a father's increased involvement is that daughters do better on achievement tests, have less stereotypical attitudes about the competencies of men versus women, and have a greater sense of personal effectiveness. These findings agree with the reports of Selvin (2007:2) that husbands are rolling up their sleeves more often, doing dishes and laundry and caring for the children.

1.3 PROBLEM STATEMENT

Over the past couple of decades women have gradually infiltrated the workforce. Their motivations may differ, but that it is drastically increasing is a fact (Herbst, 2006:15). This is in agreement with the findings of Yudkin and Holme (1963:43) that there are many different reasons why women enter the labour market. When considering the statistics over the past decades, these indicate that 1.7 million women entered the labour market between 1991 and 2001. This is a staggering increase of 23.6 percent. These are significant figures (Herbst, 2006:15).

This study will explore the impact of maternal employment on the child in terms of development and characteristics displayed in adolescent children. The characteristics or traits that will be measured are motivation, ambition, independence, self confidence, locus of control and time management ability.

Although the term, maternal employment, suggests a focus on the mother and her labour force affiliation, the experience of maternal employment is embedded in a family system. Therefore, when considering the influence of maternal employment on the child, it is often critical to examine other issues pertinent to the family system, such as paternal work, because these factors may also influence the development of children (Lerner, 2001:1).

Family dynamics might have a greater advantage to children than the traditional “stay at home” expectation. Traditional roles exclude women from the considerable differences they can make and the satisfaction they can feel by entering a career due to the pressures and expectations of traditional old fashioned norms as found by Gartell (2005:110). This agrees with the findings of DeVault and Cohen (2011:129) that social structures reinforce traditional gender norms and behaviours and some religious groups strongly support traditional gender roles.

The purpose is to measure if there is any correlation in perceived character traits between teenage children of households where both parents are employed and households where only the father is employed.

1.4 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The objective of the study is divided into primary and secondary objectives as described below.

1.4.1 Primary objective

To measure the relationship of maternal employment to teenage character traits in terms of independence, self confidence, time management, locus of control and ambition.

1.4.2 Secondary objective

To determine if there are other variables that influence the findings and have an impact on the results.

1.5 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The research was conducted in two parts. Firstly, a literature review on maternal employment, followed by the empirical research conducted with high school teachers.

1.5.1 Literature review

The literature review included topics on maternal employment with specific focus on the history, influencing factors, parents' views, theories, hypotheses, the effects, benefits and disadvantages of maternal employment. In addition, topics such as the challenges of raising children and expectations set for working mothers were researched.

A review of available literature was completed to gain an understanding of all aspects related to maternal employment and child development. Various publications, such as text books, journals, research publications, articles obtained

from the North-West University library, academic databases and the internet were consulted during the completion of the literature review.

1.5.2 Empirical research

Empirical research was conducted through a quantitative research method. The questionnaires were compiled with the assistance of a subject matter expert and the statistical consultation services of the North West University for validation to address some of the important points extracted from the literature study.

The design was based on the Likert scale with 5 ratings ranging from “*almost never*” to “*almost always*”. Provision was made for a cover letter to explain the purpose and focus of the study with relevant ethical considerations.

The population consisted of high school teachers from the North West and Gauteng Province. They were asked to complete the questionnaires, making use of their experience and perceptions in relation to teenage children’s behaviour. Data gathered from the research was analysed and interpreted to address the objectives of the study with recommendations and conclusions.

1.6 SCOPE OF THE STUDY

Since the aim of the study was to determine the visible character traits of teenage children, the empirical study only focused on high school teachers and teenage children.

The population was limited to high school teachers. The sampling methodology employed was a non-probability sample with the snowball sampling method predominantly visible. Snowball sampling is identified where a few individuals from the relevant population are approached. These individuals then act as informants and identify other members from the same population for inclusion in the sample (Welman, Kruger & Mitchell, 2005:69).

The research was conducted through the distribution and collection of the survey questionnaires to and from the relevant population. Sample size resulted in 70 high school teachers participating within the North West and Gauteng Province.

1.7 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The population of high school teachers is relevantly small which resulted in a small sample. The sample indicated that 41 percent have five years or less experience. This could have an impact on the results due to the sample population not having enough experience relating to the questions asked. Limitations of the study could be linked to the findings that teachers are not always aware of the household dynamics.

The ethical considerations and roadblocks when conducting a study on children are tremendous and though it can be justified, it limits the effectiveness of the study in relation to what is actually happening and what is perceived.

1.8 LAYOUT OF THE STUDY

Chapter 1: Nature and scope of the study

- Introduction
- Background of study (motivation)
- Problem statement
- Objective of study
- Research methodology
- Scope of study
- Limitations of the study
- Layout of study

This Chapter will provide the reader with a clear background and motivation to why the need was identified to conduct research on the particular topic, and what the objectives of the study are in terms of primary and secondary objectives. The chapter will also provide the limitations identified during the study.

Chapter 2: Literature review

- Introduction
- Definitions
- Previous research findings
- Conclusion

This Chapter will be a detailed literature study with definitions and comparisons between previous research findings on maternal employment.

Chapter 3: Research design and methodology

- Introduction
- Research question and aim
- Research design
- Research methodology
- Summary

This Chapter will be related to the method of collecting research data from the identified research sample. The questionnaires need to be compiled and distributed for the purpose of this chapter. The data will thereafter be analyzed and findings interpreted.

Chapter 4: Results, conclusions and recommendations

- Introduction
- Respondents
- Results

- Discussion of results
- Conclusions
- Recommendations
- Concluding remarks

This Chapter will conclude the findings and recommendations as interpreted by the research conducted. The results will validate the primary objective as set out in Chapter One.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The objective of the literature review will be to take into consideration all previous research conducted, articles written on maternal employment and the impact/influence on children. During the study, a closer look will be taken at all the variables that could influence the results, perceptions of society, parents, and, particularly, mothers. To bring the research closer to the relevance of the topic, it is necessary to look at the different attributes and character traits that will be measured with their possible impact and influence on future success.

The first part of the literature study will be concerned with definitions, their benefits and possible consequences if they feature or do not feature. These definitions would include the following:

- Maternal employment,
- Self confidence,
- Time management,
- Independence,
- Maternal education,
- Locus of control.

The second part of the literature study will be concerned with previous research findings on maternal employment.

2.2 BASIC CONCEPTS AND DEFENITIONS

2.2.1 Maternal employment

Maternal employment refers to the labour force affiliation of mothers with children aged between 0-18 years. The term “maternal employment” includes a wide variety of labour force participation patterns, from full-time work, part-time work, contract work as well as working out of the home (Lerner, 2001:1).

Although the term, maternal employment, suggests a focus on the mother and her labour force affiliation, the experience of maternal employment is embedded in a family system. Therefore, when considering child outcomes, it is often critical to examine other issues that pertain to the family system, such as paternal work, because these factors may also influence the development of children (Lerner, 2001:1). These findings validate the findings of Hoffman (1998:1) on the influence of family dynamics.

When comparing previous research to research conducted more recently, it is clearly evident that today’s research studies tend to be more complicated because they are developed to gather information about factors that might mediate the relationships between maternal employment and child outcomes. For example, some have documented that child outcomes are related to women’s satisfaction with their decision to work and the quality of their employment situations, not only their employment status. A number of factors were noted that could have indicated effects on child outcomes, including maternal stress, life satisfaction, role strain, characteristics of the parent-child relationship, and, of course, the quality of the child care itself (Lerner, 2001:1).

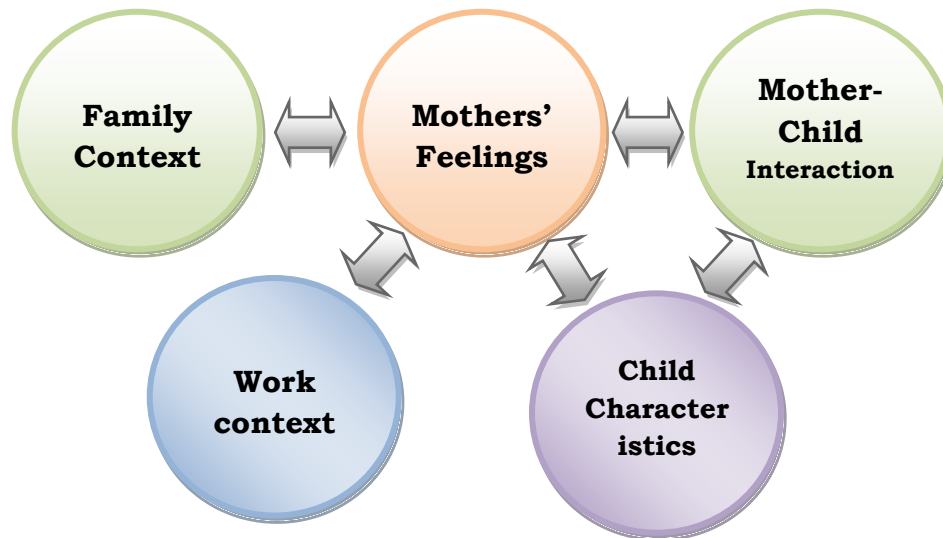


Figure 2.1: Variables that influence maternal employment

2.2.2 Self confidence

Self confidence is having confidence in yourself and your abilities (Oxford Advanced Learner’s Dictionary, 2011).

People who lack self confidence are often described as “shy,” “timid,” or “quiet.” These words reflect a basic distrust in oneself that makes one doubt one’s abilities. Individuals hold back from doing everything that they could achieve and realising their full potential. In contrast, confident people have faith in themselves and their abilities. They strive to improve themselves and believe that they can meet life’s challenges successfully (Ignoffo, 1999:7).

2.2.3 Time management

In a paper written on personality traits in relation to time management behaviour, the following was revealed. Considerable attention was given to the relationship between an individual’s personality and the science of time management. There were no conclusive findings proving the latter to be either true or, untrue. Research showed that it *is* possible to learn this trait, or for them to be otherwise influenced by external factors (Claessens, 2006:1). This is extremely significant with regard to the study on determining if this ability could be influenced in children through maternal employment due to time being such a luxury and scarcity in this relationship.

The assumption would be that even though this is not a pre-meditated intention, this will be the result of the circumstances surrounding the family dynamics where the mother has outside employment (Claessens, 2006:1). This agrees with the findings of Hoffman (1998:1) and Lerner (2001:1) that family dynamics play a major role on the impact of maternal employment.

2.2.4 Independence

Independence is defined as the freedom to organise your own life, make your own decisions, etc. without needing help from other people (Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary, 2011).

2.2.5 Maternal education

There is evidence that supports the notion that maternal educational investments might have positive spill-over effects on children's outcomes. This could be due to the existence of role model effects. Positive spill-over might exist if education increases a mother's ability to help with homework, or makes her more likely to read to her children. Higher levels of parental education have been found to be correlated with more studying, less television watching, and more reading on the part of children (Moore & Schmidt, 2004:12-13).

Mothers who invest in their own education might learn about the educational system and be better able to help their children succeed within that system (Moore & Schmidt, 2004:13).

2.2.6 Locus of control

Locus of control refers to what you ascribe responsibility or blame for what is happening or occurs in your life. It thus has to do with the degree to which you believe that you yourself influence what happens to you. Some people believe they are masters of their own fate and bear personal responsibility for what happens (Coetsee, 2002:102).

People with an internal locus of control believe that we as humans have the power and ability to decide on our actions and behavior. People with an external locus of control are ‘as-a-result-of’ people. These are people who believe that they are pawns of fate, that what happens is determined or strongly influenced by external factors (Coetsee, 2002:102).

2.3 PREVIOUS RESEARCH

2.3.1 Statistics

Woman entering the workforce has increased tremendously over the past years. According to Statistics SA 2004 (quoted by Herbst, 2006:15), research conducted indicates that 1,7 million women entered the labour market between 1991 and 2001. This is a staggering increase of 23.6 percent. These are significant figures.

Stats SA 2002-2009 (quoted by Herbst, 2006:15) states that women constitute approximately 52 percent of the South African population. Lehohla (2003:72) revealed the following results from the consensus conducted during 2001.

PROVINCE	AVE HOUSEHOLD SIZE
Eastern Cape	4.1
Free State	3.6
Gauteng	3.2
KwaZulu-Natal	4.2
Limpopo	4.3
Mpumalanga	4.0
Northern Cape	3.8
North West	3.7
Western Cape	3.6
SOUTH AFRICA	3.8

Table 2.1 Household size by province

The Gauteng and North West Province indicated an average size per household of 3.2 and 3.7 which are slightly below South Africa’s average.

Although these figures are slightly below South Africa's average, it still shows that family size remains relatively large. When comparing family size to the increase of woman entering the labour market it is an indication that women don't only enter the labour market with work as their central goal (Lehohla, 2003:72). This agrees with the results found from Yudkin and Holme (1963:43) that there are several different reasons why women enter the labour market.

2.3.2 History of maternal employment

Yudkin and Holme (1963:13) are concerned with studies done 50 years ago. Although the relevance might be questioned, when comparing their results to current research conducted it is interesting to note the correlation between the studies. What makes this study so interesting is that it takes you back to where it all began, where the regulations, legislation and norms changed to allow women to enter the workforce during these periods.

According to Yudkin and Holme (1963:13), the profound and sometimes contradictory convictions of individual members about working mothers and their children paralleled those of countless others and professional people where matched only by the equally profound lack of facts on which these convictions might be based. Some facts were known, it was true, but they were few and scattered in the literature and had received only limited critical assessment. This could refer to the findings on cognitive development found by Carvel (2003), Han, Waldfogel and Brooks-Gunn (2001) and Harris (2010).

The question Yudkin and Holme (1963:7) asked was, how much was the problem really a new one and how much simply due to a new awareness? Were there new features in the present century which gave added emphasis to certain aspects of the situation? More importantly perhaps, what were the trends by which we could judge what the future was likely to bring? According to them the modern working mothers must be seen in the perspective of recent democratic, demographic and occupational developments which have transformed family life. This statement agrees with the findings of Lerner (2001:1) that it is critical to examine other issues that pertain to the family system.

Working class women never had to seek their freedom in the right to work, and few of their financial betters thought that labour ought not to be part of their proper sphere. In 1851, some two-and-a-half million women were employed in the principal occupations. Of these nearly a million were in domestic service, somewhat more than half a million in cotton textiles and rather less than half a million in agriculture. Their conditions of work first came under public supervision in textile factories, in mines and in agriculture by legislation and inspection which was progressively extended to other areas of employment (Yudkin & Holme, 1963:14).

The special problems of women workers were slowly and imperfectly defined. The intermittent anxieties of the 1840s concerning the potteries had swelled by the 1880s into a persistent chorus. Public attention was drawn by the exposed records of prostitution, juvenile depravity, infanticide, baby farming, child murder and employment of mothers as a consideration of the causes of high infant mortality (Yudkin & Holme, 1963:14).

The mid-Victorian, middle-class family, drawing its settled strength from growing numbers and rising incomes, was an authoritarian unit in which social superiorities and inferiorities were erected upon sexual differences. In this setting, the journey to work was women's escape route to freedom from the tyrannies both of marriage and of spinsterhood (Yudkin & Holme, 1963:15).

Studies point out that the typical working class woman of fifty years ago could not expect to finish with child care until she was in her mid-fifties and could then look forward to a further twelve years of life. Today, most mothers have largely concluded their maternal role by the age of forty. At this age, a woman can now expect to live an additional thirty-six years (Yudkin & Holme, 1963:15).

Demographic change has been accompanied by the approach of woman to equality of citizenship, by the transformation of personal relationships within the family, by the rising standard of child care and by occupational diversification. The achievement of political rights after the 1914 - 1918 war has been paralleled by significant, though too often neglected, emancipations in the field of private law

which reflect and endorse the view that the wife is no longer the weaker partner subservient to the stronger but that both spouses are the joint, co-equal heads of the family (Yudkin & Holme, 1963:16). These findings agree with the findings of Jacobs and Kathleen (2004:1) that the breadwinner-homemaker household that predominated during the middle of the Twentieth Century, gave way to a diverse range of work and family arrangements.

The personal freedom of wives was finally secured by the decision in R. F. Jackson in 1891 that a husband has no right under English law to imprison his wife (Yudkin & Holme, 1963:19).

According to Yudkin and Holme (1963:19) the wives capacity to exercise their freedom depended as much upon their financial situation as upon formal law. Married woman today enjoy the same rights as their husbands over property and earning land since 1945. The courts have begun to recognise that they have equal rights with respect to the property embodied in the matrimonial home.

Poor women worked and rich women had nannies and other child care and household help. Prior to the development of our industrialised society, both men and women worked long and hard, often in close proximity – on a farm, tending stores or other businesses in or near their homes, and watching children die at young ages from an assortment of diseases we rarely think about today (Halpern & Murphy, 2005:4-5).

As indicated earlier the reason for women entering the labour markets can be allocated to several factors and the result of them entering the labour market directly affects the family situation (Yudkin & Holme, 1963:43).

If a woman goes unwillingly to work for reasons of sheer economic necessity the result in terms of her own and her children's reactions will be very different from the result when she works to escape from the loneliness of the restricted life she leads with a small family in a block of flats. In addition, the mother who works because she must may be obliged to accept arrangements for the care both of her home and

her children which she would not do if the economic pressure were lighter. Her ability to cope with two jobs will also depend to a considerable extent on her motives for working (Yudkin & Holme, 1963:43). These agree with the findings by Hoffman (1961:2) with regard to the motivation of women entering the workforce.

As was to be expected, their own enquiry confirms all the existing evidence which shows that the overwhelming majority of mothers of dependent children go out to work for financial reasons. Financial reasons can be interpreted in many different ways but, broadly speaking, there are those who go out to work as a matter of urgent economic necessity and those who, in varying degrees, regard the extra earnings as an important addition to the family budget (Yudkin & Holme, 1963:43-44).

Most women that work outside the home do it to increase their standard of living rather than for mere survival purposes. Many respondents amplified their answer by indicating the use to which the extra income was being put for example, to buy a house or to help towards a holiday (Yudkin & Holme, 1963:45).

According Halpern and Murphy (2005:4-5) there are many people who express nostalgia for the “good old days,” when there were stay-at-home moms who greeted children with warm cookies and milk after school, but the nostalgia is for a time that existed only in the black-and-white world of television land, or for the precious few real children who had two parents with sufficient incomes to live a middle-class life, insurance to protect against financial disaster, and none of the other tragedies such as illness, crime, alcoholism, and array of family problems that are far more common than any sitcom television viewer would believe. The idyllic life where tragedies were touched with humour and neatly solved by a wise father who always knew best within their televised time slot was, we are sorry to say, as much a fiction as the cookie monster.

