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The Relationship Between Working Status of Mothers and Parental-Child Attachment

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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN
WORKING STATUS OF MOTHERS AND
PARENTAL – CHILD ATTACHMENT

by

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DEDICATION

To my parents, my success has been made possible because of you. I am eternally grateful for your love and support. Most of all, thank you for always believing in me and teaching me to believe in myself.

To my husband, who motivates me to be my best. Your constant love and encouragement have seen me through this challenge.

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ABSTRACT

The factors which influence the development of attachment between mothers and children were examined in this study. The researcher specifically looked at the differences in attachment with regard to the mother's work status during infancy. Thirty-five adolescent subjects completed the Inventory of Parent and Peer Attachment test (IPPA). The subjects were categorized into four groups based on what their mothers' work status was during their infancy. The information regarding work status was obtained through a demographic sheet completed by the parents of the subjects.

The test completed by the subjects consisted of twenty-five statements regarding a relationship with their mother. Subjects responded to a five point scale of how much they agreed with the statements as they applied to their relationship with their mother. Answers were then used to determine a Total Attachment score and three subtest scores (Trust, Communication, and Alienation).

A one-way analysis of variance test (ANOVA) was performed on the data to determine if there is a difference in the subjects' Total Attachment scores based on the mother's work status. A significant difference was not determined. Therefore, it was concluded that there is not a significant relationship between mother's work status during infancy and the child's attachment to mother during early adolescence.

One-way analysis of variance tests (ANOVA) were also run on each of the three subtest scores. No significant differences were found. Again, it was concluded that there is not a significant relationship between mother's work status during infancy and the degree of trust, communication, or alienation between mother and early adolescent.

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

“There is now much greater diversity in family structure than thirty years ago, but perhaps more consequential for parent-child relations have been the changes in the factors precipitating different family types such as maternal employment” (Demo, 1992, p. 106). Although women used to be full-time homemakers and child-care givers, the trend now is quite the opposite. More and more women are not only working outside of the home before having children, but are also returning to the workforce only weeks after giving birth (Newman & Newman, 1995). Statistics from 1990 indicate that approximately fifty percent of women with children under age six are working outside of the home (Darling-Fisher & Tiedje, 1990).

This increase in the number of working mothers naturally causes a decrease in the amount of time women spend caring for their children. Daycare centers and in-home baby-sitters have become alternative sources of child-care. The 1991 data on child-care collected by the U.S. Bureau of the Census indicates that approximately one-fourth of U.S. preschoolers with a working mother attend an organized child-care facility, one-third are cared for in their own homes, and another one-third are cared for in someone else’s home. Also, about eight percent of the twenty-one million children aged five to fourteen with a working mother

were left alone or were unsupervised for at least part of the time their mother was working (Turner, 1994).

Does the lack of time spent between mother and child due to maternal employment have any affect on the children? Many studies indicate that it does. Jay Belsky (1988, 1990) found that for infants who experience as much as twenty or more hours per week of alternative child care, there is a greater risk of an insecure maternal attachment and a disruption of social adjustment. Genuis and Violato (1994) found there was a significant relationship between nonparental care during childhood and the quality of the attachment that had formed between the mother and child which remained evident in adolescence. Ainsworth (1989) found that the quality of the attachment formed in infancy may also influence the formation of later relationships indicating these effects may be quite extensive and long lasting.

If the number of working mothers continues to rise, there becomes an ever increasing need to study what the potential outcomes of such a trend will be. The rationale for this study lies in the evidence presented in the research which suggests that maternal employment may impact children's lives in a number of ways beginning with the effect it has on the quality of the attachment formed in infancy.

Statement of the Problem

The purpose of this study is to examine the degree of parental attachment between working mothers and their children as reported by these children at the onset of early adolescence. Working mothers are defined as those mothers who worked at least thirty hours per week outside of the home while their children were infants (birth to two years of age).

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Bowlby's Early Research

John Bowlby has been credited for his studies of human behavior, particularly behaviors that occur between infants and their caregivers. He was interested in the biological bases for behaviors and studied them in light of similar types of behaviors found in various animal species (Bowlby, 1969). Through many careful observations, he sought to determine if the behaviors that occur between infants and caregivers are innate or learned and what function they serve in terms of human survival. (Bowlby, 1969)

Bowlby (1988) describes the behavioral system he observed as a complex set of signals and reflexes that elicit caregiving responses from adults. Infants engage in smiling, grasping, babbling, and crying while adults cuddle, soothe and also smile. This pattern of responses shape an infant's expectations of the caregiver and contribute to the development of an "attachment" or an emotional bond with the caregiver (Bowlby 1969). This attachment behavior system appears to promote close proximity between infant and adult which encourages safety and a trusting relationship.

