DUAL CAREER FAMILIES AND THE EFFECTS ON
PARENT-CHILD RELATIONSHIPS

A Project

Presented to the faculty of the Division of Social Work
California State University, Sacramento

Submitted in partial satisfaction of the requirements for the degree of

MASTERS OF SOCIAL WORK

by

Dezarae L. Johnson

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2014
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PARENT-CHILD RELATIONSHIPS

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by

Dezarae L. Johnson

Approved by:

__________________________________, Committee Chair
Kisun Nam, Ph. D., MSSW

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Student: Dezarae L. Johnson

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__________________________, Graduate Coordinator  
Dale Russell, Ed.D., LCSW  

Date  

Division of Social Work
Abstract

of

DUAL CAREER FAMILIES AND THE EFFECTS ON
PARENT-CHILD RELATIONSHIPS

by

Dezarae L. Johnson

Statement of Problem

How does the functionality of dual-earning households effect the quality of relationships within families with children, and what is the impact on child and adolescent moral, social and educational development? Parent and children routines in dual-earning households were tracked and examined to determine their well-being and the level of functionality within the family household, the workplace, and the educational environment.

Sources of Data

Quantitative and qualitative data were collected through the use of questionnaires, specifically dataset three of The 500 Family Study.
Conclusions Reached

Findings indicate minimal significance correlation with the positive outcomes of children of dual-role households. As there is no featured comparable data in the study, future research is important to understand the relevance of time management, patterns of parenting and child development. Social workers should be knowledgeable in the areas of establishing and strengthening the relationships between parents and children to provide effective services to this population.

__________________________, Committee Chair
Kisun Nam, Ph.D., MSSW

__________________________
Date
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Glory to God. All ways, always.

Dr. Kisun Nam: thank you for your continued guidance throughout the completion of this project.
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Chapter 1

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The Alfred P. Sloan Center on Parents, Children and Work provides a beaming perspective of the American family with studies dating back as far as the nineteen fifties. Roles and boundaries of the nuclear family have traditionally been defined as the father being the breadwinner, the mother being a homemaker and the children simply go to school. Over the last six decades, the family has had to be flexible in adapting to a rapidly changing economy and most certainly parenting role stress have been found to impact negatively on psychological well-being and marriage quality (Katz, Lavee, & Sharlin, 1996). Unfortunately, the intense demands of balancing paid work and family responsibilities place dual-earning parents and their children at risk for role conflicts and stress. This study examines the quality of parent-child relationships, and how parents perceive child development.

Background of the Problem

Traditionally, women often retain the primary responsibility of house work and child care within the division of household responsibilities. Based on the literature on dual-earning families by Sociologists Suzanne Bianchi and Daphne Spain, problems experienced in dual-earning families are often attributed to (1996) this tradition and framed primarily as the woman’s problem. This struggle of balancing a career and responsibilities to the family may increase the risk of role overload and stress for both men and women. Secondly, this pressure can negatively affect parental functioning.
This creates a need to build on the construction of the environment through strategic (Kavey, Pixley, & Wethington, 1992) and how parents should fulfill their roles in the management of children’s morality, social development and learning experiences. Lastly, as the issues facing parents, children employers and schools are complex, families today are met with the pressure both within the family and outside and the ability to adapt is essential.

**Statement of the Research Problem**

How does the functionality of dual-earning households effect the quality of relationships within families with children, and what is the impact on child and adolescent moral, social and educational development? Parent and children routines in dual-earning households were tracked and examined to determine their well-being and the level of functionality within the family household, the workplace, and the educational environment.

**Study Purpose**

The purpose of this study was to utilize the data collected in *The 500 Family Study* (Schneider & Waite, 2200) to provide information that would incorporate dual-earning families as the focus; as research on dual-earning care providers and the effects on parent-child relationships is relatively understudied. Understanding the dynamics involved in dual-earning families and the psychological and relational effects on the relationships parents have with their children was the primary purpose of this research.
Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework that will be used in the study is the Ecological Theory. Psychologist Urie Bronfenbrenner (1979) identifies the ecological process as an important perspective for understanding healthy human development. However, it is critical to recognize that Bronfenbrenner’s work did not pioneer ecological thinking. In 1949, Father Swithun Bowers published a review of everything he could find in his professional research. Exploring the definition and meaning of direct practice in social work, giving priority to focus on the individual or their ecological context, stating the following:

Mobilization of inner and outer resources is in varying circumstances variously emphasized; in some instances it will be a primary mobilization of the individual’s strengths; in others, mainly placing community resources on an active footing in regard to the client (Bowers, 1949, pp. 416-417).