2.3.3 Factors influencing maternal employment

According to McVeigh and Asthana (2010:1) family relationships, family income and the mental health of the mother all change when mothers work and so what they did was to look at the full impact, taking all of these things into account.

Maternal employment in a broad multi-faceted social context, race, ethnicity, children age, family structure, and timing of maternal employment each significantly play a role in results (Goldber, Prause, etc., 2008).

Recent research by the Institute of Social and Economic Research at Essex University found that children of mothers who went back to work within the first three years were slower learners, and a 2008 Unicef study recommended that mothers stay at home for the first 12 months or “gamble” with their children’s development (McVeigh & Asthana, 2010:1). These findings correlate with the findings found by Yudkin and Holme (1963:13), Han, Waldfogel and Brooks-Gunn (2001) and Harris (2010) with regard to the negative findings on cognitive development of children whose mothers return to work within the first year after childbearing.

The new study, led by New York’s Columbia University School of Social Works, did a study on more than 1000 children from 10 geographic areas aged up to seven, tracking their development and family characteristics (McVeigh & Asthana, 2010:1).

The effect of the parenting itself is the key factor. It is hugely important how sensitive you are to your child’s needs. Even for women who have to work more than 30 hours a week, they can make things better for themselves. They just need to take a deep breath on the doorstep, dump the office worries behind them and go in the door prepared to pay attention to all their children’s cues. This is good news for all mothers (McVeigh & Asthana, 2010:1).

There is a notion that mothers should spend all their time with their children but that is wrong. Mothers also need to do things that are for their own benefit, and a career can give them that (McVeigh & Asthana, 2010:1).

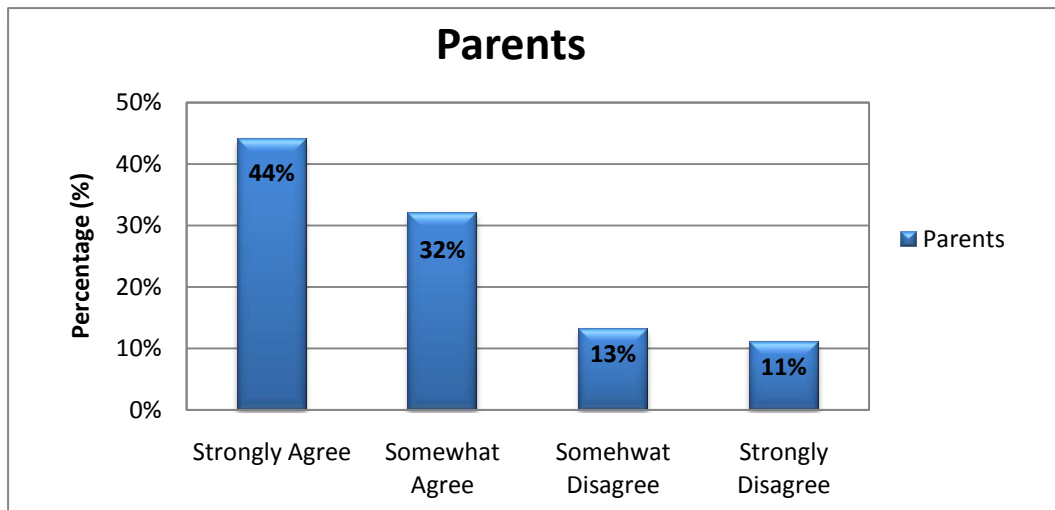
Mothers who have the freedom of choice to work tend to feel a greater feeling of guilt towards their children and families. Nevertheless, although some working mothers, particularly those who have young children, may feel guilty about going to work, this may co-exist with a sense of satisfaction and achievement. In their own investigation among the working mothers, an overwhelmingly high proportion, 88.5 percent, expressed positive enjoyments in their work (Yudkin & Holme, 1963:48).

In these families too, the children may be encouraged and expected to take a more active interest in the life of the household and of the family and may have greater opportunities to show their initiative and to grow independent. Altogether, family life for the children of such working mothers can be richer and fuller, a not unimportant basis for their later development and the eventual founding of their own families (Yudkin & Holme, 1963:154-155).

According to Bianchi (2000), mothers continue to be “sweepers”. Their job is to be very attentive to what needs to be done to assist in covering the goal – to what they must do to ensure their well-being and that of their family. In protecting the goal, first things come first. Mothers may have the luxury of worrying about providing fun, stimulation, and educational outings for their children, but only after they can ensure that their children are clothed, well nourished, and safe. If they have more to attend to than is possible for one person, they ultimately step back and allow others to provide the “fun” or “rewarding” contributions if that step is needed to get the job done.

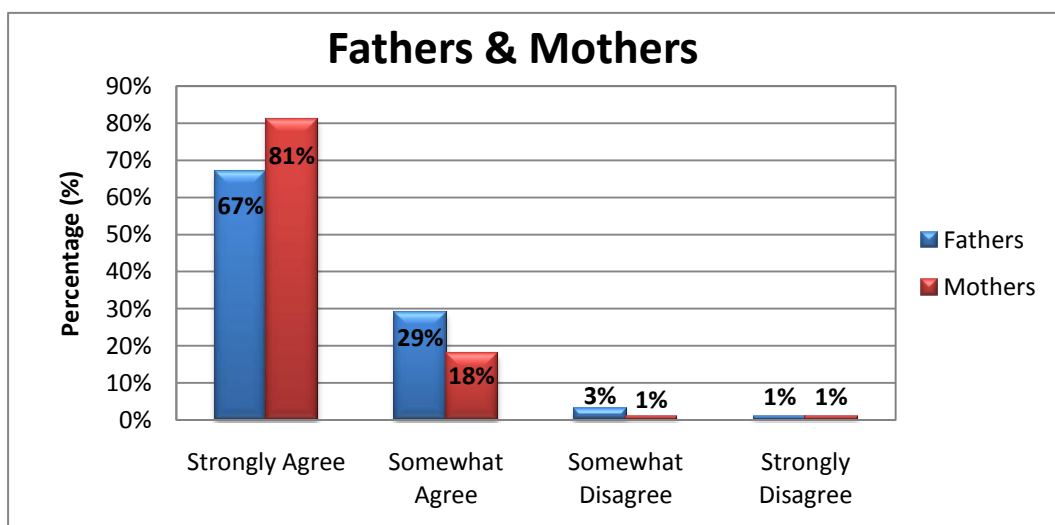
2.3.4 Parents views on maternal employment

In the “Ask the Children” study, conducted by Halpern and Murphy (2005:220), a representative group of employed parents were asked how strongly they agree or disagree with the following statement: “A mother who works outside the home can have just as good a relationship with her children as a mother who does not work”. Overall 76 percent of employed parents agree somewhat or strongly with this statement view Graph 2.1.



Graph 2.1: Mothers who work outside the home can have just as good a relationship with her children as a mother who does not work.

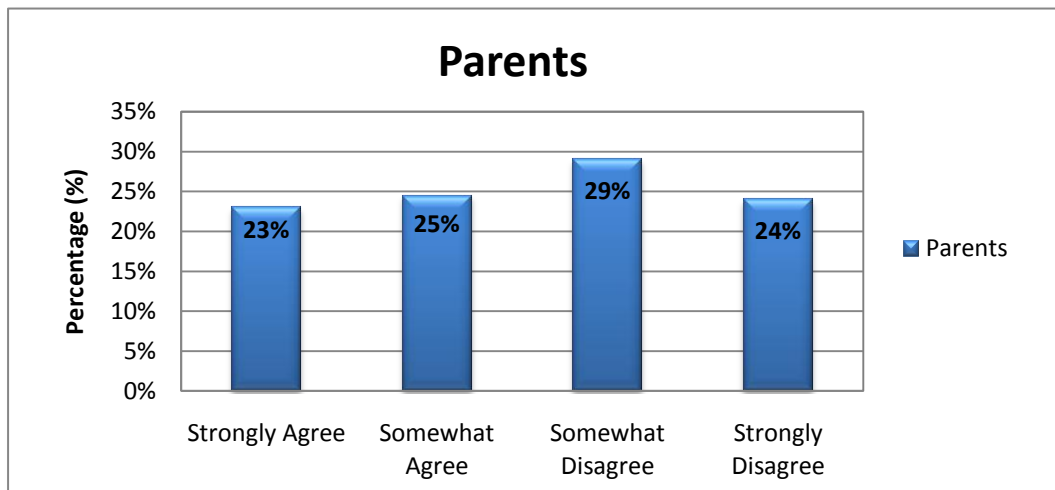
Economics play a role in parents' views. The study asked parents how they feel about maternal employment when mothers really need the money and found that almost all employed parents, 76 percent, somewhat strongly agree that "It is OK for mothers to work if they really do need the money". See Graph 2.2. A closer look indicates that there is some ambivalence, particularly among fathers who are less likely than mothers to believe that mothers should work – even if they need money; 67 percent of fathers strongly agree compared with 81 percent of mothers (Halpern & Murphy, 2005:220-221).



Graph 2.2 It is OK for mothers to work if they really do need the money.

Halpern and Murphy (2005:220-222) conducted research on how employed parents felt about mothers who hold jobs but can afford to stay home. This study reveals even more ambivalence. Overall 47.5 percent agree with the statement “mothers who really don’t need to earn money should not work”, compared with 97 percent who agree that “it is ok for mothers to work if they really need the money”.

Graph 2.3 indicates, not unexpectedly, that fathers with non-employed wives endorse their own lifestyle by being more likely to agree (60 percent) than fathers with employed wives (48 percent) that “Mothers who really don’t need to earn money, should not work”. These findings agree with the findings of Gartell (2005:11) that society holds particular expectations about how mothers should behave, in other words what is expected of them.



Graph 2.3 Parents view on “Mothers who really don’t need to earn money should not work”

Halpern and Murphy (2005:222) probed whether and how maternal employment harms children. They asked children to assess how they were being parented on 12 parenting skills. The research indicators are linked to children’s health development and school success. The questions included the following: “raising me with good values”, “being someone I can go to when I am upset”, “spends time talking with me”, “appreciates me for who I am”, “provides family traditions and rituals”, “encourages me to want to learn and to enjoy learning”, “is involved with my school or child care”, and so forth.

Halpern and Murphy (2005:222) found there are no differences in the responses on grades given by children of employed mothers with those who have mothers at home full time. The positive and negative effects of mother’s employment on children’s social and academic competence are not direct ones; Hoffman & Youngblade (quoted by Halpern and Murphy, 2005:222) stated “they are carried by the effects on the family environment”.

Children Grade 7 – 12	A	B	C	D	E
Being there for me when I am sick	81	11	5	2	1
Raising me with good values	75	15	6	3	2
Making me feel important and loved	64	20	10	5	1
Being able to attend important events in my life	64	20	10	3	3.5
Appreciating me for who I am	64	18	8	6	5
Encouraging me to want to learn and to enjoy learning	59	23	11.5	3	3
Being involved in what is happening to me at school	46	25	14	10	6
Being someone I can go to when I am upset	46	22	14	8	9
Spending time talking with me	43	33	14	6	4
Establishing family routines and traditions with me	38	29	17	10	6
Knowing what is really going on in my life	35	31	15	10	9
Controlling her temper when something I do makes her angry	29	27.5	20.5	12	11

Table: 2.2 The values represent the percentage of children that selected each grade

Holloway, Suzuki, Yamamoto, and Mindnich (2006) found that mothers felt moderately confident about many aspects of parenting. On the subscale, they pertained to their parenting strategies, they were particularly confident about expressing such positive emotions as praise and affection, but were less confident about controlling their negative emotions and worried about their tendency to overreact to small matters.

2.3.5 Maternal employment theories

Louis W. Hoffman has played a significant role in the study of maternal employment and its effect on their children and families. His research ranges over a period of 50

years and more. Below his studies are referenced over the period 1961 – 2000. What seem to be consistent are his results.

Hoffman (1961:2) distinguishes between two theories, the first, “guilt-overprotection” and the second, “neglect”. These two theories are related to the predictions of the mother’s behaviour towards the child. The “guilt-overprotection” theory was expected to be related to women who enjoyed their work and the “neglect” theory to women who did not enjoy their work.

The working mother who enjoys her employment feels guilty about it, and as such it was predicted that she would try to compensate for her employment by showing a great deal of affection towards the child, disciplining the child adequately to leniently, and being careful that the child should not be inconvenienced by the fact that she works (Hoffman, 1961:2). These predictions agree with the findings of Gursoy and Bicakci (2007:2) that working mothers tend to feel guilty about not being able to spend enough time with their children. This guilt feeling results in mothers spending more quality time with their children.

On the other hand Hoffman (1961:2) predicted that the working mother who dislikes her work should be quite guiltless. As such, she was expected to show more of a withdrawal from the maternal role, showing less positive effects and less disciplining. She would expect the child to help with household chores and tasks. The child, feeling somewhat resentful and lacking sufficient discipline and was expected to be assertive and hostile.

Research indicated that where working mothers indicated a positive attitude towards her work, the child associates a more positive attitude toward the mother than do children in a matched group of non working mothers. The difference was significant. When they compared the children of working mothers who have a negative attitude towards their work to the nonworking group, they found the opposite relation, although it was not a significant one (Hoffman, 1961:4).

The second set of findings dealt with the child's perception of coerciveness on the part of the mother. The research found that working mothers are less likely than the non-working mothers to be associated with coerciveness in both groups and that the relation is significant for working mothers who dislike work (Hoffman, 1961:4).

Further findings from the research proved that the working mother who enjoys her work shows the child more affection and uses milder discipline. Although she is emotionally involved in the discipline situation, the involvement is to a great extent one of sympathy for the child. The working mother, who does not enjoy her work, also shows a tendency towards mild discipline although there is less involvement with the child. The research suggests that the dislike work group tends to withdraw from the maternal role (Hoffman, 1961:5).

It was also found that children of working mothers who have a positive attitude towards employment would be non-hostile, non-assertive, and possibly withdrawn and passive, as compared to children of their non-working counterparts, but that the children of working mothers who dislike work would be assertive and hostile. The children whose mothers like work differ in their general lack of initiative-taking and tend to play with children younger than themselves. The children whose mothers dislike work, on the other hand, show assertive behaviour toward their mothers and toward their peers. This assertiveness toward peers includes aggressiveness, use of physical force, and less impulse controls in general (Hoffman, 1961:5-6).

Further analysis revealed that both groups of working mothers' children were more likely to use non-adaptive responses to frustration, showed lower intellectual performance and were somewhat less liked by other children in the class. Being low on performance may be a function of low ability or low motivation. Only children whose mothers were positive about their employment obtained lower scores in these tests than their non-working counterparts, and this difference was significant (Hoffman, 1961:7-8).

The overall pattern of the findings suggests that the working mother who enjoys working is relatively high on positive effect toward the child, uses mild discipline, and

tends to avoid inconveniencing the child with household tasks. The child is relatively non-assertive and ineffective. The working mother who dislikes working, on the other hand, seems less involved with the child altogether and obtains the child's help with tasks. The child is assertive and hostile (Hoffman, 1961:8).

The data do not show conclusively that the reason for these different patterns is the presence of or absence of guilt in the mother, but they are consistent with such an interpretation (Hoffman, 1961:8).

According to Hoffman (1961:7) both the "guilt-overprotection" theory and the "neglect" theory lead to the prediction that the children of working mothers will be more disturbed in general than the children of non-working mothers.

2.3.6 Maternal employment hypotheses

Early research conducted by Hoffman (1974:204-228) reviews studies of the effects of maternal employment on the child. Research has been organised around 5 hypotheses:

- (a) *The working mother provides a different role model than does the non-working mother.*
- (b) *Employment affects the mother's emotional state sometimes providing satisfactions, sometimes role strain, and sometimes guilt, and this, in turn, influences the mother-child interaction.*
- (c) *The different situational demands as well as the emotional state of the working mother affect child-rearing practices.*
- (d) *Working mothers provide less adequate supervision.*
- (e) *The working mother's absence results in emotional and possibly cognitive deprivation for the child.*

Accumulated evidence, although sketchy and inadequate, offered some support for the 1st four hypotheses. Empirical studies of school-age children yielded no evidence for a theory of deprivation resulting from maternal employment, but adequate data are not yet available on the effects of maternal employment on the infant (Hoffman, 1974:204-228). The fifth hypothesis could refer or be related to

findings similar to those found by Han, Waldfogel and Brooks-Gunn (2001) and Harris (2010:1) that cognitive development is lower in children whose mothers return to work within the first year after childbirth.

According to Hoffman (1979:1), in general, maternal employment seems well-suited to the needs of adolescents, appropriate for the emotional and cognitive development of daughters in both adolescence and middle childhood, but there are insufficient data for evaluating effects on infants and some evidence that middle-class sons of working mothers show lower academic performance

Hoffman (1998:3) believed that the path between the mothers' employment status and child outcomes is a long one; there are many steps in between. To understand how maternal employment affects the child, you have to understand how it affects the family because it is through the family that effects take place.

Previous research conducted by Hoffman as well as more recent research indicates that the particular aspects of the family that are affected by the mothers employment status and, in turn, affect the child, are the fathers role, the mother's sense of well-being, and the parents parenting styles, that is, how they interact with their children and the goals they hold for them (Hoffman, 1998:3-4). This agrees with the findings of Lerner (2001:1) and Claessens (2006:1) in terms of the family dynamics that affect maternal employment.

2.3.7 Effects of maternal employment

According to Lynch (2011:1) it is often assumed that the rush of married women into the workplace over the past two decades came at the expense of time spent with their children. A study conducted at the University of Michigan found that working mothers spent more time with their 3 to 12 year old kids in 1997 than did stay-at-home moms in 1981. So did fathers, whether their wives worked or not. The result: children in today's fast-paced America are getting 10 more hours of parental attention each week than they used to (Lynch, 2011:1).

It is believed that maternal employment shapes or gives a particular structure to a young person's day that is significantly distinct from young people whose mothers do not work (Mullan, 2009).

White and ethnic minorities were tested for ethnic group interactions and failed to find evidence of a negative effect of maternal employment (Burchinal & Clarke-Stewart, 2007).

According to Gursoy and Bicakci (2007:2) having a working mother in the family affects the children. Working mothers tend to develop a new way of looking at life, but feel guilty about not being able to spend enough time with their children. This guilt feeling results in mothers spending more quality time with their children. The quality time spent with children is important, and loving relationships affects the development of the child positively. This agrees with the results of Lurch (2011:1) and Hoffman (1961:2) that working mothers are spending more time with their children than non-working mothers and because of the guilt feelings they are spending more quality time with their children.