Bowlby (1973) believed that this attachment behavior system was one that was maintained even into adulthood for the benefit of the species. "By remaining within his personal and familiar environment, an individual stays within an arena that is comparatively safe and is kept well clear of many hazards

that might otherwise endanger him” (p. 148). Thus, Bowlby (1988) declared that

Whilst attachment behaviour is at its most obvious in early childhood, it can be observed throughout the life cycle, especially in emergencies.

Since it is seen in virtually all human beings (though in varying patterns), it is regarded as an integral part of human nature and one we share (to a varying extent) with members of other species. The biological function attributed it is that of protection. (p. 27)

Bowlby (1973) notes that the nature of these relationships developed and sought out by individuals is determined largely by the one experienced as an infant with the caregiver. Thus, Bowlby, who was a pioneer of attachment theory, realized that a healthy attachment between infant and caregiver is crucial to an individual's well-being.

Theoretical Background

As noted above, an important area of development that occurs during infancy is social attachment (Newman & Newman, 1995). John Bowlby (1960) introduced this concept as “an organized pattern of infant signals and adult responses that lead to a protective, trusting relationship” (p. 191). Bowlby (1982) defined attachment behavior as “the various forms of behavior that a child commonly engages in to attain and/or maintain a desired proximity” with a caregiver (p. 371). The infant seeks proximity to the caregiver in order to feel safe (Genuis & Oddone, 1996). This begins at birth when the infant is solely

dependent upon the caregiver for sustaining life. Ainsworth and Bowlby (1991) state that infants are in the process of developing an affectional bond with their caregiver and increasingly direct their emotions toward that person.

This initial attachment is usually formed with the mother for a number of reasons. Maier (1994) states that infants have a biological propensity that causes them to behave in ways that promote proximity and contact with their mother. Herbert, Sluckin, and Sluckin (1982) suggest that the mother's presence with the infant during a critical period may also impact the development of the maternal attachment.

The mental representation of the attachment starts to take shape for the infant around six months and is established by the end of the first year of life (Main, Kaplan & Cassidy, 1985). Specific characteristics of a caregiver and expectations about how the caregiver will respond to the infant are organized into a complex attachment. Once the primary attachment is fully established, children can comfort themselves by creating mental images of the person to whom they are attached. (Newman & Newman, 1995). The representation of the attachment that the infant forms "provides the infant with a set of rules with which to organize information and to interpret experiences related to the relationship" (p. 203).

Isabella and Belsky (1991) state that interactions between the caregiver and infant that are "rhythmic, well timed, and mutually rewarding" contribute to positive attachments (Newman & Newman, 1995, p. 191). High levels of caregiver sensitivity and low levels of rejection or hostility toward the infant

in the first nine months are associated with the formation of a secure attachment” (p. 198). As noted by Maier (1994),

secure attachment is believed to provide an individual with the assurance of the others’ continued presence and support, despite physical separation from him or her, and continues to persist over space and time, thereby fostering the development of an autonomous sense of self (Genuis & Oddone, 1996, p. 3).

The strength of the attachments formed are based on the amount of time spent together and on the quality of the interactions involved (Fox, Kimmerly & Schafer, 1991).

The quality of this early attachment may help to determine specific characteristics that the child will develop as he grows. Vaughn, Egeland, Sroufe, and Waters (1979) suggest that securely attached infants become preschoolers who demonstrate high resilience, self-control, and curiosity. Park and Waters (1989) state that “these children are more likely to form enjoyable peer friendships during their preschool years” (Newman, & Newman, 1995, p. 203) Conversely, “infants showing a disorganized attachment appear to have serious behavior problems in the preschool period” (p. 196).

Sokol-Katz, Dunham, and Zimmerman (1997) found that one’s family is a source of parental attachment throughout a child’s life. They claim that it is within the family environment that attachments are made with parents who ultimately teach their children what behavior is acceptable. Thus, they conclude

that the quality of parental attachment determines the likelihood of adolescent engagement in deviant behaviors.