Urie Bronfenbrenner followed Bowers work, becoming responsible for important foundational theory and research, with his basic insights a part of contemporary professionalism of social work.

The ecological systems theory is a relational perspective (Coady & Lehmann, 2008, pp. 91). The person and the environment in which the person exists are consistently, intricately, successfully, and repetitiously shaping and supporting one another. The eco-systems perspective focuses on the mutual contribution and response
of the person, and the environment, in the form of a transactional process that is co-
dependent and constant.

Research on development and environmental studies have been characterized as
adhering mostly to an environmentalist perspective, noting the child being shaped by
the environment and its contingencies (Joanne Sontag, 1996, pp. 322).
Bronfenbrenner’s model views the child as a contributor to the environment, while
indirect effects, such as parenting and employment, are explicitly addressed in
understanding development. The ecological system does not identify development as
unidirectional. Rather, it attends to the systemic reciprocal nature of the child and
environmental influence.

Bronfenbrenner defined environment as event or condition outside of the
person that either influences or is influenced by the developing person and refers to
interaction as the exchanges between the human and its immediate environments
(Bronfenbrenner, 1994). In this study, the interactions are inclusive of the
interrelations within the hierarchically structured family system that influence child
development. The relativity includes the verbal and nonverbal exchanges between the
child(ren) in the home, their parents, teachers, employers and supervisors, peers,
cohorts and family members. There is also a joint function of characteristics of
environment that influence child development such as school, home, neighborhood,
and workplace. The most critical characteristic of the ecological systems theory is the
focus on development, while the uniqueness of person to environment interactions lead
to Bronfenbrenner concept of ecological niches (Bronfenbrenner, 1992). The exploration of ecological niches that explain the relativity of dual-earning families to child development is a distinctive quality of the theory that is found most relative. Ecological niches “are particular regions in the environment that are especially favorable or unfavorable to the development of individuals with particular personal characteristics” (Bronfenbrenner, 1992, p. 194). This notion drives consideration of individual patterns of being that connect unique environmental nature in a way that results in identifying human potential. Ecological theory and its component of ecological niches can help expand child development research, providing explanation for the behavior and development within a dual-earning family.

**Definition of Terms**

*Breadwinning* is define as – providing for a household by some, not all, forms of employment. Attached to the meaning of work for pay, the views of gender boundaries and notion are incorporated to construct perception (Jean Potuchek, *Who Supports the Family?*).

Dual-earning is define as – a relationship in which both partners pursue an occupation or career. A growing standard that has been perceived as nontraditional, yet becoming more of the norm (Gordon Marshall, 2003).

*Functionality* is defined as – the quality or state of beings functional; operating on a continuum that is conducive to happiness in parenting and the workplace, household stability, and healthy progression of children.
*Household* is defined as – a family consisting of two parents that are employed, and children, that dwells under the same roof.

*Routines* are defined as – observable, repetitive behaviors involving two or more family members, which occur with regularity in the continuous life of the family (Boyce et al., 1983; Jensen et al., 1983).
Chapter 2
REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Family dynamics have evolved with the development of women’s rights and the evolution of technology and parenting. The ecology of the family structure has remained the focus, however the influence of routine has become

Review of Research

To begin with a more descriptive explanation of dual-earning parenting, the differences and history of breadwinning and employment must first be disentangled. Dating back to the industrial revolution, the look and effects on these patterns will be explored with the idea that preindustrial households were domestic economies in which every member of the family contributed to the production of ensuring survival. Domestic and work responsibilities were part of a seamless whole. As the economy became industrialized, the production of goods used in everyday life moved out of the household and into the factory.

As the production of goods shifted, there became a separation of work and home responsibilities and over time, women and men developed distinctive roles in each. Women began to bare the responsibilities of the household unit, in which housework and childcare took on a new centrality. Complementary, this domesticity was made possible by the responsibility of men for earning an income in the sphere of paid work outside the home. The idea of “the breadwinner” was born with this special male responsibility for providing an income. Sociologist Jessie Bernard argues that this
idea emerged in the United States in the 1830s until the late 1970s (Benard, 1981). Breadwinning involves paid employment, but also the daily obligation to earn money for the financial support of the family. In the prosperity of the family, the breadwinners duty is to work, and leaving the labor force, even if only temporarily, is not an option.