It was found that working mothers have better relationships with their children. This may be because non-working mothers do not necessarily make the time they spend with their children of the same quality as working mothers, even though they may have more time with their children than working mothers do (Gursoy & Bicakci, 2007:10).

It was also found that working mothers provide their children with more pocket money and allow their children to participate in social activities. In line with information received from the teachers, it was determined that children of working mothers had greater levels of academic responsibility and thus displayed greater success compared to children of non-working mothers (Gursoy & Bicakci, 2007:5-6).

Children of working mothers were least often absent from school and those with mothers at home most often. When they asked teachers to make an assessment of the children's intellectual development and personality the following was found

among primary schoolchildren. More of those with working mothers were regarded by their teachers as of higher than average intelligence compared to those of stay-at-home mothers (Yudkin & Holme, 1963:94).

There were no differences amongst the children of secondary school age. Nye (quoted by Yudkin and Holme, 1963:94) stated during his studies conducted in the United States of America that the adolescent children of working mothers did better in school than the children of non-working mothers. Ahmed (2002:147) agrees with this statement and found the relationship between intellectual capacity and level of academic achievement of children of working mothers is more positive as compared to the relationship between intellectual capacity levels of academic achievement of children of non-working mothers.

There are several considerations that suggest that there can be real and positive advantages for the children. First, the relief from financial strain or, when financial strain is less, the benefit of an increased income. This need not be all in the form of material goods, although the pleasure that such things as new furniture, a car a radiogram or a holiday can bring to the whole family should not be under-rated. A new home or the possibility of further education for the children may also be bought with the increased income (Yudkin & Holme, 1963:154).

Secondly, but no less important, an outside job may give the mother opportunities to widen her interests and her social contacts. The greater sense of fulfillment and achievement that this brings will permeate throughout the whole of the life of the family. Such mothers may be busier, perhaps more tired, but they will also be happier and they cannot fail to convey some of their happiness to the children (Yudkin & Holme, 1963:154). This agrees with the theories of Hoffman (1961:2) on maternal employment and job satisfaction.

The effect on the balance of family life is also relevant. Mothers who work outside their homes can share more interests with their husbands and are also likely to share the household tasks more evenly. More important, they are likely also to share the care and upbringing of their children. The current tendency towards a

close and rather exclusive relationship between mothers and their children would thus be replaced by a more balanced family pattern with the father playing a bigger role in the family affairs (Yudkin & Holme, 1963:154). This agrees with the findings of Claessens (2006:1), Hoffman (1998:1), Lerner (2001:1) and Harpen and Murphy (2005:222) with regard to family dynamics and the impact thereof on the effects of maternal employment.

In the working class, employed mothers indicated a higher level of well-being than full-time homemakers and this, in turn, affects their parenting in positive ways. Even in the middle-class, where employed mothers did not show a higher level of well-being, neither did they show a lower one. While the quality and stability of non-maternal care for infants and young children is important, the mother's employment itself does not seem to have the negative effects often proclaimed. We are dealing here with a change in society, and while there are adjustments yet to be made - more affordable, quality day care; after-school programs, more liberal postpartum leave policies - even these are slowly responding to the realities of Parenthood today (Hoffman,1998:1).

According to McCormick and Tiffen (quoted by Kruger et al., 1996:11) their study found that heredity is of great importance in determining basic traits such as height, weight and strength, although it is unclear what influences the environment may have in this regard. Environmental influences in general have a decisive influence on aspects such as personality traits and interests. As far as intellectual abilities are concerned, it appears that heredity or generic factors determine the potential level that an individual can reach. Environmental influences, however, play an important part in realising intellectual potential.

Children of working mothers react with ease to new situations. They are comfortable and confident, they accept new situations well whether the mother is present or not. These children react appropriately and handles whatever comes their way according to the research conducted by McIntosh (2011:13).

Children of stay-at-home mothers, on the other hand, tend to have some difficulty with new situations. The younger children tend to hang back a little. They tend to suffer from separation anxiety and they seem nervous and scared when the parents are not present. These children are very attached to their mothers; they tend to cling when the mother is present and cry when she is not (Mcintosh, 2011:13).

Although it was found that children of both groups are emotionally stable, each child responds differently, but they all cope, they are all well rounded, well adjusted emotionally and not scared in any way (Mcintosh, 2011:13).

A separate study found that mothers' employment has shown to have a positive influence on the psychological well being of the children. There was a development of positive self image in children, and they also showed better academic achievement (Ahmad, 2002:145). It is believed that the reasons for these findings could be that working mothers try harder to compensate for their absence. These findings agree with previous findings in that quality and not quantity of mothering is important (Ahmad, 2002:145-146).

Lerner and Hess (quoted by Ahmad, 2002:143-144) also agree with the positive effects and state that it appears that mother's behaviour can influence a wide range of their children's behaviour, including their competence. Typically, children of employed mothers are better adjusted, or more independent, and do better in school.

Rejeb (quoted by Ahmad, 2002:141) also agrees and states that working mothers' children are more independent, have more liberal attitudes toward the professional status of women and gender division of labour, and have better grades.

Ahmad (2002:143) verifies the above and found that children of working mothers are more adjusted as compared to children of non-working mothers. There is more positive correlation between intellectual capacity and level of academic achievement of children of working mothers as compared to correlation between intellectual

capacity and level of academic achievement of children of non-working mothers. All of the above findings correlate with the findings of McIntosh (2011:13).

Additional findings found that there is no significant difference in the level of anti-social behaviour between children of working and non-working mothers. Research showed that children of working mothers have less anger control problems, have less emotional distress, have high positive self-esteem and are more adjusted as compared to children of non-working mothers (Ahmad, 2002:147)

On the other hand, Hill, Waldfogel, etc. (2005) found negative effects in terms of increased externalising behavioural problems which evident in each of the comparisons involving mothers who work full time in the first year.

Youngblade (2003) agrees with these negative findings and states that she found significant effects for early employment on teachers' ratings of acting out behaviour and frustration tolerance, to the extent that children whose mothers had been employed during the first year were rated as acting out more and having less frustration tolerance than children whose mothers had not been employed. These results are in contradiction to the results found by Yudkin and Holme (1963:94) and Ahmad (2002:147) who found teachers' results positive.

Twenty years ago, it would have seemed strange to give a talk on maternal employment and not focus on it as a social problem, but there is little in this data to suggest that it is. The mother's employment status does have effects on families and children, but few of these effects are negative ones. Indeed, most seem positive - the higher academic outcomes for children, benefits in their behavioural conduct and social adjustment, and the higher sense of competence and effectiveness in daughters. On the whole, these research results suggest that most families adjust to the mother's employment and in doing so provide a family environment that works well. In two-parent families, the fathers take on a larger share of the household tasks and child care and this seems to have benefits for the children (Hoffman,1998:1). These findings are in agreement with the findings of Yudkin and

Holme (1963:154), Claessens (2006:1), Lerner (2001:1) and Harpen and Murphy (2005:227) on the impact of family dynamics and maternal employment.

It was found that maternal employment is positively related to sports participation. This could be due to mothers that are often in search of after-school care and would probably prefer not to leave their children unattended (Lopoo, 2007). It was also found that maternal employment is related to after-school activities, particularly participation in lessons such as music, dance, language, computers, and religion, for high socio-economic status families and is positively related to sports for low socio-economic status families (Lopoo, 2007).

If lessons and or sports are beneficial to children, then this serves as a potential mechanism that would produce positive effects of maternal employment on adolescent outcomes (Lopoo, 2007).

According to McVeigh and Asthana (2010:1) academics who assessed the total impact of a mother going back to work on a child's mental and social development found that the positive consequences cancelled out the negatives, in other words taking everything into account, the researchers said, the net effect was neutral.

2.3.8 Benefits of the increased income

Researchers tracked the development and family characteristics of more than 1000 children aged up to seven from ten different parts of the US as well as examining factors like family relationships and household income. They assessed children's vocabulary, reading ability and academic test scores, and asked teachers and parents to rate their behaviour (Blake, 2010:1).

Working mothers had better mental health, were able to build healthier relationships within the family, and boosted the household income, all of which aided the child's development. The researchers found children whose mothers worked were also likely to benefit from higher-quality childcare outside the home because their parents could afford to shop around for the best nannies and nursery places (Blake, 2010:2).

Children whose mothers worked under 30 hours a week fared the best - benefits from increased household income, better child-care and happier home life, without losing out on parental interactions (Blake, 2010:3).

According to Rich (2010:1) working mothers can breathe a sigh of relief, after a new study found that, over-all, children whose mothers went back to full-time work within the first 12 months after birth performed worse on a series of cognitive tests, but there were large exceptions: the study also found that children whose mothers improved the family income significantly, or selected high quality child care, or remained sensitive to their children, did not have any cognitive setbacks when compared with children of stay-at-home mothers.

Additional research confirmed the acknowledgement of a number of factors contributing to a child's welfare, not simply whether a mother works or not (Rich, 2010:1).

The development of an individual is especially influenced by the social environment, that is, his/her home circumstances, social class, peer group, formal education, religious background and exposure to media (Kruger et al., 1996:7).

According to the findings of Yudkin and Holme (1963:13), Han, Waldfogel and Brooks-Gunn (2001) and Harris (2010) there are downsides to mothers returning to work during the first year after giving birth. There were also significant advantages – an increase in mothers' income and wellbeing, and a greater likelihood that children receive high quality child-care.

2.3.9 Maternal employment and child gender

Children of employed mothers obtained higher scores on the three achievement tests, for language, reading, and math, across gender, socio-economic status, and marital status, middle-class boys included (Hoffman, 1998:1).

Previous research found some social adjustment differences between children of employed and non-employed mothers, but with less consistency. Daughters of

employed mothers have been found to be more independent, particularly in interaction with their peers in a school setting, and to score higher on socio-emotional adjustment measures. Results for sons have been quite mixed and vary with social class and with how old the children were when they were tested (Hoffman, 1998:1).

One finding from the 1970's was that, in the blue-collar class, sons of employed mothers did well academically but there was a strain in the father-son relationship. This was interpreted as reflecting the more traditional gender-role attitudes in the blue-collar class. The mother's employment was seen as a sign that the father was an inadequate bread-winner, and, if the fathers helped out with housework and child care, they resented it. This was not found in everyone, and it may reflect the change over the years in gender-role attitudes in the working-class - the less stereotypical views becoming more pervasive across class (Hoffman, 1998:1).

Daughters with employed mothers, across the different groups, showed more positive assertiveness as rated by the teacher (that is, they participated in class discussions, they asked questions when instructions were unclear, they were comfortable in leadership positions), and they showed *less* acting-out behaviour. They were found to be less shy, more independent and had a higher sense of efficacy. Working-class boys also showed more positive social adjustment when their mothers were employed, and this was true for both one-parent and two-parent families. For the middle-class boys, although their academic scores were higher, there was little evidence of social adjustment benefits from their mothers' employment. In fact, there was some evidence that those with employed mothers showed more acting-out behaviour than the sons of full-time homemakers (Hoffman, 1998:1).

There is one more result from previous research which was also found in the study, sons and daughters of employed mothers have less traditional gender-role attitudes. Girls with employed mothers were more likely than girls whose mothers were full-time homemakers to indicate that women as well as men could do the activities that are usually associated with men, that is, employed mothers' daughters saw women

as more competent in the traditionally male domain than the homemakers' daughters did. This result held for girls in two-parent homes and girls in one-parent homes (Hoffman, 1998:1).

However Hoffman (1998:1) found, that for boys, employment status was not related to the measure of women's competence to do male activities. On the other hand, in two-parent families, both sons and daughters of employed mothers felt that men could do the female activities, while those with full-time homemakers did not, but this was true only in two-parent families. Subsequent analysis showed that the reason it was only found in two parent families is that it was carried by the fact that, in the two-parent families, fathers' with employed wives were more active in traditionally female tasks and in child care. Thus, maternal employment was linked to the less stereotypical view of what men can do because of the effect of maternal employment on the father's role and, in the absence of a father; the effect did not occur.

Many of the studies that have compared the children of employed and non-employed mothers on child outcome measures such as indices of cognitive and socio-emotional development have failed to find significant differences. The research that has shown reasonably consistent differences has examined the relationships within sub-groups based on social class and gender. Patterns that have been revealed over the years include the following (Hoffman, 1998:1):

- a. *Daughters of employed mothers have been found to have higher academic achievement, greater career success, more non-traditional career choices, and greater occupational commitment.*
- b. *Studies of children in poverty, in both two-parent and single-mother families, found higher cognitive scores for children with employed mothers as well as higher scores on socio-emotional indices.*
- c. *A few earlier studies found that sons of employed mothers in the middle class showed lower school performance and lower I.Q. scores during the grade school years than full-time homemakers. About ten years ago, there were three separate studies that looked at that relationship; two of them found no difference, but the third also found lower scores for sons of employed mothers in the middle-class.*

Sadock (quoted by Ahmad, 2002:141) agrees with the findings and found that, for women, paid employment appears to increase self-esteem and reduce depression. Their children also benefit. Daughters of working mothers are assertive and independent, and they identify their mothers as the person they most admire. Boys of working mothers tend to develop egalitarian views of roles that men and woman play. They also learn independent living skills, such as cooking and doing laundry.

It was found that teenagers of working mothers were 11.7 percent less likely to bear a child compared to teenagers of non-working mothers. Subsequent analysis reveals that the effect of maternal employment varies by socio-economic status. Teenagers who attend relatively wealthy schools and have working mothers were 77 percent more likely to have a birth compared to teenagers with non-working mothers in similar schools (Lopoo, 2004). This is significant on the future success of adolescent children. Should teenage pregnancy occur it will have a devastating effect on the future possibilities of these adolescent children. Ergo, maternal employment can possibly be assumed as not only providing positive effects but also preventing negative effects on children and families.

According to Helms-Erikson et al. (quoted by Halpern and Murphy, 2005:178), studies of adolescent gender role development consistently indicate that cross-nationally, boys are more traditional than girls in their attitudes towards women's roles. Additional research by Kiecolt & Acock; Schulenburg; Von-dracken and Crouter (quoted by Halpern and Murphy 2005:178) indicates that dual earner families in which both parents work are likely to be characterised by more egalitarian views on gender roles, with the distribution of home and work roles between parents likely to be more symmetrical compared to families in which mothers are not employed.

As shown above several studies have indicated that maternal employment is related to increasingly liberal, non-traditional sex-role attitudes, particularly among daughters (Halpern & Murphy, 2005:178).

Adolescent development of non-traditional gender roles has been found to be more likely when mothers hold more prestigious jobs, views themselves as equally as responsible as fathers for providing for their families, and are satisfied in their multiple roles (Halpern & Murphy, 2005:179).

Betz and Fitzgerald; Tsuziki and Matsui (quoted by Halpern and Murphy, 2005:179) agrees with the above findings that daughters of employed mothers have been found to be more self-confident, independent and well-adjusted, to achieve better grades in school and to exhibit more egalitarian gender-role attitudes than daughters of those whose mothers are homemakers.

Willets-Bloom and Nock (quoted by Halpern & Murphy 2005:179), found positive effects of maternal employment for daughters are most likely when daughters perceive their mothers as satisfied and happy in their occupational roles. These findings agree with the findings of Hoffman (1961:2) with regard to job satisfaction theory and the impact on maternal employment.

Undoubtedly, the children of working mothers themselves have views on the subject, though these views have rarely been collected and classified. In a panel conducted by the Y.W.C.A. in the United States, the daughters of working mothers tended to approve of their mothers working and feel that they benefited by their increased responsibility. The daughters of the non-working mothers held the opposite view (Yudkin & Holme, 1963:101).

Willets-Bloom and Nock (quoted by Weer, Greenhaus, etc., 2006), found that girls do not use their mother's employment *per se* in estimating their own future capabilities, but rather their mother's success in balancing work and family roles. Thus, daughters' reactions to their mothers' employment may be contingent on the quality of their mothers' experience.

Gursoy and Bicakci (2007:10), found children of working mothers perceive their parents as more loving and less punishing. This is found to be higher in girls than in boys.

In contrary, a study conducted by Essig and Morgan (quoted by Yudkin & Home, 1996:101), based on a questionnaire to the adolescent daughters of employed and stay-at-home mothers gave the opposite conclusion. The daughters of employed mothers suggested that they felt rather less part of the home and had a less good relationship with their mothers and fathers than the daughters of stay-at-home mothers. Unfortunately, these two groups were not matched on economic level and this is very likely to be an important reason for the difference.

In addition a study conducted by Youngblade (2003), found that boys whose mothers were employed during their first year of life were more aggressive as rated by their peers than other children.

2.3.10 Negative findings on maternal employment

According to Collins (2010:1), the demand of work means mothers that work have less time to prepare proper healthy meals and are more likely to drive their children than walking with them.

Children of working mothers spend more time alone unsupervised, meaning they can eat unhealthy snacks and spend hours watching television. Research was conducted on 8500 British parents and children, where their weights and measurements were taken in 1965, and the process repeated with some of their children in the 1990's. Forty-five years ago, 8 percent of girls and 12 percent of boys had weight problems, but these figures had risen by 50 percent in 1991 (Collins, 2010:1).

As indicated throughout the study, it was found that there are negative findings on cognitive development in young children whose mothers returned to work within the first year of giving birth. These findings were found by McVeigh and Asthana (2010:1), Yudkin and Holme (1963:13), Han, Waldfogel and Brooks-Gunn (2001) and Harris (2010).

2.3.11 Challenges of raising children

A national survey by the Pew Research Centre among 2020 Americans found a widespread belief that today’s parents are not measuring up to the standard that parents set a generation ago. Mothers are seen as having the more difficult job, but they are also judged more harshly than are fathers (Pew Research Center, 2007).

According to the survey they found that 56 percent say that mothers are doing a worse job today than mothers did 20 – 30 years ago. By comparison, somewhat fewer people, 47 percent, say that fathers are doing a worse job than fathers did 20 – 30 years ago (Pew Research Center, 2007).

The biggest challenge in raising children today, according to parents and non-parents alike, is dealing with the outside influences of society. Table 2.3 below indicates the findings of the research in terms of the biggest challenges in raising children today (Pew Research Center, 2007).

BIGGEST CHALLENGES IN RAISING CHILDREN TODAY	
Societal Factors	38%
Society / outside influences	13%
Drugs and alcohol	10%
Peer pressure	7%
TV/Internet/movies etc.	5%
Morals/discipline/parenting	31%
Teaching morals / right & wrong	8%
Discipline / maintaining discipline	8%
Being there / taking care	7%
Teaching respect / manners	3%
Communication	2%
Time/work balance	10%
Time / quality time	5%
Balance work and home	2%
Both parents working	2%

Table 2.3 Biggest challenges in raising children today.