Newman and Newman (1995) suggest that the effects of attachment extend even into adulthood when they state that “the cognitive representation one forms of an attachment relationship influences one’s expectations of an intimate partner” (p. 204). Abruzzese and Chambliss (1993) found that among college students age seventeen and thirty-six, there was evidence to suggest an indirect relationship between maternal employment and current levels of happiness and self-esteem. Although the attachment formed in infancy is not the sole influence on later relationships, it is a construct that may help to describe various levels of lifetime behavior according to Newman and Newman (1995).

Women in the Workforce

Casper (1995) speculated that during the late 1980’s many men were either unemployed or under-employed. As a result, their wives found jobs to compensate for the loss of family income. She concludes that this caused many fathers to stay home and provide child-care while mothers worked. With the expanding economy now, however, both fathers and mothers have readily available jobs.

Marcia Mogelonsky (1997) found that “most women have a solid commitment to the work force, even during their childbearing years” (p. 33).

She found this to be particularly true for women who didn't have a second child during the ten year period following the birth of their first child.

Western Washington University (1995) evaluated the psychosocial determinants of re-entry into the labor force by first-time mothers. The number of months that women worked while pregnant seemed to be a good predictor of whether they would re-enter the work force. "It seems to be that those women who do not want to return to work after the birth of their first child make the decision to withdraw from the labor force very early during their pregnancy, whereas those who work throughout pregnancy return during the first months following birth" (p.323). This study also revealed that "the longer they were married, the more likely mothers were to return to work after their baby was born" (p. 323).

Pascual, Haynes, Galperin, and Bornstein(1995) found that better educated women with higher status occupations work longer hours after having children than do those women with lower status jobs. Western Washington University (1995) also found that "in the United States, mothers who have more prestigious jobs work more hours per week" than those with less prestigious jobs (p. 316). This study revealed a positive association ($r=.30$) between socioeconomic status and hours that mothers work. Horchschild and Machung (1989) and Stone (1989) found that women in these prestigious positions work long hours because they believe this is characteristic of their jobs and of their work environment. It

appears that the women who continue in the workforce after having children are those women who are contributing largely to their family's income.

Caregiving and Roles within the Family

Women are still the primary caregivers regardless of employment status, although husbands are reportedly more involved in child-care when their wives are employed. This is particularly true when wives work full-time and are professionals (Darling-Fisher & Tiedje, 1990). Lamb (1976) found that the attachment formed between father and child is likely to be different in nature than the one formed between mother and child, regardless of who does more of the child care. This study revealed that babies demonstrated playful types of interactions with fathers but rather comforting interactions with mothers. Fox et al. (1991) found that the attachment formed with one parent was dependent upon the attachment with the other. Thus, a poor attachment with mom is not likely to be countered with a strong one with dad. So although husbands are reportedly more involved in child care when their wives work, even with fathers helping out more, the nurturing attachment typically made with mother may still go unsatisfied.

A study from the *Journal of Family Issues* (1996) looked at the types of child-care activities performed daily by both employed and unemployed mothers. "In general, the results suggest that mothering involves the same range of child-care activities during a typical forty-eight hour period regardless of a woman's

employment” (p. 783). The differences lie in the amount of time spent doing those activities. Demo (1992) found that unemployed mothers spend nearly nine hours a day during the workweek with their preschoolers which is twice the time spent by employed mothers. He found that the differences are smaller, but still substantial for those mothers with school-age children as well.

Stuckey, McGhee and Bell (1982) found that because maternal employment may result in less accessibility to the parent, differences in parent-child interactions emerge based on the child’s gender. Their results indicate that boys seek less attention from parents and parents respond to them less. Girls, however, may seek more attention from parents causing parents to respond more both positively and negatively.

Effects of Maternal Employment on Children

Greenstein (1993) looked at the advantages maternal employment can provide for the children. He found that the mother’s income may indeed allow for more items to be purchased for the family. He concluded, however, that the additional market goods and services made possible are not a good substitute for parental care.

It should be noted that Margaret Owen and her colleagues (1984) conducted a study that looked at maternal employment’s affect on children and found that maternal employment was not associated with a high rate of insecure

attachments. However, her study only involved mothers who were employed after the child was twelve months old.

Perhaps these differences in results suggest that there is a critical period before twelve months during which attachment is affected. Newman and Newman (1995) state that the onset of a critical period for attachment must begin about six months of age but the earlier months "provide the background experiences of consistency, warmth, and familiarity upon which the specific attachment is built" (p. 201).