Women’s views of Mothers: 1997–2007 as published by Pew Research Center. Women’s views about how well mothers are doing their job have changed little over the past 10 years. In a 1997 Pew Research Center survey of women, a majority of 56 percent said that mothers of children under age 18 were doing a worse job compared to mothers 20 – 30 years ago. In the current survey, 54 percent of women expressed this view (Pew Research Center, 2007).

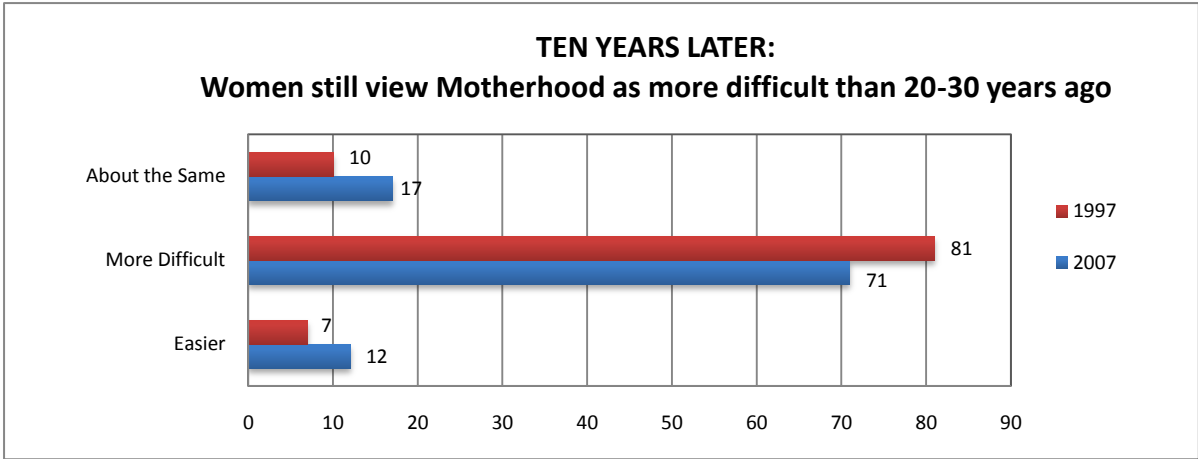
As was the case 10 years ago, middle-aged women are more critical of today’s moms than are younger women. The survey conducted during 2007 indicated the findings below as set out in table 2.4 (Pew Research Center, 2007).

Age of women participating in survey	% Women indicating that mothers are doing a worse job than 20-30 years ago
Younger than 30	41%
Age 30 – 49	56%
Age 50 – 64	66%
Age 65 and older	48%

Table 2.4 2007 Survey results of women indicating mothers are doing a worse job than 20-30 years ago.

Most women say it is more difficult to be a mother today than it was 20-30 years ago. But in Pew’s 1997 motherhood survey, an even greater percentage of women expressed this view (Pew Research Center, 2007).

Just as older women are more likely to say today’s mothers are doing a worse job, they are also more likely to believe the job has become more difficult. Graph 2.1 below reflects the findings of the survey conducted during 1997 and 2007 on women’s perceptions with regard to the difficulty of motherhood (Pew Research Center, 2007).



Graph 2.4 Women’s view to motherhood

The views of mothers and fathers are similar when it comes to the challenges parents face today. Societal factors – including drugs and alcohol, peer pressure, and entertainment media – are the top concerns for mothers and fathers alike. Table 2.5 indicates the results of the survey conducted on mothers and fathers (Pew Research Center, 2007).

PARENTS’ OPINIONS ABOUT THE CHALLENGES OF RAISING CHILDREN TODAY		
Biggest challenge in raising kids	Children 18 years & younger	Children over the age of 18
Societal factors	35%	44%
Society/outside influences	15%	13%
Drugs and alcohol	4%	17%
Keeping kids from trouble	3%	6%
Discipline/Morals/Parenting	28%	34%
Teaching morals/Right & Wrong	7%	11%
Discipline/maintaining discipline	5%	10%
Time/Work balance	14%	6%
Time with kids/Quality time	7%	3%
Balance work and home	3%	1%
Both parents working	2%	1%

Table 2.5: Results of survey conducted on parents with regard to challenges experienced in raising kids today.

The research was conducted under the direction of Princeton Survey Research Associates International during 2007 with 2020 interviews (Pew Research Center, 2007).

The above mentioned survey findings are a clear indication that parenting is not for the faint-hearted and that there are many different influences and opinions as to whether it is harder versus easier or whether we are doing a worse or better job than previous parents in previous decades.

According to additional surveys conducted through Pew Research Center publications they found that women, whether or not they work, believe the more traditional setting, in which the father works full time and the mother stays at home, is best for raising children. Twice as many women say the increased number of mothers entering the workplace is bad, rather than good, for society. The result indicated 41 percent felt it is bad as opposed to 17 percent feeling it is good (Pew Research Center, 1997).

In considering the findings of this survey, it shows that society at large still believe and condemning working mothers for being bad for their children. These findings agree with the findings of Halpern & Murphy (2005:220-222), Strong, DeVault and Cohen (2011:129) and Gartell (2005:11) that society holds particular expectations about how mothers should behave and that social structures reinforce traditional gender norms and behaviours.

According to Pew Research Center (1997) we need to change perceptions and attitudes if we want to make a difference in our children's lives, but this can only be possible once society lays its biased views to rest.

How do mothers rate themselves as mothers? According to surveys conducted through Pew Research Centre publications, they found while mothers clearly value their relationships with their children and derive a great deal of satisfaction from mothering, they do not give themselves overwhelming praise for the job they are doing as mothers (Pew Research Center, 1997).

One third, i.e., 35 percent of mothers with children younger than 18 years, are very satisfied with their own performance, 62 percent are mostly satisfied and only a very few, 2 percent, are dissatisfied. Mothers under the age of 40 are, on balance, more pleased with their performance (Pew Research Center, 1997).

What is very interesting are the findings on non-working mothers. Stay-at-home moms did not rate their parental performance significantly higher than working moms. In fact, college-educated moms who stay at home with their children are among the least satisfied with their job they are doing as mothers, with only 28 percent being very satisfied (Pew Research Center, 1997).

These are all very interesting findings that give a clear indication to why there might be shortcomings in the results of the research conducted. Guilt is such an overwhelming emotion that can trigger so many negative effects and consequences. What the survey above proved was that stay-at-home moms do what they feel is the right thing to do and what is expected of them, but that they still do not feel they are achieving the required or expected results. Stereo-typing and society views are harming the prospects of change. Change is part of our lives and we have to adapt accordingly and search for better and more effective, reliable ways to handle the challenges that we face. By looking back at what was and comparing it to what is, we are not resolving our challenges, but only causing more guilt and concern (Pew Research Center, 1997).

There is broad agreement among the public that it is harder to be a parent today – especially a mother – than it was in the 1970s or 1980s. According to the research conducted, 70 percent of the public indicates that it is more difficult to be a mother today than it was 20 – 30 years ago, while somewhat fewer, 60 percent, say the same about being a father (Pew Research Center, 2007).

2.3.12 Expectations set for working mothers

Although demographics are changing rapidly, social attitudes and policies may lag behind, and the concept of mothers as principal caretakers and fathers as economic providers remains very much in place. One of her key arguments is that

motherhood has become and “institutionalised” role, meaning that society holds particular expectations about how mothers should behave (Sartell 2005:11).

Despite the fact that increasing numbers of professional women are returning to work while their children are still babies, the standards by which these women are measured (and by which they measure themselves) in relation to “good” mothers are higher than ever before (Sartell, 2005:61).

In order to be a “good” mother, women are told (by experts on parenting) to put aside their intellectual and sexual identity, in fact, to lay aside any identities other than mother and wife (because) a mother’s interests are said to be identical to that of her child: the two merge in a role for which she is supposed to be biologically adapted (Sartell, 2005:61).

Good mothers are also required to be emotionally strong and well balanced: “Temporary mood swings are permissible shortly following birth but “real” depression renders women “unnatural” mothers”. Marshall (quoted by Sartell, 2005:61).

In the light of this, it is unsurprising that Ribbons (quoted by Garter, 2005:61) in her work on how mothers raise their children, found that “expert theories of appropriate child rearing can be a source of oppression to women.”

It appears that although the law has moved forward, the attitudes of some agencies towards working women remain firmly in the 1950’s. We read more and more about the dangers of not being there for your children; our children are our future, and the person they really need when they are young is their mother; having children is a full-time occupation in itself. Unsurprisingly, given the kind of pressures described above, all of the women expressed guilt and anxiety about leaving their children in the care of others (Sartell 2005:115).

Ground-breaking study has found that mothers can go back to work months after the birth of their child without the baby's wellbeing suffering as a result (McVeigh & Asthana, 2010:1).

By assessing the total impact on a child of the mother going out to work, including factors outside the home, American academics claim to have produced the first full picture of the effect of maternal employment on child cognitive and social development. Their conclusions are said to provide comfort to thousands of woman who are re-entering the employment market within a year of giving birth (McVeigh and Asthana, 2010:1).

According to Waldfogel (quoted by McVeigh and Asthana, 2010:1), currently a visiting professor at the London School of Economics, this research is unique because the question we have always asked in the past has been: 'If everything else remains constant, what is the effect of a mum going off to work?' But, of course, everything else does not stay constant, so it is an artificial way of looking at things.

2.4 Conclusion

The variety of research on maternal employment and how it influences children has so many facets that it is clear that the measurement cannot only be based on the fact that the mother works. As indicated throughout the Chapter, there is a clear view of the different variables that influence the outcome. The major influences that were identified were the reason for returning to work, job satisfaction, family dynamics and maternal education. Further findings indicated that there is a different impact measured between how it influences boys and girls. Negative impacts were few and of little significance on the future possibilities of success. What seems to be a concern are the traditional views that still overwhelm women with guilt about returning to work.

It was found by several different researchers that children of working mothers are more assertive, better at socialising, better adjusted, more independent and have less traditional gender role attitudes. These are the characteristic traits that will assist children in the path ahead.

According to McVeigh and Asthana (2010:1), academics who assessed the total impact of a mother returning to work on a child's mental and social development, found that the positive consequences cancelled out the negatives, in other words taking everything into account, the researchers stated the net effect neutral.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

In Chapter 2, a detailed literary review was conducted where aspects related to maternal employment and teenage character traits were explored. Different character traits were identified and analysed along with researched findings on maternal employment theories and hypotheses.

In this Chapter, the research design and methodology implemented by the researcher to answer the research question and to achieve the aim of the research will be discussed.

3.2 RESEARCH QUESTION AND AIM

As stated in Chapter 1.4.1, the primary objective was to measure the relationship between maternal employment and teenage character traits. The aim of the study was to determine if there was any relationship between observed / visible teenage character traits and maternal employment.

3.3 RESEARCH DESIGN

Literature reveals two basic research approaches, namely qualitative and quantitative approaches. The purpose of quantitative research is to evaluate objective data consisting of numbers, while qualitative research deals with subjective data that are produced by the kinds of respondents of interviews, according to Stain back & Stain back (quoted by Wolman, Kruger & Mitchell, 2005:8).

According to Stain back and Stain back (quoted by Wolman, Kruger & Mitchell, and 2005:9), quantitative research focuses on reliability and large numbers whereas qualitative research focuses on validity and small samples of people.

For the purpose of this research study, a quantitative method was used to obtain information.

ASPECTS RELATING TO QUANTITATIVE RESEARCH METHODS:

- **Validity**

The extent to which the research findings accurately represent what is really happening in the situation (Welman, Kruger & Mitchell, 2005:142).

- **Reliability**

Reliability is concerned with the findings of the research and relates to the credibility of the findings (Welman, Kruger & Mitchell, 2005:145).

3.4 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The research methodology used was the quantitative research method, as identified above, with a non-probability sample. This type of sample is cost-effective and less complicated (Welman, Kruger & Mitchell, 2005:68).

Within the non-probability sample, the snowball sampling method was predominantly visible. Snowball sampling is identified where a few individuals from the relevant population, in this case, teachers, are approached. These individuals then act as informants and identify other members from the same population for inclusion in the sample (Welman, Kruger & Mitchell, 2005:69).

3.4.1 Participants demographic information

VARIABLE		NUMBER
Gender	Male	14
	Female	56
Geographical area	North West Province	55
	Gauteng	15
Years experience	Less than 1 Year	7
	1 - 5 Years	22
	6 - 10 Years	9
	11 - 15 Years	6
	More than 15 Years	26

Table 3.1 Participants demographic information

3.4.2 Site selection and description

Data for the research project was obtained from school teachers from three different high schools, two situated in the North West Province and one situated in Gauteng.

- **School 1**
This is a combination High School situated in Rustenburg in the North West Province. Out of a total population of 75 (teachers), the sample participating in completing questionnaires was 31 in total.
- **School 2**
This is a combination High School also situated in Rustenburg in the North West Province. Out of a total population of 35 (teachers), the sample participating in completing questionnaires was 24 in total.
- **School 3**
This is a combination High School situated in Germiston in the Gauteng Province. Out of the total population of 65 (teachers), the sample participating in completing questionnaires was 15 in total.

3.4.3 Data collection

The data collection method used for the purpose of this study was in the form of questionnaires. The questionnaire format was based on the summated or Likert scale. The content validity of the questionnaire was evaluated by a subject matter expert, while the face validity was determined by the Statistical Consultation Services of the North West University. **Appendix 1: Questionnaire**

The summated or Likert scale was introduced by Likert (1903-1981). The Likert scale, unlike other scales, may be used for multi-dimensional attitudes (Welman, Kruger & Mitchell, 2005:156).

Rating scale used for the purpose of this study includes the following ratings:

Statement	Almost Never	Sometimes	Neutral	Usually	Almost always
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The statements were based on the perceptions and experience of school teachers in relation to the behaviour and characteristics of teenage children. These were divided into two sections where the first section was based on children in households where both parents are employed and the second section was based on children in households where only the father is employed.

The constructs measured included the following:

- Independence
- Time Management
- Locus of Control
- Ambition
- Self Confidence

Each of these variables is defined in detail in chapter 2.2.

3.4.4 Data analysis

The completed questionnaires were collected and the data were captured for analysis. Questions/statements relating to the different variables were grouped and analysed. The data analysis was performed by the Statistical Consultation Services of the North West University using SPSS (SPSS Inc., 2009).

3.4.5 Ethical consideration

Ethical behaviour is important in research, as in any other field of human activity. Certain ethical considerations, concerned with such matters as plagiarism and honesty in reporting of results, arise in all research, but additional issues arise when the research involves human subjects, in both the biological and social sciences. The principles underlying research ethics are universal and concern issues such as honesty and respect for the rights of individuals (Welman, Kruger & Mitchell, 2005:180).

As stated by Welman, Kruger & Mitchell (2005:181), ethical considerations come into play at three stages of a research project, namely:

- When participants are recruited
- During the intervention and or the measurement procedure to which they are subjected
- In the release of results obtained.

Additional important ethical issues include the following:

- **Competence:** A researcher should not embark on research involving the use of skills in which they have been inadequately trained. To do so may risk causing harm to subjects, abuse of a subjects, negative impact on goodwill, damaging the reputation of the research organisation, and may involve wasting time and other resources (Welman, Kruger & Mitchell, 2005:182).

- **Literature Review:** Any research should be preceded by a thorough review of the literature to ensure, as far as possible, that the proposed research has not already been done elsewhere (Welman, Kruger & Mitchell, 2005:182).
- **Plagiarism:** The use of others data or ideas without due acknowledgement and permission where appropriate, is unethical (Welman, Kruger & Mitchell, 2005:182).
- **Falsification of Results:** The falsification of research results or the misleading reporting of results is clearly unethical (Welman, Kruger & Mitchell, 2005:182).

Methods to ensure that ethical behavior was used include the following:

- The purpose and method of the research study was explained to the relevant population of respondents to ensure that they were aware of the aim of the study and what would be expected of them should they agree to participate.
- The cover page on each questionnaire informed the candidates that the research forms part a post-graduate degree.
- The cover page stipulated that the questionnaire is anonymous and that there is no obligation on the respondents to participate and that there will be no repercussions should they feel the need to withdraw from the study at any time.
- The cover page indicated the estimated maximum duration it would take to complete the questionnaire.
- The cover page included the contact details of the researcher and study leader to promote authenticity and trustworthiness.
- The cover page included a “tear off” declaration slip on the bottom of the page to ensure that the questionnaire is authentic and anonymous.

Cover page detail:



Cover page

This questionnaire is part of my dissertation in the completion of my post graduate degree in Masters in Business Administration (MBA) at the North West University of Potchefstroom.

My Dissertation is based on the relationship of maternal employment to teenage character traits. This study will contribute to previous and future academic research in this field.

This questionnaire is anonymous and you are under no obligation to complete it. Should you chose not to participate it won't be held against you. The questionnaire will not take you longer than 10 min to complete.

Thank you

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Declaration

Please cut/tear off and hand in separately to ensure it stays anonymous

I hereby acknowledge that I understand the purpose of the study and confirm that I am participating out of my own free will.

Signature

Date

3.5 SUMMARY

In this Chapter, the research design and methodology were discussed. In Chapter 4, the research findings will be presented and discussed and, based on that, recommendations will be made.