Therefore, the increase in the number of mothers working outside of the home necessitates a change in the ways parents allocate the time spent with their children. This has implications for both family relationships and the health of individual family members (Darling-fisher & Tiedje, 1990).

Factors for Further Consideration

Some have wondered if the quality of the childcare received is the factor causing poor attachment or behavior problems to occur. Children's behavior problems in middle childhood have been studied in relation to the alternative child-care they had received due to maternal employment. A study by U.S. News & World Report (April 1994) found that caregivers seemed to speak and interact with the children left in their care mainly to control behavior only.

Only half of the children in this study developed secure attachments with this alternative child-care giver. However, Deater-Deckard, Pinkerton, and Scarr

(1996) found variations in the quality of childcare given to be unrelated to outcomes in children's behavior. They found that the problems and social withdrawal these children were exhibiting were instead related to the level of stress found in the working mothers.

It has also been suggested by Hoffman (1989) that perhaps other variables such as the number of hours worked, attitudes of both parents toward work, and amount of social support impact child outcomes in relationship to maternal employment. Pett, Vaughn-Cole, and Wampold (1994) agree that when maternal employment is assessed as a unidimensional categorical construct, it does not significantly affect children's psychosocial adjustment, but conditions such as maternal stress are part of the multi-dimensionality that is an important predictor.

Gottfried and Gottfried (1988) have suggested that this maternal stress comes from trying to simultaneously fulfill the roles of both mother and employee. Hock, McBride, and Gnezda (1989) found that because of traditional ideas, mothers may feel loss, sadness, or guilt when they must leave their children, and thus, they experience role-conflict.

Bower (1997) notes that in a study done by the Duke University Medical Center, "women who had at least one child living at home excreted substantially more of the stress hormone cortisol in their urine than did their counterparts without kids at home, regardless of marital status or number of social contacts" (p. 122). Gottfried and Gottfried (1988) suggest that this stress found in mothers

due to the issues surrounding maternal employment may compromise their children's development, including that of a secure maternal attachment.

Research from Beutell and Greenhaus (1983) indicates that some employed mothers redefine the role of mother by changing their attitudes and perceptions of role expectations. They rely on their peers for these guidelines as to what a typical mother is supposed to do. Emmons, Biernat, Tiedje, Lang, and Wortman (1990) suggest that adopting new attitudes may be an important way for working mothers to cope with the issues of stress and role-conflict. Further research could be done to see if working mothers' attitudes and role perceptions do result from the need to relieve their own stress or if those women with such perceptions are simply more likely to work after having children.

In conclusion, much research suggests that factors surrounding maternal employment, such as maternal stress and less time spent with infant, may contribute to problems for both mother and child. The researcher has conducted a study to determine if there is a relationship between maternal employment during a child's infancy and the attachment reported by those children in adolescence.

Hypothesis

There is a significant relationship between mother's work status during a child's infancy and the degree of attachment between the mother and child during early adolescence.

CHAPTER III

METHOD

Subjects

The sample for this study was selected from the total population of sixth and seventh grade students at a middle class, private, Christian school in St. Louis, Missouri. The population is comprised of twenty-three sixth graders (eight females and fifteen males) and thirty-six seventh graders (seventeen females and seventeen males). The population is approximately fifty-eight percent White, thirty-five percent Black, and seven percent Other Ethnicities.

A volunteer method of selection was used. A letter (See Appendix A) explaining the study and assuring anonymity was sent to the parents of all sixth and seventh grade students. A follow up phone call was also made to all of the parents. All students whose parents gave written permission (See Appendix B) for them to participate and who live primarily with their natural mother were selected. Thirty-five students (fifty-nine percent participation) were obtained for the sample.

This sample population consists of seventeen sixth graders (six females and eleven males) and eighteen seventh graders (seven females and eleven males). This sample population is approximately 57% White, 37% Black, and 2% Other Ethnicities. The students range in age from eleven to thirteen.

Sampling bias may have occurred if those parents who knew the researcher were more likely to grant permission for their child to participate over those who did not know the researcher. However, the letter and phone call were intended to decrease the possibility of this source of bias. The study is limited to the population of those students at this school.

Instrument

The Inventory of Parent and Peer Attachment (IPPA) was used for data collection in this study. It was formulated by Gay C. Armsden and Mark T. Greenberg (1987) for the purpose of measuring the subject's attachment to his or her parents and peers. It was originally developed for use with late adolescents but can be used with subjects ages ten to twenty.