CHAPTER 4

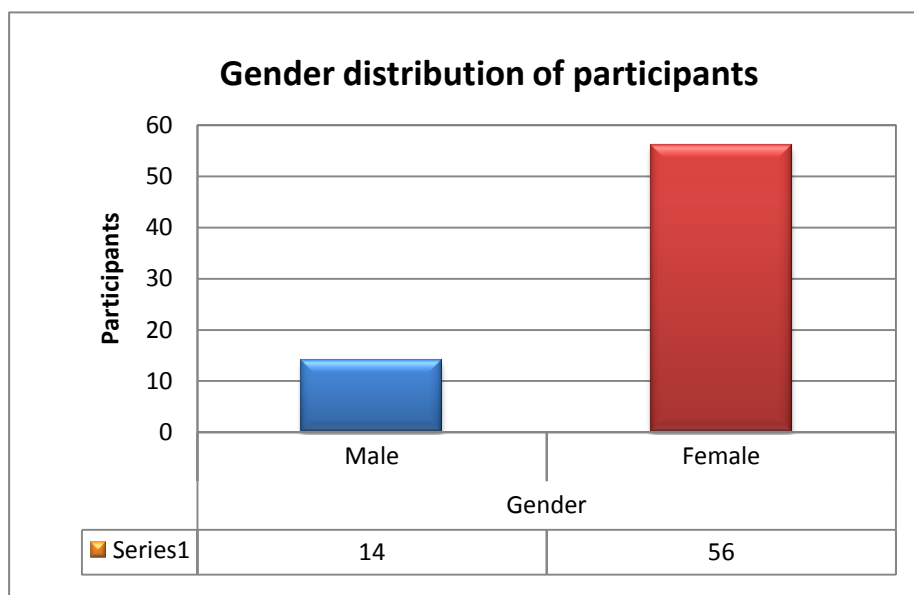
RESULTS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

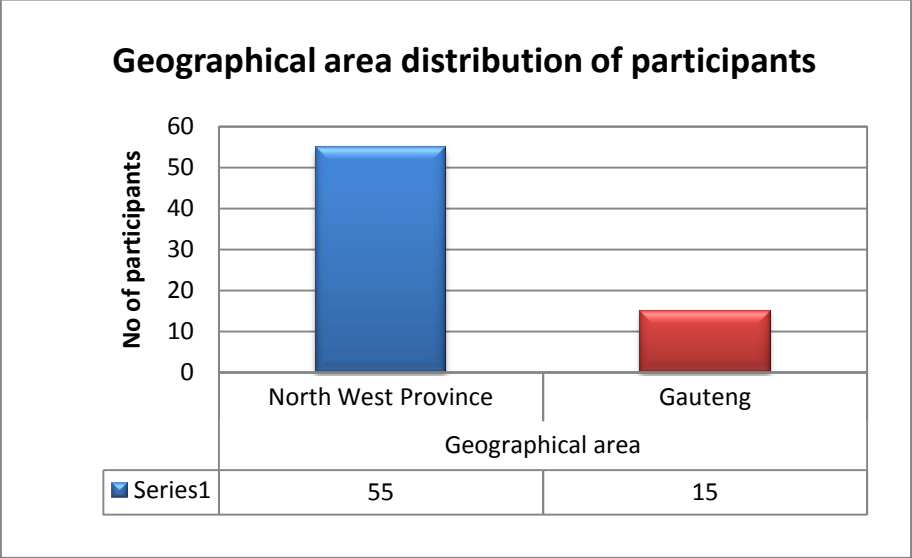
The research design and methodology were discussed in detail in Chapter 3. Chapter 4 will entail the results of research after statistical analysis as well as the conclusions that can be drawn from this statistical analysis and recommendations in terms of the findings and future research.

4.2 RESPONDENTS

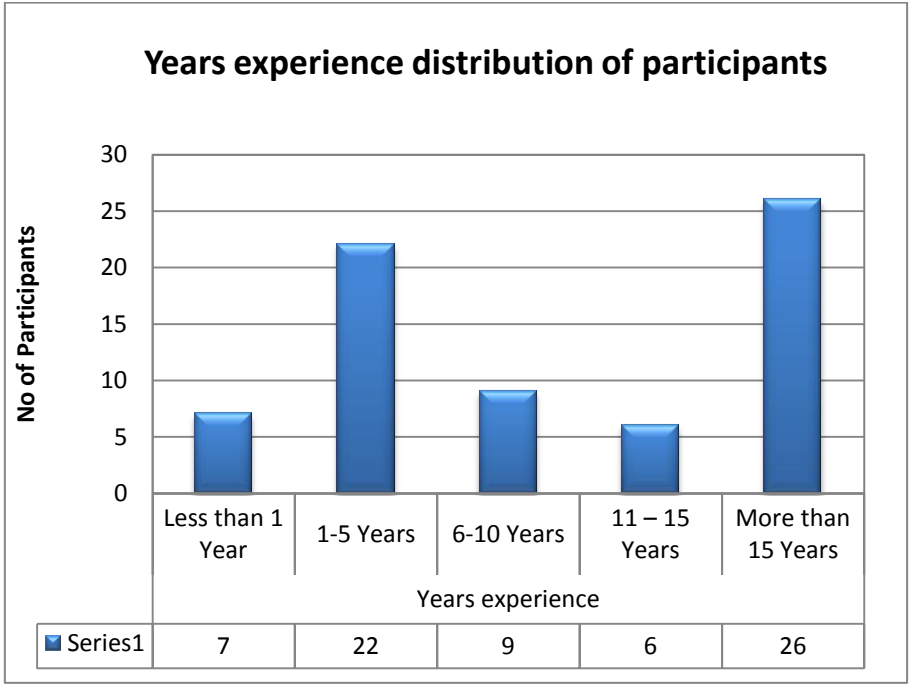
4.2.1 Demographics



Graph 4.1 Gender distribution of participants



Graph 4.2 Geographical distribution of participants



Graph 4.3 Years experience of participants

4.2.2 Overview

Question #	Description	N	Valid %					# Missing	Mean	Std. Dev.
			Almost Never	Sometimes	Neutral	Usually	Almost Always			
SECTION B: Based on the children where both parents are employed										
B1	Dependent upon others	70	10	31.4	22.9	28.6	7.1	0	2.91	1.139
B2	Take responsibility for their own actions	70	5.7	21.4	18.6	34.3	20	0	3.41	1.198
B3	Desire to improve their performance	70	2.9	15.7	18.6	40	22.9	0	3.64	1.091
B4	Submits homework on time	70	5.7	22.9	27.1	34.3	10	0	3.20	1.085
B5	Neglect their physical appearance	70	17.1	50	22.9	10	0	0	2.26	0.863
B6	Blame others for their results	70	17.1	41.4	28.6	12.9	0	0	2.37	0.92
B7	Blames his circumstances for their results	70	20	48.6	15.7	12.9	2.9	0	2.30	1.026
B8	Average achiever	70	2.9	17.1	52.9	25.7	1.4	0	3.06	0.778
B9	Punctual class attendance after breaks	70	4.3	31.4	24.3	30	10	0	3.10	1.092
B10	Can confidently present in front of a group	70	1.4	24.3	22.9	41.4	10	0	3.34	1.006
B11	Can make decisions independently	70	1.4	22.9	20	44.3	11.4	0	3.41	1.014
B12	Are ambitious	70	0	24.3	18.6	47.1	10	0	3.43	0.972
B13	Works hard to obtain good marks	70	0	20	32.9	31.4	15.7	0	3.43	0.986
B14	Perform well under pressure	70	1.4	27.1	32.9	24.3	14.3	0	3.23	1.052
B15	Maintain good time management	70	4.3	35.7	25.7	31.4	2.9	0	2.93	0.983
B16	Can work independently	70	1.4	27.1	20	40	11.4	0	3.33	1.046
B17	Believes in their own ability to change situations	70	7.1	27.1	22.9	28.6	14.3	0	3.16	1.187
B18	Achieve objectives	70	1.4	21.4	34.3	30	12.9	0	3.31	1.001
B19	Prepared for class discussions and tests	70	5.7	25.7	27.1	34.3	7.1	0	3.11	1.057
B20	Are independent	70	0	28.6	21.4	37.1	12.9	0	3.34	1.034
B21	Concerned with meeting deadlines	70	8.6	17.1	31.4	34.3	8.6	0	3.17	1.09

Table 4.1 Overview section B

Question #	Description	N	Valid %					# Missing	Mean	Std. Dev.
			Almost Never	Sometimes	Neutral	Usually	Almost Always			
SECTION C: Based on children where only the father is employed										
C1	Dependent upon others	70	4.3	50	20	20	5.7	0	2.73	1.02
C2	Take responsibility for their own actions	70	5.7	37.1	31.4	22.9	2.9	0	2.8	0.957
C3	Desire to improve their performance	70	0	20	28.6	44.3	7.1	0	3.39	0.889
C4	Submits homework on time	70	5.7	24.3	22.9	37.1	10	0	3.21	1.102
C5	Neglect their physical appearance	70	18.6	51.4	25.7	4.3	0	0	2.16	0.773
C6	Blame others for their results	70	10	52.9	25.7	10	1.4	0	2.4	0.858
C7	Blames his circumstances for their results	70	10	47.1	28.6	12.9	1.4	0	2.49	0.897
C8	Average achiever	70	0	34.3	48.6	17.1	0	0	2.83	0.701
C9	Punctual class attendance after breaks	70	2.9	27.1	34.3	30	5.7	0	3.09	0.959
C10	Can confidently present in front of a group	70	0	38.6	22.9	37.1	1.4	0	3.01	0.909
C11	Can make decisions independently	70	0	41.4	21.4	35.7	1.4	0	2.97	0.916
C12	Are ambitious	70	1.4	20	34.3	42.9	1.4	0	3.23	0.837
C13	Works hard to obtain good marks	70	1.4	22.9	22.9	44.3	8.6	0	3.36	0.979
C14	Perform well under pressure	70	4.3	37.1	32.9	21.4	4.3	0	2.84	0.958
C15	Maintain good time management	70	1.4	31.4	31.4	31.4	4.3	0	3.06	0.931
C16	Can work independently	70	0	41.4	28.6	28.6	1.4	0	2.9	0.871
C17	Believes in their own ability to change situations	70	5.7	32.9	30	30	1.4	0	2.89	0.956
C18	Achieve objectives	70	1.4	21.4	28.6	44.3	4.3	0	3.29	0.903
C19	Prepared for class discussions and tests	70	2.9	21.4	20	50	5.7	0	3.34	0.976
C20	Are independent	70	1.4	38.6	34.3	22.9	2.9	0	2.87	0.883
C21	Concerned with meeting deadlines	70	4.3	21.4	31.4	35.7	7.1	0	3.2	1.001

Table 4.2 Overview section C

4.3 RESULTS

4.3.1 Background

Various tests of deviation from normality, which is a pre-requisite when using parametric tests, were performed. It was concluded that, although the data is not normally distributed, in most instances the deviation was not severe. However, both parametric, more robust parametric and non-parametric tests were performed where necessary to ensure accurate representation.

Statistical significance, measured using p-value, is used to generalise results to the larger population. It is dependent on a random sample. This sample was not a random sample, so reporting p-values were measured for the sake of completeness.

Investopedia (2011) defines statistical significance as a result that is not likely to occur randomly, but rather is likely to be attributable to a specific cause. Statistical significance can be strong or weak, and is important to research in many math- and science-related fields, including medicine, sociology, psychology and biology. Statistical significance does not always indicate practical significance.

According to Kirk (1996), statistical significance is concerned with whether a research result is due to chance or sampling variability, and practical significance is concerned with whether the result is useful in the real world.

According to Ellis and Steyn (2003), practical significance can be understood as a large enough difference to have an affect in practice.

4.3.2 Correlation

Correlation is concerned with the strength of the relationship and can be determined through the output size of the value of the coefficient. This can range from -1 to 1. This value indicates the strength of the relationship between two variables (Pallant, 2007:132).

A correlation of 0 indicates no relationship at all, a correlation of 1 indicates a perfect positive correlation, and a value of -1 indicates a perfect negative correlation (Pallant, 2007:132)

According to Cohen (quoted by Pallant, 2007:132), the following guideline is suggested when measuring practical significance via a correlation co-efficient.

Practical Significance Correlation co-efficient (r)	
Small	.1 to .29
Medium	.30 to .49
Large	.50 to 1.0

Table 4.3 Practical significance guideline

After statistical analysis using Spearman’s rho test for bivariate correlation, the following was found: Several questions indicating a small practical significance, several questions indicating a medium practical significance and several indicating a large practical significance. **Appendix 2:** Correlation results tables.

The strength of the relationship of questions indicates the following highly correlated findings that can be interpreted as follows:

Questions within section B

(Respondents were asked to evaluate teenagers they have encountered coming from a home environment where both parents are employed)

- Question 3, which stated “*Want to improve performance*”, correlated highly with question 2, 12 and 13 which stated “*Take responsibility for their own actions*”, “*Are ambitious*” and “*Work hard to obtain good marks*”, respectively. This implies that respondents who felt that teenagers wanted to improve their performance also took responsibility for their actions, were ambitious and worked hard to obtain good marks.

- Question 6 which stated *“Blame others for their results”* correlated highly with question 7 which stated *“Blame circumstances for their results”*. This implies that respondents who felt that teenagers blame others for their results tend to also blame circumstances for their results.
- Question 9 which stated *“Punctual class attendance”* correlated highly with questions 10, 18 and 19 which stated *“Can confidently present in front of a group”*, *“Achieved goals”* and *“Prepared for class discussions and tests”*, respectively. This implies that respondents who felt that teenagers who have punctual class attendance are usually prepared for class discussions, can present confidently in front of a group and achieve their goals.
- Question 14 which stated *“Perform well under pressure”* correlated highly with questions 11, 13, 16 – 20, which stated *“Can make decisions independently”*, *“Work hard to obtain good marks”*, *“Work independently”*, *“Believe in their own ability”*, *“Achieve objectives”*, *“Prepared for class discussions and tests”* and *“Are independent”*, respectively. This implies that respondents who felt that teenagers work well under pressure also felt that they work independently, they are prepared, believe in themselves and that they achieve their objectives.
- Question 15 which stated *“Maintain good time management”* correlated highly with questions 10-13 and 16-20 which stated *“Can confidently present in front of a group”*, *“Can make decisions independently”*, *“Are ambitious”*, *“Work hard to obtain good marks”*, *“Work independently”*, *“Believe in their own ability”*, *“Achieve objectives”*, *“Prepared for class discussions and tests”* and *“Are independent”*, respectively. This implies that respondents who felt that teenagers who maintain good time management are also seen as prepared, ambitious, independent, believe in their own ability and achieve their objectives.

Correlations within section C

(Respondents were asked to evaluate teenagers they have encountered coming from a home environment where only the father is employed)

- Question 3 which stated *“Want to improve performance”* correlated highly with questions 2, 12, 13, 18, 19 & 21 which stated *“Take responsibility for their own actions”, “Are ambitious”, “Works hard to obtain good marks”, “Achieves objectives”, “Prepared for class discussions and tests”* and *“Concerned with meeting deadlines”, respectively*. This implies that respondents who felt that teenagers who wanted to improve their performance took responsibility for their own actions, had ambition, were prepared, worked hard to obtain good marks, were concerned with meeting deadlines and achieved their objectives.
- Question 6 which stated *“Blame others for their results”* correlated highly with question 7 which stated *“Blame circumstances for their results”*. This implies that respondents who felt that teenagers blame others for their results tend to also blame circumstances for their results.
- Question 9 which stated *“Punctual class attendance”* was highly correlated with questions 4, 15, 18, 19 and 21 which stated *“Submit homework on time”, “Maintain good time management”, “Achieve objectives”, “Prepared for class discussions”* and *“Concerned with meeting deadlines”, respectively*. This implies that respondents felt that teenagers with punctual class attendance submit their homework on time, obtain good time management, are prepared for class discussions and are generally concerned with meeting deadlines.
- Question 10 which stated *“Can confidently present in front of a group”* was highly correlated with questions 2, 11, 12, 14 & 16 which stated *“Take responsibility for their own actions”, “Can make decisions independently”, “Are ambitious”, “Perform well under pressure”* and *“Work independently”, respectively*. This implies that respondents, who felt that teenagers who confidently present in front of a group also take responsibility for their own actions, are independent and work well under pressure.

- Question 12 which stated “*Are ambitious*” was highly correlated with questions 2, 14, 15, 16, 17, 20 & 21 which stated “*Take responsibility for their own actions*”, “*Perform well under pressure*”, “*Maintain good time management*”, “*Work independently*”, “*Believe in their own ability*”, “*Are independent*” and “*Concerned with meeting deadlines*”, respectively. This implies that respondents who perceived teenagers as ambitious also found them to be responsible, independent, had self-believe and were concerned with meeting deadlines.
- Question 13 which stated “*Work hard to obtain good marks*” was highly correlated with questions 4, 15, 18, 19 & 21 which stated “*Submits homework on time*”, “*Maintain good time management*”, “*Achieve objectives*”, “*Prepared for class discussions and tests*” and “*Concerned with meeting deadlines*”, respectively. This implies that respondents who perceived teenagers as working hard to obtain good marks also found them to be concerned with meeting deadlines, maintaining good time management, being prepared and achieving objectives.

Within both scenarios, the same questions or statements were made and had to be evaluated. Therefore, the results indicated similar findings within both scenarios. The only differences were in terms of having the traits or not.

The conclusion is that teenagers, irrespective of their household dynamics, who are identified as having a specific tendency towards a certain character trait tend to have several other traits to support it and vice versa. If they don't display the character trait, they tend to lack several other traits that support that trait, for example, generally within these research findings, teenagers who were perceived to have ambition were also seen as responsible, independent, having self-confidence, concerned with time management and achieving objectives. In the opposite scenario teenagers who are perceived as having low ambition tend to also be perceived as individuals who are irresponsible, more dependent, lower self confidence, less concerned with time management and have a smaller chance of meeting objectives.

4.3.3 Construct

The following constructs were identified and grouped together:

CONSTRUCT	QUESTIONS RELATED TO THE CONSTRUCT
Time management	4, 9, 15, 19 & 21
Locus of control	2, 6 (Reverse), 7 (Reverse) & 17
Ambition	3, 8, 12, 13 & 18
Independence	(1 Removed, too similar), 11, 14, 16 & 20
Self esteem	5 (Treat separately) 10 (Treat separately)

Table 4.4 Grouping of constructs

4.3.4 Reliability

Kline (quoted by Field, 2005:668) notes that, although the generally accepted value of .8 is appropriate for cognitive tests such as intelligence tests, for ability tests, a cut-off point of .7 is more suitable. He goes on to say that, when dealing with psychological constructs, values below even .7 can, realistically, be expected because of the diversity of the constructs being measured.

Cronbach's $\alpha > 0.7$. If larger than 0.07, then we can group questions. This analysis measures consistency of scale.

Construct from theory was tested with the questions above. It was clear to see that Question 6 and 7 needed to be reversed. Some questions were very similar, but did not have a dramatic impact on reliability. The researcher also felt that, although questions are highly correlated and similar, they still measure different aspects of the construct.

Construct	Section B			Section C		
	Mean (\bar{x})	Std Dev (s)	Reliability (α)	Mean (\bar{x})	Std Dev (s)	Reliability (α)
Time Management	3.1029	.8120	.822	3.18	.8432	.901
Locus of Control	3.4750	.7987	.714	3.20	.6221	.607
Ambition	3.3743	.6961	.764	3.2171	.6404	.792
Independence	3.28	.8274	.841	2.9714	.6445	.728
Self Confidence 1	2.26	.863	n/a	2.16	.773	n/a
Self Confidence 2	3.34	1.006	n/a	3.01	.909	n/a

Table 4.5 Construct analysis of section B and C

The constructs measured in the questionnaire had a Cronbach alpha co-efficient equal to or greater than 0.7 and could thus be regarded as reliable in measuring the outcome. The measurement was measured for both scenarios. *Section B* – households where both parents were employed: time management (.822), locus of control (.714), ambition (.746) and independence (.841). *Section C* – households where only the father was employed: time management (.901), ambition (.792) and independence (.728).