The IPPA consists of three twenty-five item instruments that measure attachment to mother, father, and peers. Each instrument includes the following three subscales: trust (T), communication © and alienation (A). Only one of the instruments, attachment to mother, was used for this study.

Because the scoring procedure has changed since the IPPA was first developed, no norms are available for the current version. Administration and scoring of the IPPA is quite simple and does not require any formal training. Each instrument is scored individually. Total attachment to mother can be calculated by reverse-scoring ten items indicated in the manual and summing the twenty-five items within this instrument. The subscales are subsequently found

by summing the given items, which are individually either directly or reversely scored, within each subscale.

The test-retest reliability coefficients over a three-week interval are .93 for this joint parental attachment scale. The T, C, and A subscales of the parental attachment scale have internal consistency alphas of .91, .91, and .86 respectively. The IPPA has excellent concurrent validity when scores are correlated with measures of psychological well-being and family functioning. Its scores are negatively correlated with depression and loneliness. It also has good known-groups validity with scores discriminating delinquent and non-delinquent subjects.

The IPPA has some strengths. The directions for scoring are easy to follow. The new version has separate mother and father attachment scores which lends itself to many more studies. Its weakness is the lack of norm groups for this new version.

Overall, the questions elicit information that is pertinent to attachment as is evidenced by its high face validity. The reliability appears to be strong for the parental instruments making it a suitable instrument for this study.

See attached instrument and demographic sheet for data that was collected. (Appendix C and Appendix D)

Procedure

Parents who were willing to sign the permission form for their child to

participate in the study were asked to fill out the attached coded demographic sheet. Gathering data on the mother's employment status from the parents assured the accuracy of the information. The researcher sought to control for extraneous variables such as blended families through the demographic data received.

Those students whose parents had given written permission and who had indicated that their child currently lived primarily with his or her natural mother were selected to participate. This was to assure that responses on the test were reflective of the child's attachment with the natural mother. One student did live with adoptive parents. She was allowed to participate in the study because the researcher did not feel this would interfere with the results of the test. Permission slips and demographic data sheets were separated to assure anonymity.

The Inventory of Parent and Peer Attachment Test (IPPA) was distributed to the group of sixth graders and then the group of seventh graders in their classroom during their regularly scheduled English class. Other students who were not participating were instructed by their regular teacher to work on homework. The written directions from the test were read aloud and then individuals were asked to fill out their individual tests. Both groups completed the tests within fifteen minutes. The demographic data sheets that had been previously filled out by parents were collected along with the tests. The tests were later coded to match the coordinating demographic sheets.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Statistical Data

Subjects were given the Inventory of Parent and Peer Attachment Test (IPPA). Total attachment scores as well as three subtest scores (trust, communication, and alienation) were calculated from the questions answered. This information was coordinated with data from the demographic worksheet given to the subjects' parents. See Appendix for this data.

Table 1 shows collective information regarding the total attachment scores for the 35 subjects.

TABLE 1. Total Attachment Scores on the IPPA

Valid Cases : 35			
Mean	96.9429	Min.	49.0000
Median	101.0000	Max.	125.0000
Variance	257.6437	Range	76.0000
Std. Dev.	16.0513	Skewness	-.7604

Of the 35 scores, the mean score, or average score, was 96.9429 with a standard deviation of 16.0513. The scores had a range of 76 with a minimum score of 49 and a maximum score of 125. The scores had a high variance of 257.6437 which indicates that the scores are highly dispersed or spread out. The scores also appear to be negatively skewed (-.7604) which means that more scores fell below than above the mean.

Is there a significant difference in the scores according to the mother's work status? This variable was examined by categorizing the results of the subjects' scores into four groups based on the mother's work status. The four groups are as follows: did not work (mothers who did not work outside of the home at all), part-time (mothers who worked outside of the home less than thirty hours per week), full-time (mothers who worked outside of the home at least thirty hours per week), and other (mothers who did not fit into any of the other three groups due to special circumstances or because of changes in work status). These results are presented in Table 2.