The only construct that had a Cronbach alpha of lower than .7 and could therefore not be regarded as internally consistent and reliable in measuring the outcome of constructs, was: locus of control (.607)

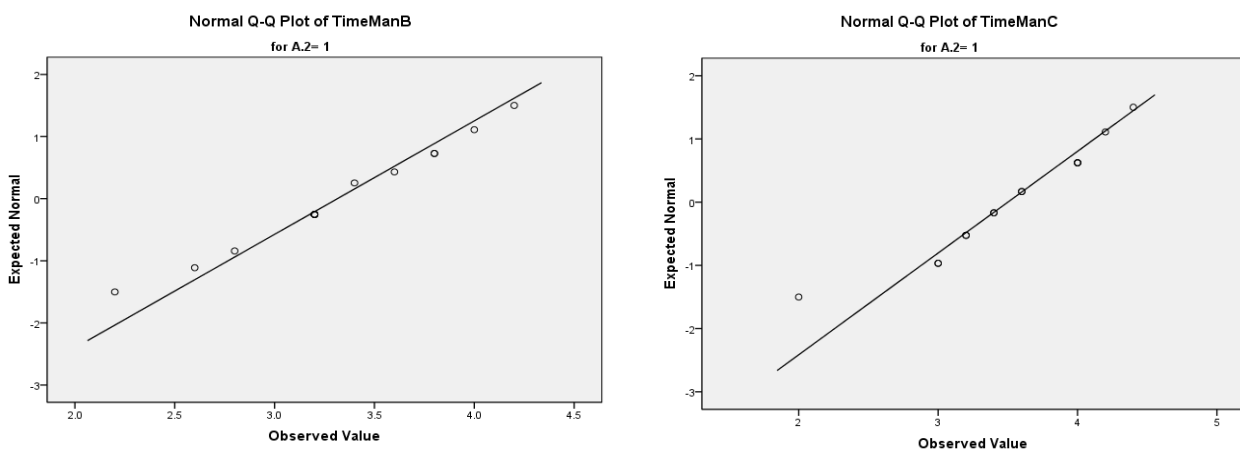
The questions that measure self confidence include questions 5 and 10. They were treated separately due to each question measuring different aspects of self confidence. Question 5 was based on the teenagers' appearances in terms of being neat and tidy, therefore displaying self confidence in their appearances. The second question 10 was based on the teenagers' ability to present in front of a group.

Table 4.5 indicates the questions that were grouped together to measure a specific construct. Each of these constructs are defined and explained within Chapter 2.

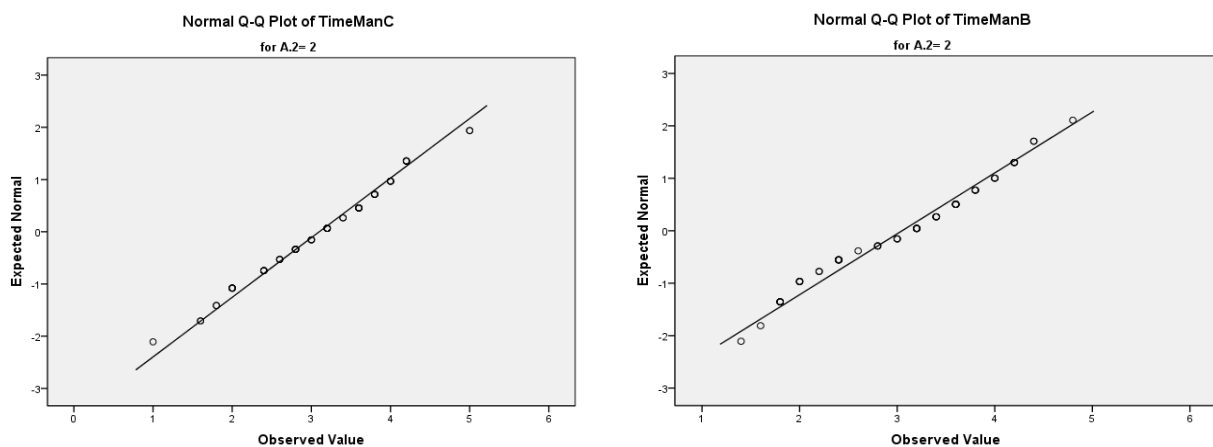
4.3.5 Male versus female

In comparing genders, male versus female, note that if one group has less respondents than the other; the results may be affected. However, the severity of this is difficult to determine.

The following analysis were conducted: Q-Q plots to test normality and since no severe deviations were found, the independent t-test, equal variances not assumed, was used to determine whether there was a significant difference between the mean responses of males and females effect size.



Graph 4.4 Extract from Q-Q plots for time management drawn to evaluate normality of male respondents within section B and C



Graph 4.5 Extract from Q-Q plots for time management drawn to evaluate normality of female respondents within section B and C

	Gender	N	Mean	Std Dev	p-value	Effect Size
Self confidence (Question 10) of teenagers within households where both parent are employed	Male	14	3.79	.802	.039	.539
	Female	56	3.23	1.027		
Locus of control of teenagers within households where only the father is employed	Male	14	3.446	.394	.031	0.470
	Female	56	3.138	.655		
Independence of teenagers within households where only the father is employed	Male	14	3.257	.649	.079	0.550
	Female	56	2.900	.629		

Table 4.6 Comparing genders for significance

There was a difference between the mean responses for males and females for section B (households where both parents were employed), question 10, section C (households where only the father was employed), locus of control and section C (households where only the father was employed), independence as indicated above.

- Self confidence measured in question 10, section B, which measured if teenage children can present confidently in front of a group, indicated a visible effect size of larger than 0.5, as well as a statistical significance due to the p-value being smaller than 0.05. This indicates that there is practical significance within the results where male participants perceived teenagers within households where both parents were employed to be more confident in presenting in front of a group while their female counterparts did not always share this option.
- Locus of Control within section C, which measured teenagers' locus of control within households where only the father was employed, indicated statistical significance due to the p-value being smaller than 0.05, although the practical significance (effect size) is just below the border of visible effect size. Therefore, this construct indicates that there is statistical significance, although the practical significance is just below the border. This indicates that male participants found that teenagers within households where only the father was employed have a higher tendency towards an internal locus of control while their female

counterparts did not always share this option, although the practical significance is found to be just below what is perceived as practically visible.

- Independence measured within section C, which was concerned with teenagers within households where only the father was employed, indicates that this construct is not statistically significant due to the p-value being larger than 0.05, although the effect size indicates a value larger than 0.5 which indicates a visible effect. Therefore, this construct indicates that male participants felt that teenagers within households where only the father was employed are more independent while their female counterparts did not always share this option.

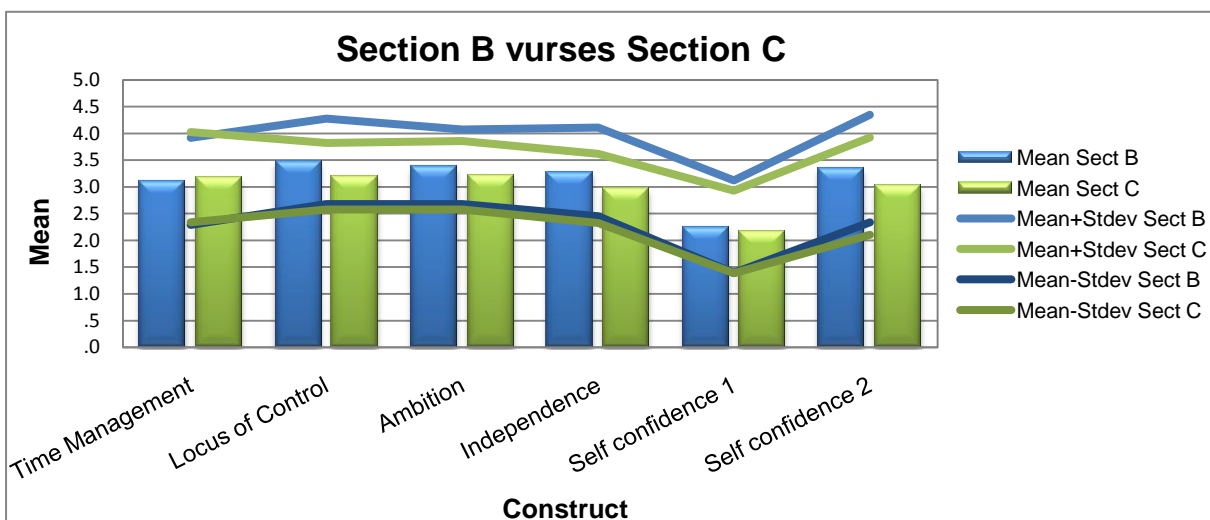
4.3.6 Level of experience

ANOVA, as well as two more robust tests, the Welch and Brown-Forsythe tests that compare the means for multiple groups, were performed to determine whether a respondent's level of experience influenced his or her option, but no real differences were found.

4.3.7 Compare section B and section C

Look at how respondents changed their responses when asked to evaluate children in general, given the following two scenarios:

- Teenagers within households where both parents are employed (B)
- Teenagers within households where only the father is employed (C)



Graph 4.6 Mean distribution within constructs section B versus C

There is no noticeable difference indicated from the mean and standard deviation results, although there is a slight indication that respondents generally gave higher ratings towards teenagers within households where both parents are employed than those where only the father was employed.

Additional analyses were conducted to determine the significance of these findings.

					p-value		Eff. Size
					Paired	Wilcoxon	Wilcoxon
		N	Mean	Std. Dev.			
Pair 2	Self confidence (Question 10) Teenagers within households where both parents are employed	70	3.34	1.006	.022	.028	-0.1855
	Self confidence (Question 10) Teenagers within households where only the father is employed	70	3.01	.909			
Pair 3	Locus of control Teenagers within households where both parents are employed	70	3.475	.799	.044	.685	-.00343
	Locus of control Teenagers within households where only the father is employed	70	3.200	.622			
Pair 6	Independence Teenagers within households where both parents are employed	70	3.280	.827	.014	.044	-0.1704
	Independence Teenagers within households where only the father is employed	70	2.971	.645			

Table 4.7 Comparison section B and C for significance

Pairs 2, 3 & 6 show a statistical significance with a p-value smaller than 0.05 within the paired results, although the Wilcoxon analysis only found pairs 2 and 6 to be statistically significant with a p-value smaller than 0.05.

According to the statistical Wilcoxon analysis of the effect size of the different pairs, no practical significance was found. All show a value of smaller than 0.2.

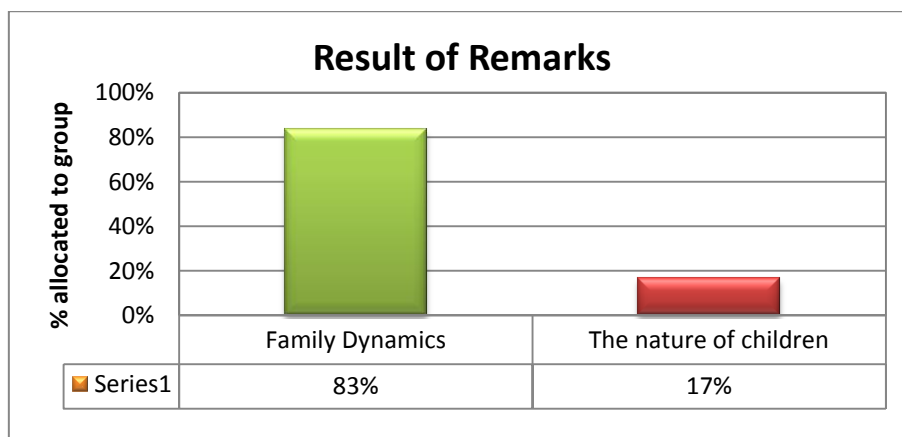
This tells us that the given scenario didn't necessarily influence the responses received or evaluation of children in general with regard to independence, self confidence, locus of control, time management or ambition.

According to the results obtained in table 4.7, it can be assumed that the respondents' responses were more consistent in their views within scenario C, where only the father was employed. This can be implied due to the standard deviation being smaller than the results within scenario B, where both parents were employed. These measurements were found within the construct of perceived locus of control, independence and self confidence.

4.3.8 Analysis of remarks

The results of the remarks made on the questionnaires can be grouped together and the first group is concerned with not knowing the children's family dynamics therefore not really knowing if there is a difference. This could perhaps be due to the low experience and young age of several teachers. Their views were concerned with the perceived nature of children being irresponsible and lazy, not knowing where they are heading. They consider children to have no interest in school.

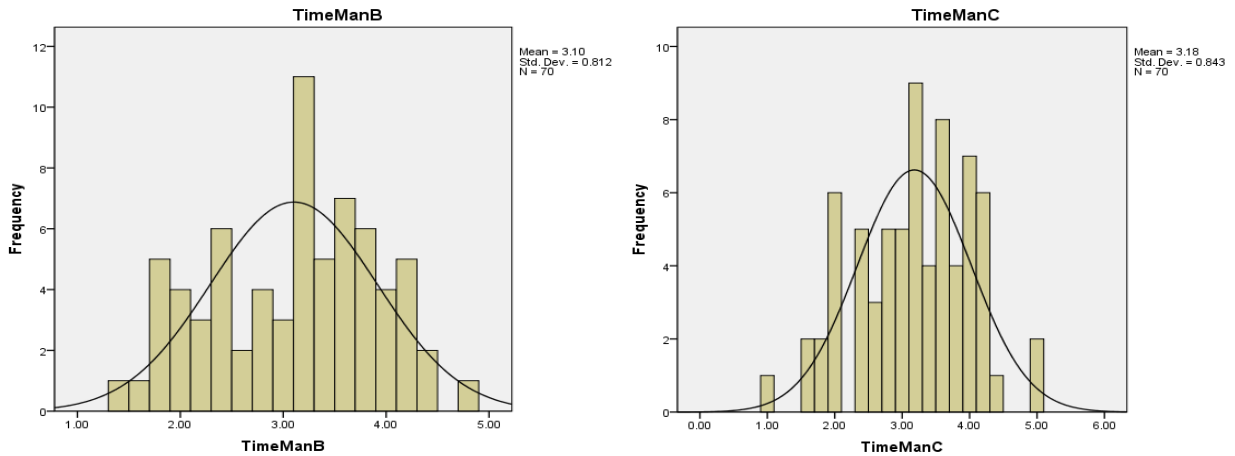
The second group contributes the differences in children to family dynamics. They felt that it does not really matter if the mother is employed or not. The effect can rather be based on what the family dynamics are in terms of quality time spent with children, finances available, motivation and stability within the home.



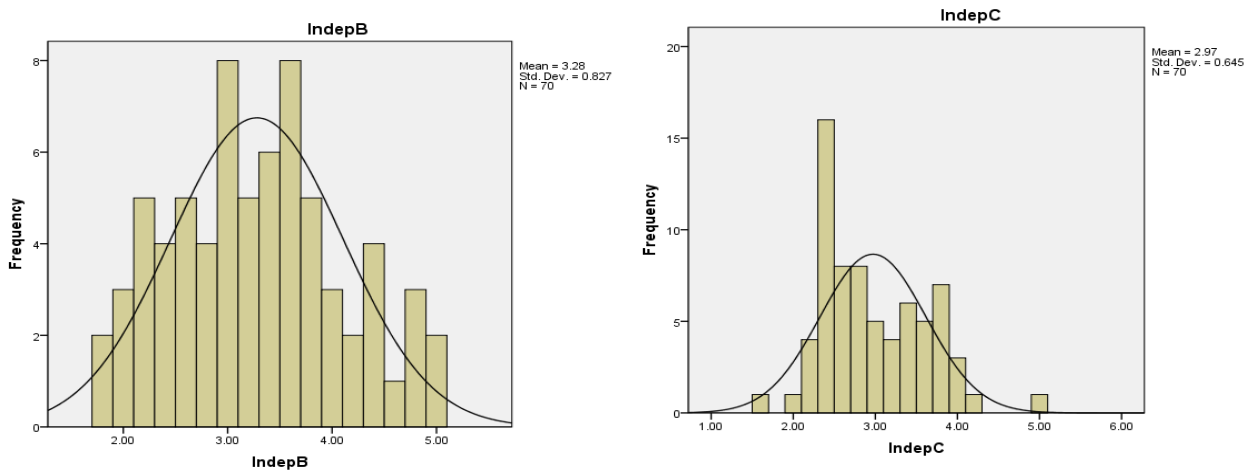
Graph 4.7 Result of remarks

4.4 DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

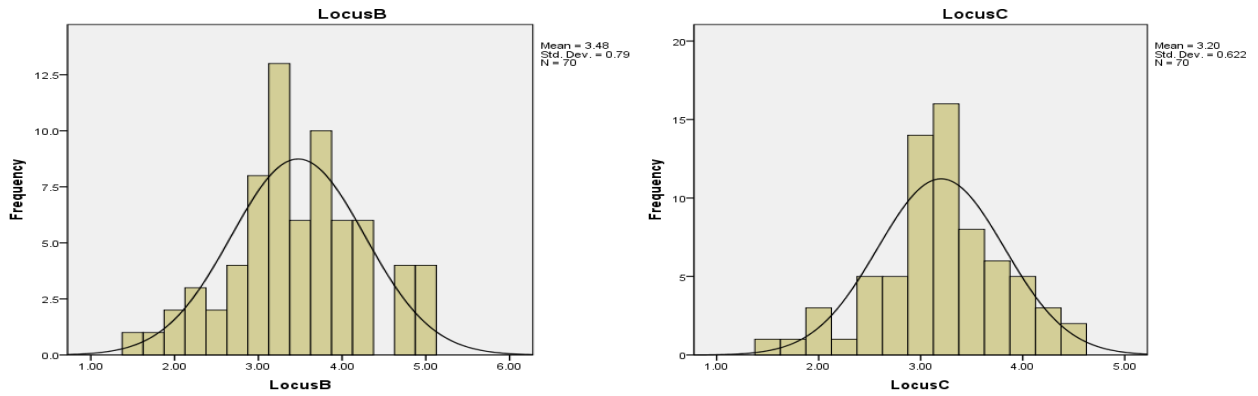
4.4.1 Section B versus section C



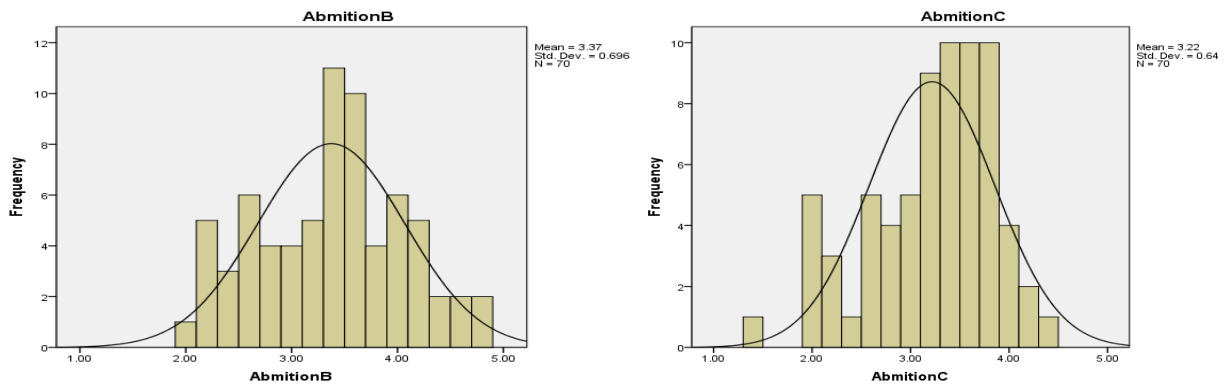
Graph 4.8 Time management frequency distribution of participants within section B (households where both parents are employed) and C (households where only the father is employed)