TABLE 2. Results of Scores on the IPPA According to Mother's Work Status

Mother's Work Status	Did Not Work	Part-Time	Full-Time	Other
# of Subjects	11	2	15	7
Mean	94.4545	93.0000	102.4000	90.2857
Median	96.0000	93.0000	106.0000	89.0000
Variance	182.2727	338.0000	131.9714	649.2381
Std. Dev.	13.5008	18.3848	11.4879	25.4802
Min.	75.0000	80.0000	78.0000	49.0000
Max.	115.0000	106.0000	119.0000	125.0000
Range	40.0000	26.0000	41.0000	76.0000
Skewness	.0409		-.7768	-.3141

There were 11 subjects whose mothers did not work during their infancy. The mean score is 94.4545 with a standard deviation of 13.5008. The scores had a range of 40 with a minimum score of 75 and a maximum score of 115. The scores had a variance of 182.2727. The scores are slightly positively skewed (.0409).

There were only 2 subjects whose mothers worked part-time during their infancy. The mean score is 93.0000 with a standard deviation of 18.3848. The two scores had a range of 26 with one being 80 and the other 106. The scores had a variance of 338.0000.

There were 15 subjects whose mothers worked full-time during their infancy. The mean score is 102.40000 with a standard deviation of 11.4879. The scores had a range of 41 with a minimum of 78 and a maximum of 119. The scores had a variance of 131.9714. The scores are negatively skewed (-.7768).

There were 7 subjects whose mothers indicated that they did not fit into one of the other three categories due to special work conditions or job changes during the time their child was an infant. The mean score is 90.2857 with a standard deviation of 25.4802. The scores had a range of 76 with a minimum of 49 and a maximum of 125. The scores had a high variance of 649.2381. The scores are negatively skewed (-.3141).

After examining the variable of mother's work status, a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed in order to determine if there is a significant difference between the mean scores with regard to mother's work status. An assumption in performing a one-way ANOVA is that the scores are normally distributed. A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed because four groups are being compared based on one variable. Table 3 shows the results of this test.

TABLE 3. Results of the One-Way Analysis of Variance of Total Scores
by Mother's Work Status

Variable:	Total Score on the IPPA				
By Variable:	Mother's Work Status				
		Sum of	Mean	F	F
Source	D.F.	Squares	Squares	Ratio	Prob.
Between Groups	3	856.1299	285.3766	1.1193	.3563
Within Groups	31	7903.7558	254.9599		
Total	34	8759.8857			

Between group variability is how much the group means vary among themselves, the four groups of this study. The between groups sum of squares is 856.1299 and the mean squares is 285.3766.

Within group variability is a measure of how much the observations vary within a particular group. This statistic is used to estimate the variance within a group in the population. The sum of squares for this sample is 7903.7558 and the mean squares is 254.9599.

The Levene's test was also used to test the null hypothesis that the variances of the groups are equal. The Levene's test shows that $P=.7437$.

Because P is greater than the alpha coefficient ($.7437 > .05$), we can accept the null hypothesis that the variances of the groups are equal.

The researcher can now look to determine if the null hypothesis of the study should be accepted or rejected. The null hypothesis of this study was there is no significant relationship between mother's work status during a child's infancy and the degree of attachment between the mother and child during early adolescence. The alternative hypothesis was there is a significant relationship between mother's work status during a child's infancy and the degree of attachment between the mother and child during early adolescence.

If the null hypothesis is true, the two numbers of the within group mean squares and the between group mean squares should be close to one another. If one of these numbers is divided by the other, the ratio should be close to one. This ratio, called the F Ratio, is 1.1193 for this study. It must be determined, by the F Prob., how often it can be expected to have a ratio of 1.1193 or larger if the null hypothesis is true. The F Prob. is .3563 indicating that it is likely that a large F Ratio will be seen when the null hypothesis is true.

The alpha was set at .05 for this study. Because $.3563 > .05$, the researcher must conclude that the data in this study did not find a significant difference in Total attachment scores among the four groups of subjects based on mother's work status. Therefore, the null hypothesis that there is not a significant relationship between mother's work status during a child's infancy and the

degree of attachment between the mother and child during early adolescence must be accepted in this study.

Three more one-way analysis of variance tests (ANOVA) were performed in order to determine if there are significant differences between subtest scores with regard to mother's work status. The three subtest scores are Trust, Communication, and Alienation. Tables 4, 5, and 6 show the results of these tests.

TABLE 4. Results of the One-Way Analysis of Variance of the Trust Subtest Scores by Mother's Work Status

Variable:	Trust Subtest Score				
By Variable:	Mother's Work Status				
		Sum of	Mean	F	F
Source	D.F.	Squares	Squares	Ratio	Prob.
Between Groups	3	150.1004	50.0335	1.2776	.2993
Within Groups	31	1214.0710	39.1636		
Total	34	1364.1714			

TABLE 5. Results of the One-Way Analysis of Variance of the
Communication Subtest Scores by Mother's Work Status

Variable: Communication Subtest Score

By Variable: Mother's Work Status

		Sum of	Mean	F	F
Source	D.F.	Squares	Squares	Ratio	Prob.
Between Groups	3	87.8134	29.2711	.5810	.6319
Within Groups	31	1561.7294	50.3784		
Total	34	1649.5429			

TABLE 6. Results of the One-Way Analysis of Variance of the
Alienation Subtest Scores by Mother's Work Status

Variable: Alienation Subtest Score

By Variable: Mother's Work Status

		Sum of	Mean	F	F
Source	D.F.	Squares	Squares	Ratio	Prob.
Between Groups	3	66.2481	22.0827	.8549	.4747
Within Groups	31	800.7234	25.8298		
Total	34	866.9714			

The ANOVA test for the Trust subtest shows an F Prob. of .2993. Because $.2993 > .05$, the researcher must conclude that the data from this study did not find a significant difference in Trust scores between the four groups of subjects based on mother's work status.

The ANOVA test for the Communication subtest shows an F Prob. of .6319. Because $.6319 > .05$, the researcher must conclude that the data from this study did not find a significant difference in Communication scores between the four groups based on mother's work status.

The ANOVA test for the Alienation subtest shows an F Prob. of .4747. Because $.4747 > .05$, the researcher must conclude that the data from this study did not find a significant difference in Alienation scores between the four groups based on mother's work status.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

Conclusions

This study examined the relationship between mother's work status during a child's infancy and degree of attachment between mother and child as reported by the child at the onset of early adolescence. The degree of attachment was measured by the Inventory of Parent and Peer Attachment Test (IPPA). Subjects' scores were categorized into one of four groups based on mother's work status during infancy. The results of the study do not indicate that there is a significant difference in the total attachment scores between the four groups. This suggests that there is not a clear relationship between the two variables (attachment and mother's work status).

Attachment scores within all four groups varied. The ranges of scores within the four groups were as follows: did not work – 40, part time – 26, full time – 41, and other – 76. These ranges indicate that there may be a number of other factors not considered in this study that may be impacting the attachment between mother and early adolescent regardless of mother's work status during infancy.

When looking at Table 1, there are some other differences between the 4 groups worth noting. Although the mean total attachment score for the full time group is the highest, this group also has the largest negative skew indicating that

the majority of scores within this group fell below the mean of 102.4000. The mean total attachment score for the other group is the lowest and still also has a negative skew of -.3141. Thus, the other group had the lowest mean score of the four groups. Factors defining this group were not as clear as for the other three therefore making it difficult to focus on what separates subjects in this group from those subjects in the other three groups.

The three subtests (Trust, Communication, and Alienation) were also an area of interest. Again, the data did not show any significant differences between the subjects' scores based on mother's work status.

Limitations of the Study

The results of this study should be analyzed cautiously since the number of subjects was small. Although the minimum requirement of thirty was met for total subjects, the number within each of the four groups based on mother's work status was small.

It should also be noted that all of the subjects were taken from one small private Christian school. The setting from which the subjects came may have unique factors of its own which may have impacted the results found in this study. Therefore, the results should not be generalized to other settings.

Another limitation of this study may be in the instrument that was used. There are not any norm groups for this current version of the Inventory of Parent

and Peer Attachment test (IPPA). Thus, there is nothing to compare the data from this study to.

It should also be noted that although the IPPA may be used with early adolescents, it was originally designed to be used with older adolescents. The subjects may not have fully understood every item on the test or how to accurately apply the rating system as they responded. Also, although every assurance was given that they would remain anonymous in their answers, some may have feared that they would be identified or that their parents would be shown the results.

Suggestions for Further Research

Perhaps differences in attachments could be studied with regard to gender. As was noted by Stuckey et al. (1982), there are differences in parent-child interactions based on gender. These differences may impact attachment between mother and child. The mean Total Attachment score for the females in this study was 99.6923 while the mean score for the males was only 95.3182. Although a T-test was not run to determine if this difference was significant, it does present a question worth considering.