Graph 4.9 Independence frequency distribution of participants within section B (households where both parents are employed) and C (households where only the father is employed)

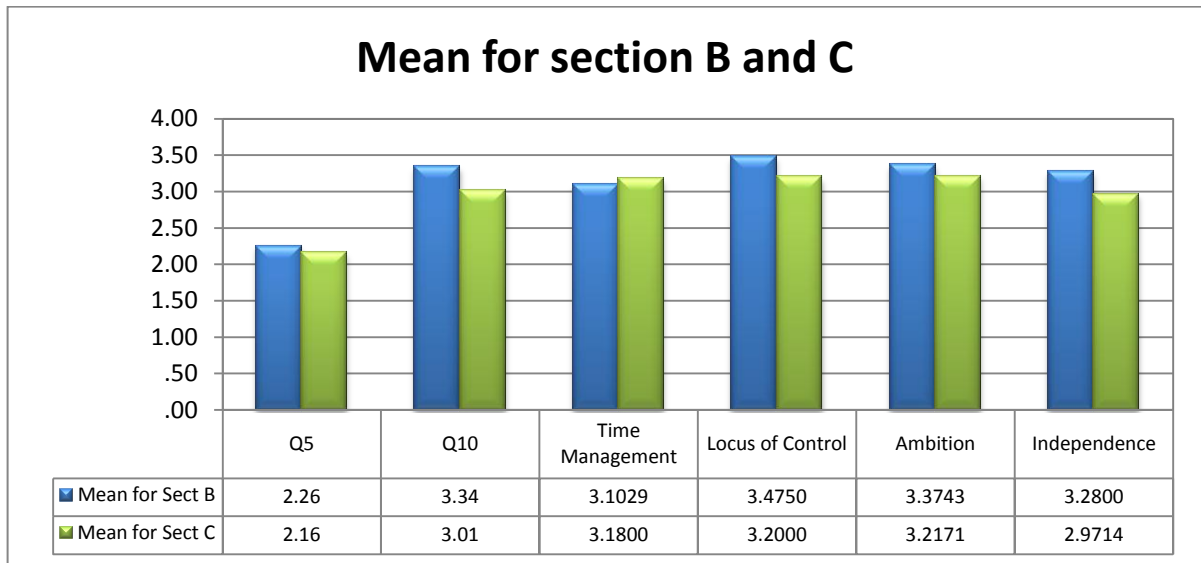


Graph 4.10 Locus of control frequency distribution of participants within section B (households where both parents are employed) and C (households where only the father is employed)



Graph 4.11 Ambition frequency distribution of participants within section B (households where both parents are employed) and C (households where only the father is employed)

Given the relative standard deviation at each of the sections it could be concluded that there was no significant consensus by the respondents concerning their feelings towards the questions within both sections.



Graph 4.12 Mean comparison between section B and C

Considering the statistical results indicated above, the conclusion can be drawn that teenagers from households where both parents are employed are considered to have a higher self confidence, internal locus of control, higher ambition and are less dependent than those of teenagers from households where only the father is employed. The only construct that differs from the other constructs is time management where the second scenario, where only the father is employed, is slightly higher in their favour.

4.5 CONCLUSION

Based on the findings emanating from the research, the following conclusions are drawn:

As indicated in Chapter 3, several of the questions within each section were highly correlated which indicated statistical and practical significance, in other words, as stated by Kirk (1996), statistical significance: whether a research result is due to chance or sampling variability and practical significance: whether the result is useful in the real world.

There is practical significance present within the results of the study, therefore, it can be concluded that the results are significant and useful in the real world.

In measuring the reliability of the survey questionnaire used in this study, the Cronbach alpha co-efficient was used. All four of the constructs measured in section B had a Cronbach alpha co-efficient of 0.7 and above and therefore could be interpreted as reliable and internally consistent. Three of the four measured in section C had a Cronbach alpha co-efficient of 0.7 and above and, therefore, could also be interpreted as reliable and internally consistent as explained by Kline (quoted by Field, 2005:668).

There was no noticeable difference found between teenagers within households where both parents are employed and households where only the father is employed, although the results indicated a tendency for children within households where both parents are employed to be slightly more self confident, leans more towards an internal locus of control, have higher ambition and are less dependent than those teenagers from households where only the father is employed.

These findings, although not noticeable, agree with the literature. As indicated in Chapter 2.3.7, environmental influences in general have a decisive influence on aspects such as personality traits and interest, according to McCormick & Tiffen (quoted by Kruger et al., 1996:11). Therefore, the assumption can be made that maternal employment may have an influence.

In contradiction to these character traits, the opposite is found with time management. This could as a result of outside circumstances.

When referring to the literature study in Chapter 2.2.3 with regard to time management, previous research found that the assumption would be that even though this is not a pre-mediated intension, this will be the result of the circumstances surrounding the family dynamics where the mother has outside employment (Claessens, 2006:1).

When considering the results of remarks from the respondents as indicated in section 4.3.8, it was found and concluded that several other factors also play a role in the family dynamics that will influence the teenagers' characteristics displayed. Factors such as quality time spent with children, finances available, motivation from parents and stability within the home.

This agrees with the literature study in Chapter 2.2.1 which concluded that the experience of maternal employment is embedded in a family system. Therefore, when considering child outcomes, it is often critical to examine other issues that pertain to the family system (Lerner, 2001:1). These were also found by Hoffman (1998:1).

4.6 RECOMMENDATIONS

The findings of this research reflect high school teachers' perceptions on teenage characteristic traits in households where both parents are employed and in households where only the father is employed.

Due to the questions being generalised and based on experience and perceptions it resulted in a finding where the significance was relatively small.

Recommendations for further or future study would include the mothers' participation as well as the teenagers' participation. This will give the researcher a distinct and clear result of what the influences could be within the household dynamics.

As indicated in Chapter 2.3.6, Hoffman (1998:3) stated that the path between the mothers' employment status and child outcomes is a long one; there are many steps in between. To understand how maternal employment affects the child, you have to understand how it affects the family because it is through the family that effects take place.

Additional recommendations for further study could include measuring the teenage character traits at high school level and comparing it to the measurement of first year students in the same household dynamics to determine if the actual character traits perceived are persisting in these young adults and if they have any significance on adapting and coping with tertiary studies.

4.7 CONCLUDING REMARKS

The aim of this research was to establish if there is any relationship of maternal employment to teenage character traits.

The research revealed that there is a slight indication that teachers perceive teenagers in households where both parents are employed to be more self confident, have an internal locus of control, be ambitious and less dependent than teenagers from households where only the father is employed. The reason for the result being insignificant could perhaps be traced to the low experience level and lack of relevant information of the teachers instead of the actual facts being presented.

Although the finding, however insignificant it may be, agrees with the literature study conducted in Chapter 2, it also clear that additional research is required to determine the full impact.

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Appendix 1



NORTH-WEST UNIVERSITY
YUNIBESITHI YA BOKONE-BOPHIRIMA
NOORDWES-UNIVERSITEIT

VRAELYS/QUESTIONNAIRES

Hierdie vraelys maak deel uit van my verhandeling in die voltooiing van my na-graadse kwalifikasie Meesters in Besigheids Administrasie (MBA) te Noord-Wes Universiteit van Potchefstroom.

My verhandeling is gebaseer op die verwantskap van moeder se werkstatus teenoor tiener karakter eienskappe. Dit sal aanvullend wees tot voltooide en toekomstige akademiese navorsing in die veld.

Die vraelys is anoniem en vrywillig, indien u nie deelneem nie sal dit nie teen u gehou word nie. Die vraelys behoort nie langer as 10 minute te neem om te voltooi nie.

Baie dankie

This questionnaire is part of my dissertation in the completion of my post graduate degree in Masters in Business Administration (MBA) at the North West University of Potchefstroom.

My dissertation is based on the relationship of maternal employment to teenage character traits. This study will contribute to previous and future academic research in this field.

This questionnaire is anonymous and you are under no obligation to complete it. Should you chose not to participate it won't be held against you. The questionnaire will not take you longer than 10 min to complete.

Thank you

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Deklarasie / Declaration

Sny/skeur asseblief af en handig apart in om te verseker dit bly anoniem
Please cut/tear off and hand in separately to ensure it stays anonymous

Hiermee erken ek dat ek die doel van die studie verstaan en dat ek uit my eie vrye keuse aan die studie deelneem. I hereby acknowledge that I understand the purpose of the study and confirm that I am participating out of my own free will.

Handtekening /Signature

Datum /Date

VRAELYS / QUESTIONNAIRE

AFDELING 1 / SECTION 1

INSTRUKSIES / INSTRUCTIONS:

Merk asseblief die regte opsie langs elke vraag

Please mark the correct option next to each question.

1. **Graad waarby u die meeste betrokke is**
Grade with which you are mostly involved with

1	Graad 8 / Grade 8	
2	Graad 9 / Grade 9	
3	Graad 10 / Grade 10	
5	Graad 11 / Grade 11	
6	Graad 12 / Grade 12	

2. **Geslag**
Gender

1	Manlik / Male	
2	Vroulik / Female	

3. **Ouderdom**
Age

1	
---	--

4. **Geografiese ligging**
Geographical area

1	Noord Wes Provinsie / North West Province	
2	Gauteng	
3	Other please specify _____	

5. **Jare ondervinding in hoërskool onderwys**
Years experience in high school education

1	Minder as 1 jaar /Less than 1 year	
2	1 – 5 Jaar /Years	
3	6 – 10 Jaar/Years	
4	11 – 15 Jaar/Years	
5	Meer as 15 jaar /More than 15 Years	

6. **Taal waarin u onderrig voorsien**
Language in which you provide education

1	Afrikaans	
2	English	
3	Other please specify _____	

7. **Huistaal**
Home language

1	Afrikaans	
2	English	
3	Other please specify _____	

AFDELING 2 / SECTION 2

INSTRUKSIES / INSTRUCTIONS:

Merk of omkring slegs een opsie langs elke stelling op 'n skaal van 1-5 waarvan 1-“Amper glad nie”, 2-“Soms”, 3-“Neutraal”, 4-“Gewoonlik” en 5-“Amper altyd” verteenwoordig.

Mark or circle only one option next to each scenario on a scale from 1-5 where 1 equals “Almost never”, 2-“Sometimes”, 3-“Neutral”, 4-“Usually” and 5 equals “Almost always”.

NB! Hierdie afdeling is gebaseer op kinders waar BEIDE OUIERS (MOEDER EN VADER) WERK.

NB! This section is based on children where BOTH PARENTS (MOTHER & FATHER) ARE EMPLOYED.

- Beantwoord asseblief die volgede vrae ten opsigte van **U PROFESIONELE OPINIE**
- Please answer the following questions based on **YOUR PROFESSIONAL OPINION**

		Amper nooit nie Almost never	Soms Sometimes	Neutraal Neutral	Gewoonlik Usually	Amper altyd Almost always
2.1	Afhanklik van ander Dependent upon others	1	2	3	4	5
2.2	Neem verantwoordelikheid vir hulle eie aksies Take responsibility for their own actions	1	2	3	4	5
2.3	Wil hulle prestasies verbeter Desire to improve their own performance	1	2	3	4	5
2.4	Handig huiswerk betyds in Submits homework on time	1	2	3	4	5
2.5	Nalatig op hulle voorkoms Neglect their physical appearance	1	2	3	4	5
2.6	Blameer ander vir hulle uitslae Blame others for their results	1	2	3	4	5
2.7	Blameer omstandighede vir hulle uitslae Blame circumstances for their results	1	2	3	4	5
2.8	Gemiddelde presteerders Average achievers	1	2	3	4	5
2.9	Stiptelik om aan te meld na klas breuke Punctual class attendance after breaks	1	2	3	4	5
2.10	Kan met selfvertroue voor 'n groep optree Can confidently present in front of a group	1	2	3	4	5

- Beantwoord asseblief die volgende vrae ten opsigte van **U PROFESIONELE OPINIE**

- Please answer the following questions based on **YOUR PROFESSIONAL OPINION**

		Amper nooit nie Almost never	Soms Sometimes	Neutraal Neutral	Gewoonlik Usually	Amper altyd Almost always
2.11	Kan onafhanklik besluite neem Can make decisions independently	1	2	3	4	5
2.12	Is ambisieus Are ambitious	1	2	3	4	5
2.13	Werk hard om goeie punte te behaal Work diligently to obtain good results	1	2	3	4	5
2.14	Funksioneer goed onder druk Perform well under pressure	1	2	3	4	5
2.15	Handhaaf goeie tydbestuur Maintain good time management	1	2	3	4	5
2.16	Kan onafhanklik werk Can work independently	1	2	3	4	5
2.17	Glo in hulle eie vermoë om 'n situasie te verander Believe in their own ability to change situations	1	2	3	4	5
2.18	Behaal doelwitte Achieve objectives	1	2	3	4	5
2.19	Vorbereid op klas besprekings en toetse Prepared for class discussions and tests	1	2	3	4	5
2.20	Is onafhanklik Are independent	1	2	3	4	5
2.21	Besorgd oor die handhawing van sperdatums Concerned about meeting deadlines	1	2	3	4	5

AANMERKINGS / REMARKS

AFDELING 3 / SECTION 3

NB! Hierdie afdeling is gebaseer op kinders waar
SLEGS DIE VADER WERK.

NB! This section is based on children where
ONLY THE FATHER IS EMPLOYED.

- Beantwoord asseblief die volgende vrae ten opsigte van **U PROFESIONELE OPINIE**
- Please answer the following questions based on **YOUR PROFESSIONAL OPINION**

		Amper nooit nie Almost never	Soms Sometimes	Neutraal Neutral	Gewoonlik Usually	Amper altyd Almost always
3.1	Afhanklik van ander Dependent upon others	1	2	3	4	5
3.2	Neem verantwoordelikheid vir hulle eie aksies Take responsibility for their own actions	1	2	3	4	5
3.3	Wil hulle prestasies verbeter Desire to improve their own performance	1	2	3	4	5
3.4	Handig huiswerk betyds in Submits homework on time	1	2	3	4	5
3.5	Nalatig op hulle voorkoms Neglect their physical appearance	1	2	3	4	5
3.6	Blameer ander vir hulle uitslae Blame others for their results	1	2	3	4	5
3.7	Blameer omstandighede vir hulle uitslae Blame circumstances for their results	1	2	3	4	5
3.8	Gemiddelde presteerders Average achievers	1	2	3	4	5
3.9	Stiptelik om aan te meld na klas breuke Punctual class attendance after breaks	1	2	3	4	5
3.10	Kan met selfvertroue voor 'n groep optree Can confidently present in front of a group	1	2	3	4	5

- Beantwoord asseblief die volgende vrae ten opsigte van **U PROFESIONELE OPINIE**

- Please answer the following questions based on **YOUR PROFESSIONAL OPINION**

		Amper nooit nie Almost never	Soms Sometimes	Neutraal Neutral	Gewoonlik Usually	Amper altyd Almost always
3.11	Kan onafhanklik besluite neem Can make decisions independently	1	2	3	4	5
3.12	Is ambisieus Are ambitious	1	2	3	4	5
3.13	Werk hard om goeie punte te behaal Work diligently to obtain good results	1	2	3	4	5
3.14	Funksioneer goed onder druk Perform well under pressure	1	2	3	4	5
3.15	Handhaaf goeie tydbestuur Maintain good time management	1	2	3	4	5
3.16	Kan onafhanklik werk Can work independently	1	2	3	4	5
3.17	Glo in hulle eie vermoë om 'n situasie te verander Believe in their own ability to change situations	1	2	3	4	5
3.18	Behaal doelwitte Achieve objectives	1	2	3	4	5
3.19	Vorbereid op klas besprekings en toetse Prepared for class discussions and tests	1	2	3	4	5
3.20	Is onafhanklik Are independent	1	2	3	4	5
3.21	Besorgd oor die handhawing van sperdatums Concerned about meeting deadlines	1	2	3	4	5

AANMERKINGS / REMARKS

Baie dankie vir u tyd en eerlikheid!
Thank you for your time and honesty!

APPENDIX 2:

Descriptive Statistics – Correlation results where there is statistical significance and small practical significance.