APPENDIX A: COVER LETTER

Dear Parents of Sixth and Seventh Grade Students,

My name is Sherri D. Brown. I am the Learning Disabilities therapist at your child's school. I am currently working on a thesis project as part of my graduate studies in counseling. I need sixth and seventh grade students to participate in the study. This would require you, the parent, to fill out the demographic data sheet that is attached and sign the permission slip below. Your child would then take the Inventory of Parent and Peer Attachment test. I assure you that no names will be used in the study. The demographic data sheet and your child's test will be coded in order to be matched, but your identity will not be revealed.

Participation in the study is strictly voluntary. If you have any questions regarding the study, please contact me at 522-6086.

Thank you for your time.

Sincerely,

Sherri D. Brown

*****Please return by _____ in order to participate. The test will be administered to participants during their regularly scheduled English class on _____.

APPENDIX B: PERMISSION SLIP

Permission Slip for Participation
in Research Study

I give permission for my child _____
to participate in Sherri D. Brown's research study. I understand that this will
require me to fill out the attached demographic sheet and my child to take a
portion of the Inventory of Parent and Peer Attachment test. I also understand
that our answers will remain anonymous. I am participating on a volunteer basis
only.

Parent's Signature

Date

APPENDIX C: DEMOGRAPHIC SHEET

Demographic Data Sheet

Please answer all of the following questions by checking the appropriate response.

If you have more than one child, please answer the questions as they refer to your child who will be participating in the study only.

1. You are the child's _____.
 Natural Mother
 Stepmother
 Adopted Mother
 Other – please explain _____
2. Has your child live primarily with you since birth?
 Yes
 No
3. During the time your child was an infant (birth to age 2 years), you _____.
 Did not work outside of the home
 Worked outside of the home part-time (less than 30 hours per week)
 Worked outside of the home full-time (at least 30 hours per week)
 Other – please explain _____
4. If you did work outside of the home during your child's infancy, how would your job at that time best be described?
 Office or Clerical
 Managerial or Sales
 Scientific
 Artistic

___ Skilled Trade or Technical

___ Service Oriented

___ Educational or Social Welfare

5. If you did work during your child's infancy, childcare was provided by whom?

___ Another family member

___ Private childcare

___ Daycare facility

Thank you for your participation!!!

APPENDIX D: IPPA

INVENTORY OF PARENT AND PEER ATTACHMENT (IPPA)

Authors:

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Almost Never or Never True	Not Very Often True	Some- times True	Often True	Almost Always or Always True
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This questionnaire asks about your relationships with important people in your life; your mother, your father, and your close friends. Please read the directions to each part carefully.

Part I

Some of the following statements asks about your feelings about your mother or the person who has acted as your mother. If you have more than one person acting as your mother (e.g. a natural mother and a step-mother) answer the questions for the one you feel has most influenced you.

Please read each statement and circle the ONE number that tells how true the statement is for you now.

	Almost Never or Never True	Not Very Often True	Some- times True	Often True	Almost Always or Always True
1. My mother respects my feeling.	1	2	3	4	5
2. I feel my mother does a good job as my mother.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I wish I had a different mother.	1	2	3	4	5
4. My mother accepts me as I am.	1	2	3	4	5
5. I like to get my mother's point of view on things I'm concerned about.	1	2	3	4	5
6. I feel it's no use letting my feelings show around my mother.	1	2	3	4	5
7. My mother can tell when I'm upset about something.	1	2	3	4	5

8. Talking over my problems with my mother makes me feel ashamed or foolish.	1	2	3	4	5
9. My mother expects too much from me.	1	2	3	4	5
10. I get upset easily around my mother.	1	2	3	4	5
11. I get upset a lot more than my mother knows about.	1	2	3	4	5
12. When we discuss things, my mother cares about my point of view.	1	2	3	4	5
13. My mother trusts my judgment.	1	2	3	4	5
14. My mother has her own problems, so I don't bother her with mine.	1	2	3	4	5
15. My mother helps me to understand myself better.	1	2	3	4	5
16. I tell my mother about my problems and troubles.	1	2	3	4	5
17. I feel angry with my mother.	1	2	3	4	5
18. I don't get much attention from my mother.	1	2	3	4	5
19. My mother helps me to talk about my difficulties.	1	2	3	4	5
20. My mother understands me.	1	2	3	4	5
21. When I am angry about something, my mother tries to be understanding.	1	2	3	4	5
22. I trust my mother.	1	2	3	4	5
23. My mother doesn't understand what I'm going through these days.	1	2	3	4	5
24. I can count on my mother when I need to get something off my chest.	1	2	3	4	5
25. If my mother knows something is bothering me, she asks me about it.	1	2	3	4	5

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