Question	Correlation Coefficient (r)	Practical Significance	Sig (2-tailed) (p < 0.05)	Sample Size N
B1 & B3	-0.257	Small	0.031	70
B1 & B4	-0.260	Small	0.030	70
B1 & C2	0.267	Small	0.025	70
B1 & C11	0.298	Small	0.012	70
B1 & C12	0.278	Small	0.020	70
B1 & C14	0.260	Small	0.030	70
B1 & C16	0.298	Small	0.012	70
B2 & B9	0.268	Small	0.025	70
B3 & B6	-0.277	Small	0.020	70
B3 & B7	-0.239	Small	0.046	70
B3 & B20	0.280	Small	0.019	70
B3 & C6	0.247	Small	0.039	70
B4 & C1	-0.278	Small	0.020	70
B4 & C9	0.278	Small	0.020	70
B5 & B7	0.248	Small	0.038	70
B5 & B13	-0.246	Small	0.040	70
B5 & B15	-0.265	Small	0.027	70
B5 & B17	-0.293	Small	0.014	70
B5 & C3	-0.238	Small	0.047	70
B5 & C15	-0.242	Small	0.044	70
B6 & B9	-0.264	Small	0.027	70
B6 & C3	-0.242	Small	0.044	70
B6 & C4	-0.279	Small	0.019	70
B6 & C10	0.243	Small	0.043	70
B6 & C16	0.284	Small	0.017	70
B7 & B9	-0.274	Small	0.022	70
B7 & B10	-0.282	Small	0.018	70
B7 & B15	-0.248	Small	0.039	70

B7 & B16	-0.239	Small	0.046	70
B7 & C12	0.244	Small	0.042	70
B8 & B10	0.240	Small	0.045	70
B8 & C1	-0.260	Small	0.030	70
B8 & C2	-0.236	Small	0.049	70
B8 & C4	0.261	Small	0.029	70
B9 & C1	-0.264	Small	0.027	70
B9 & C8	0.237	Small	0.048	70
B10 & C10	0.244	Small	0.042	70
B10 & C12	0.275	Small	0.021	70
B10 & C18	0.282	Small	0.018	70
B10 & C19	0.262	Small	0.029	70
B10 & C21	0.285	Small	0.017	70
B11 & C19	0.293	Small	0.014	70
B11 & C20	0.271	Small	0.023	70
B11 & C21	0.255	Small	0.033	70
B12 & C4	0.257	Small	0.032	70
B12 & C15	0.248	Small	0.039	70
B12 & C18	0.237	Small	0.048	70
B14 & C15	0.251	Small	0.036	70
B14 & C21	0.266	Small	0.026	70
B15 & C3	0.267	Small	0.025	70
B15 & C9	0.284	Small	0.017	70
B15 & C18	0.267	Small	0.026	70
B15 & C19	0.258	Small	0.031	70
B15 & C21	0.268	Small	0.025	70
B16 & C18	0.294	Small	0.014	70
B16 & C21	0.270	Small	0.024	70
B17 & C3	0.276	Small	0.021	70
B17 & C4	0.239	Small	0.047	70
B17 & C6	0.256	Small	0.033	70
B17 & C9	0.289	Small	0.015	70
B17 & C18	0.252	Small	0.036	70

B18 & C4	0.281	Small	0.018	70
B18 & C6	0.299	Small	0.012	70
B18 & C9	0.280	Small	0.019	70
B18 & C13	0.249	Small	0.038	70
B18 & C21	0.250	Small	0.037	70
B19 & C9	0.264	Small	0.027	70
C1 & C6	0.253	Small	0.034	70
C2 & C19	0.240	Small	0.046	70
C3 & C10	0.298	Small	0.012	70
C3 & C11	0.276	Small	0.021	70
C3 & C16	0.258	Small	0.031	70
C3 & C20	0.296	Small	0.013	70
C4 & C14	0.248	Small	0.038	70
C9 & C10	0.291	Small	0.015	70
C9 & C16	0.267	Small	0.025	70
C10 & C19	0.252	Small	0.036	70
C11 & C13	0.288	Small	0.016	70
C11 & C18	0.292	Small	0.014	70
C11 & C19	0.264	Small	0.027	70
C13 & C16	0.291	Small	0.014	70
C15 & C20	0.274	Small	0.022	70

Descriptive Statistics – Correlation results where there is statistical significance and medium practical significance.

Question	Correlation Coefficient (r)	Practical Significance	Sig (2-tailed) (p < 0.05)	Sample Size N
B1 & B2	-0.318	Medium	0.007	70
B1 & B6	0.397	Medium	0.001	70
B1 & B7	0.389	Medium	0.001	70
B1 & B9	-0.325	Medium	0.006	70
B1 & B11	-0.309	Medium	0.009	70
B1 & B12	-0.326	Medium	0.006	70
B1 & B13	-0.455	Medium	0.000	70
B1 & B14	-0.372	Medium	0.002	70
B1 & B15	-0.361	Medium	0.002	70
B1 & B16	-0.463	Medium	0.000	70
B1 & B17	-0.434	Medium	0.000	70
B1 & B18	-0.370	Medium	0.002	70
B1 & B20	-0.471	Medium	0.000	70
B1 & B21	-0.371	Medium	0.002	70
B1 & C1	0.348	Medium	0.003	70
B1 & C17	0.316	Medium	0.008	70
B2 & B4	0.419	Medium	0.000	70
B2 & B5	-0.320	Medium	0.007	70
B2 & B6	-0.304	Medium	0.011	70
B2 & B11	0.310	Medium	0.009	70
B2 & B12	0.456	Medium	0.000	70
B2 & B13	0.393	Medium	0.001	70
B2 & B14	0.461	Medium	0.000	70
B2 & B15	0.420	Medium	0.000	70
B2 & B16	0.449	Medium	0.000	70
B2 & B17	0.437	Medium	0.000	70
B2 & B18	0.328	Medium	0.006	70
B2 & B19	0.342	Medium	0.004	70
B2 & B20	0.318	Medium	0.007	70
B2 & B21	0.375	Medium	0.001	70

B3 & B4	0.378	Medium	0.001	70
B3 & B11	0.349	Medium	0.003	70
B3 & B14	0.413	Medium	0.000	70
B3 & B15	0.311	Medium	0.009	70
B3 & B16	0.376	Medium	0.001	70
B3 & B17	0.425	Medium	0.000	70
B3 & B18	0.457	Medium	0.000	70
B3 & B19	0.317	Medium	0.007	70
B3 & B21	0.393	Medium	0.001	70
B4 & B6	-0.431	Medium	0.000	70
B4 & B7	-0.340	Medium	0.004	70
B4 & B9	0.474	Medium	0.000	70
B4 & B10	0.341	Medium	0.004	70
B4 & B12	0.338	Medium	0.004	70
B4 & B13	0.422	Medium	0.000	70
B4 & B14	0.351	Medium	0.003	70
B4 & B15	0.320	Medium	0.007	70
B4 & B16	0.430	Medium	0.000	70
B4 & B17	0.347	Medium	0.001	70
B4 & B20	0.389	Medium	0.001	70
B4 & B21	0.470	Medium	0.000	70
B4 & C4	0.394	Medium	0.001	70
B4 & C6	0.286	Medium	0.016	70
B4 & C8	0.335	Medium	0.005	70
B4 & C18	0.343	Medium	0.004	70
B4 & C19	0.315	Medium	0.008	70
B5 & B6	0.371	Medium	0.002	70
B5 & C1	0.332	Medium	0.005	70
B6 & B12	-0.312	Medium	0.009	70
B6 & B13	-0.337	Medium	0.004	70
B6 & B14	-0.362	Medium	0.002	70
B6 & B16	-0.304	Medium	0.010	70
B6 & B17	-0.409	Medium	0.000	70

B6 & B18	-0.404	Medium	0.001	70
B6 & B19	-0.368	Medium	0.002	70
B6 & B20	-0.350	Medium	0.003	70
B6 & B21	-0.326	Medium	0.006	70
B6 & C11	0.326	Medium	0.006	70
B7 & B12	-0.333	Medium	0.005	70
B7 & B13	-0.349	Medium	0.003	70
B7 & B14	-0.336	Medium	0.004	70
B7 & B17	-0.351	Medium	0.003	70
B7 & B18	-0.403	Medium	0.001	70
B7 & B19	-0.379	Medium	0.001	70
B7 & B20	-0.332	Medium	0.005	70
B7 & B21	-0.374	Medium	0.001	70
B7 & C2	0.319	Medium	0.007	70
B7 & C10	0.306	Medium	0.010	70
B7 & C11	0.399	Medium	0.001	70
B7 & C14	0.313	Medium	0.008	70
B7 & C16	0.366	Medium	0.002	70
B7 & C17	0.337	Medium	0.004	70
B7 & C20	0.306	Medium	0.010	70
B8 & B9	0.327	Medium	0.006	70
B8 & C9	0.355	Medium	0.003	70
B9 & B11	0.303	Medium	0.011	70
B9 & B12	0.347	Medium	0.003	70
B9 & B13	0.346	Medium	0.003	70
B9 & B14	0.371	Medium	0.002	70
B9 & B15	0.399	Medium	0.001	70
B9 & B16	0.439	Medium	0.000	70
B9 & B17	0.469	Medium	0.000	70
B9 & B20	0.425	Medium	0.000	70
B9 & B21	0.323	Medium	0.006	70
B9 & C2	-0.313	Medium	0.008	70
B9 & C10	0.406	Medium	0.000	70

B9 & C18	0.380	Medium	0.001	70
B9 & C19	0.300	Medium	0.012	70
B10 & B11	0.434	Medium	0.000	70
B10 & B12	0.413	Medium	0.000	70
B10 & B13	0.329	Medium	0.005	70
B10 & B14	0.429	Medium	0.000	70
B10 & B16	0.462	Medium	0.000	70
B10 & B17	0.469	Medium	0.000	70
B10 & B19	0.475	Medium	0.000	70
B10 & B21	0.443	Medium	0.000	70
B10 & C4	0.341	Medium	0.004	70
B10 & C9	0.419	Medium	0.000	70
B10 & C15	0.434	Medium	0.000	70
B11 & B18	0.458	Medium	0.000	70
B11 & B21	0.334	Medium	0.005	70
B11 & C3	0.310	Medium	0.009	70
B11 & C4	0.348	Medium	0.003	70
B11 & C16	0.379	Medium	0.001	70
B12 & C3	0.359	Medium	0.002	70
B14 & C3	0.374	Medium	0.001	70
B14 & C4	0.357	Medium	0.002	70
B14 & C13	0.311	Medium	0.009	70
B14 & C18	0.380	Medium	0.002	70
B14 & C19	0.310	Medium	0.009	70
B15 & C4	0.334	Medium	0.005	70
B15 & C15	0.407	Medium	0.000	70
B16 & C3	0.322	Medium	0.007	70
B16 & C4	0.357	Medium	0.002	70
B16 & C9	0.354	Medium	0.003	70
B16 & C15	0.311	Medium	0.009	70
B16 & C19	0.304	Medium	0.010	70
B17 & B19	0.492	Medium	0.000	70
B17 & B21	0.391	Medium	0.001	70

B17 & C7	0.311	Medium	0.009	70
B17 & C15	0.346	Medium	0.003	70
B18 & C8	0.358	Medium	0.002	70
B18 & C18	0.391	Medium	0.001	70
B18 & C19	0.328	Medium	0.006	70
B19 & C3	0.326	Medium	0.006	70
B19 & C8	0.302	Medium	0.011	70
B19 & C13	0.478	Medium	0.000	70
B19 & C15	0.363	Medium	0.002	70
B19 & C19	0.475	Medium	0.000	70
B19 & C21	0.459	Medium	0.000	70
B20 & C3	0.355	Medium	0.003	70
B20 & C4	0.467	Medium	0.000	70
B20 & C9	0.435	Medium	0.000	70
B20 & C13	0.475	Medium	0.000	70
B20 & C15	0.413	Medium	0.000	70
B20 & C18	0.444	Medium	0.000	70
B20 & C19	0.477	Medium	0.000	70
B20 & C21	0.451	Medium	0.000	70
B21 & C3	0.339	Medium	0.004	70
B21 & C4	0.456	Medium	0.000	70
B21 & C13	0.315	Medium	0.008	70
B21 & C18	0.389	Medium	0.001	70
B21 & C19	0.406	Medium	0.000	70
B21 & C21	0.402	Medium	0.001	70
C1 & C5	0.321	Medium	0.007	70
C2 & C11	0.483	Medium	0.000	70
C2 & C13	0.427	Medium	0.000	70
C2 & C16	0.425	Medium	0.000	70
C2 & C20	0.488	Medium	0.000	70
C2 & C21	0.343	Medium	0.004	70
C3 & C9	0.360	Medium	0.002	70
C3 & C14	0.399	Medium	0.001	70

C3 & C15	0.444	Medium	0.000	70
C3 & C17	0.465	Medium	0.000	70
C4 & C5	-0.395	Medium	0.001	70
C4 & C12	0.325	Medium	0.006	70
C5 & C6	0.420	Medium	0.000	70
C5 & C7	0.360	Medium	0.002	70
C9 & C12	0.344	Medium	0.004	70
C9 & C13	0.491	Medium	0.000	70
C10 & C13	0.301	Medium	0.011	70
C10 & C17	0.425	Medium	0.000	70
C10 & C20	0.454	Medium	0.000	70
C11 & C15	0.416	Medium	0.000	70
C11 & C21	0.300	Medium	0.012	70
C12 & C13	0.490	Medium	0.000	70
C12 & C18	0.376	Medium	0.001	70
C12 & C19	0.406	Medium	0.000	70
C13 & C14	0.394	Medium	0.001	70
C13 & C17	0.423	Medium	0.000	70
C13 & C20	0.350	Medium	0.003	70
C14 & C15	0.395	Medium	0.001	70
C14 & C18	0.326	Medium	0.006	70
C14 & C19	0.335	Medium	0.005	70
C14 & C20	0.449	Medium	0.000	70
C14 & C21	0.424	Medium	0.000	70
C15 & C16	0.380	Medium	0.001	70
C15 & C17	0.498	Medium	0.000	70
C15 & C18	0.496	Medium	0.000	70
C16 & C19	0.300	Medium	0.011	70
C16 & C21	0.386	Medium	0.001	70
C17 & C19	0.357	Medium	0.002	70
C17 & C21	0.480	Medium	0.000	70
C19 & C20	0.376	Medium	0.001	70
C20 & C21	0.401	Medium	0.001	70

Descriptive Statistics – Correlation results where there is statistical significance and large practical significance.

Question	Correlation Coefficient (r)	Practical Significance	Sig (2-tailed) (p < 0.05)	Sample Size N
B1 & B19	-0.521	Large	0.000	70
B2 & B3	0.669	Large	0.000	70
B3 & B12	0.570	Large	0.000	70
B3 & B13	0.516	Large	0.000	70
B4 & B18	0.532	Large	0.000	70
B4 & B19	0.587	Large	0.000	70
B6 & B7	0.711	Large	0.000	70
B9 & B10	0.501	Large	0.000	70
B9 & B18	0.555	Large	0.000	70
B9 & B19	0.511	Large	0.000	70
B10 & B15	0.508	Large	0.000	70
B10 & B18	0.524	Large	0.000	70
B10 & B20	0.531	Large	0.000	70
B11 & B12	0.737	Large	0.000	70
B11 & B13	0.511	Large	0.000	70
B11 & B14	0.522	Large	0.000	70
B11 & B15	0.566	Large	0.000	70
B11 & B16	0.606	Large	0.000	70
B11 & B17	0.561	Large	0.000	70
B11 & B19	0.547	Large	0.000	70
B11 & B20	0.545	Large	0.000	70
B12 & B13	0.758	Large	0.000	70
B12 & B14	0.662	Large	0.000	70
B12 & B15	0.715	Large	0.000	70
B12 & B16	0.722	Large	0.000	70
B12 & B17	0.723	Large	0.000	70
B12 & B18	0.636	Large	0.000	70
B12 & B19	0.541	Large	0.000	70
B12 & B20	0.509	Large	0.000	70
B12 & B21	0.519	Large	0.000	70

B13 & B14	0.657	Large	0.000	70
B13 & B15	0.688	Large	0.000	70
B14 & B16	0.693	Large	0.000	70
B14 & B17	0.637	Large	0.000	70
B14 & B18	0.746	Large	0.000	70
B14 & B19	0.662	Large	0.000	70
B14 & B20	0.556	Large	0.000	70
B14 & B21	0.660	Large	0.000	70
B15 & B16	0.754	Large	0.000	70
B15 & B17	0.677	Large	0.000	70
B15 & B18	0.596	Large	0.000	70
B15 & B19	0.553	Large	0.000	70
B15 & B20	0.531	Large	0.000	70
B16 & B17	0.739	Large	0.000	70
B16 & B18	0.653	Large	0.000	70
B16 & B19	0.630	Large	0.000	70
B16 & B20	0.644	Large	0.000	70
B16 & B21	0.603	Large	0.000	70
B17 & B18	0.606	Large	0.000	70
B17 & B20	0.542	Large	0.000	70
B18 & B19	0.690	Large	0.000	70
B18 & B20	0.581	Large	0.000	70
B18 & B21	0.719	Large	0.000	70
B19 & B20	0.681	Large	0.000	70
B19 & B21	0.741	Large	0.000	70
B19 & C4	0.527	Large	0.000	70
B20 & B21	0.617	Large	0.000	70
C2 & C3	0.558	Large	0.000	70
C2 & C10	0.550	Large	0.000	70
C2 & C12	0.549	Large	0.000	70
C2 & C14	0.532	Large	0.000	70
C2 & C17	0.612	Large	0.000	70
C3 & C4	0.551	Large	0.000	70

C3 & C12	0.502	Large	0.000	70
C3 & C13	0.627	Large	0.000	70
C3 & C18	0.509	Large	0.000	70
C3 & C19	0.604	Large	0.000	70
C3 & C21	0.592	Large	0.000	70
C4 & C9	0.557	Large	0.000	70
C4 & C13	0.663	Large	0.000	70
C4 & C15	0.552	Large	0.000	70
C4 & C18	0.694	Large	0.000	70
C4 & C19	0.709	Large	0.000	70
C4 & C21	0.678	Large	0.000	70
C6 & C7	0.631	Large	0.000	70
C9 & C15	0.636	Large	0.000	70
C9 & C18	0.608	Large	0.000	70
C9 & C19	0.576	Large	0.000	70
C9 & C21	0.633	Large	0.000	70
C10 & C11	0.632	Large	0.000	70
C10 & C12	0.510	Large	0.000	70
C10 & C14	0.553	Large	0.000	70
C10 & C16	0.515	Large	0.000	70
C11 & C12	0.766	Large	0.000	70
C11 & C14	0.681	Large	0.000	70
C11 & C16	0.690	Large	0.000	70
C11 & C17	0.604	Large	0.000	70
C11 & C20	0.564	Large	0.000	70
C12 & C14	0.660	Large	0.000	70
C12 & C15	0.592	Large	0.000	70
C12 & C16	0.738	Large	0.000	70
C12 & C17	0.805	Large	0.000	70
C12 & C20	0.534	Large	0.000	70
C12 & C21	0.575	Large	0.000	70
C13 & C15	0.555	Large	0.000	70
C13 & C18	0.730	Large	0.000	70

C13 & C19	0.788	Large	0.000	70
C13 & C21	0.728	Large	0.000	70
C14 & C16	0.533	Large	0.000	70
C14 & C17	0.587	Large	0.000	70
C15 & C19	0.558	Large	0.000	70
C15 & C21	0.730	Large	0.000	70
C16 & C17	0.698	Large	0.000	70
C16 & C20	0.689	Large	0.000	70
C17 & C20	0.538	Large	0.000	70
C18 & C19	0.743	Large	0.000	70
C18 & C21	0.625	Large	0.000	70
C19 & C21	0.710	Large	0.000	70