In the earliest stages of industrialization in the mid-nineteenth century, when light industry such as textiles predominated, all family members worked in the mills, sometimes as a family group. Families who had engaged in home production moved to the cities. The wages of the family formed a common fund, and parents tried to keep wage-earning children at home as long as possible, even if it meant taking care of a daughter’s illegitimate child (Scott & Tilly, 1987). Children and their mother traded off work roles, with the mother stopping paid employment as soon as the children were old enough to work, sometimes as young as ten. Even when married women remained at home, they did piecework for garment production and/or took in lodgers. Though men were the primary wage earners, mothers managed household expenditures and kept in touch with relatives, who could help out in an emergency.

The move towards heavy industry in the early twentieth century accentuated male employment and the role of the male breadwinner. The image of women at home came to be seen as a sign of prosperity, and a man whose wife worked was stigmatized. Single women worked, however, including middleclass women as jobs opened up in clerical work and teaching, which fitted their status. Married women generally did not work for wages, and even professional women faced a marriage bar instituted by
employers. Men’s wages increased, particularly when unions demanded a ‘family wage’ that would support an entire family. Families were motivated to have fewer children, who were now more financially dependent and required schooling. But the better-off families still had more than one wage earner.

An increase in consumer goods and in the demand for women workers in the growing service industry in the early twentieth century gradually encouraged married women to join the labor force, in what referred to as ‘the family consumer economy’ (Scott & Tilly, 1987). Mothers worked instead of children, but were still paid as supplementary wage earners. The entrance of married women into fulltime paid employment was the biggest challenge to the man’s role as breadwinner, because it reduced women’s financial dependence and made them question their subordinate role in the family and society. Women began to press for rights like maternity leave and day care centers, which would reduce their disadvantages to men in fulltime employment.

Until 1930, men and single white women predominated in manufacturing employment, while married white women were governed by a cult of domesticity that confined women to the home. Protective legislation for women reinforced their domestic role and hastened the process of occupational segregation by gender, which continues to this day. As Tilly (1993) observes, occupational segregation reduced competition between men and women for the same jobs and restricted women to lower-level jobs at lower wages.
Domesticity declined with the massive entrance of white married women into the labor force after World War II to meet an increasing demand for women in clerical and other white-collar employment. Starting in 1970, the decline in male wages and increases in male unemployment reinforced the need for a dual wage-earner family. Manufacturing employment gradually declined as it faced foreign competition and was transferred abroad, starting with female-dominated sectors like the garment industry, but de-industrialization later reached heavy industry in which white men predominated, such as steel and automobiles. White men continue to monopolize high-level managerial and professional employment, while African Americans and Latino(a)s are concentrated in the growing service sector. Despite the increasing percentage of white women in high-level jobs, gender and ethnic employment hierarchies persist and can now be seen within each racial and ethnic group, as well as among women (Amott & Matthai, 1991).

Since the early 1900s, it had never been unusual for a wife to generate income by taking in laundry, sewing, preparing meals, in addition to her domestic responsibilities. By the end of World War II, wives income generating activities had shifted drastically towards markets outside of the home, often involving formal participation in the paid labor force. In the 1960s and 1970s, married women’s paid employment became increasingly visible and by 1980, more than half of all husband-wife households with employed husbands also had employed wives. Appropriately,
since a lot of husbands were away at war, it was assumed that the employed wives had transformed into becoming the breadwinners.

Research literature on wives labor force participation provides evidence that both men and women attach different meanings to the employment of wives than to the employment of husbands. Reports from men indicated that, even when their wives were employed, they still felt a special obligation to provide (Gerson, 1993; Lein, 1983; Reid & Smith, 1986; Rodman & Safilos-Rothschild, 1983). A later study of dual-earning families in the San Francisco bay area, was conducted by sociologist Arlie Hochschild (1989). The data from this study reflects that there was often a “second shift” (1989) of housework that women took responsibility for after paid working shifts were completed. Hochschild’s case study also revealed a high sense of male power of the breadwinning title. As women resolved the tension between home and work by cutting back on their work hours or switching to part-time employment, there was only one case that the husband dedicated more time to domestic responsibilities. In Hochschild’s observation, both husband and wife seemed to grant special status to the husband’s job, even when the wife earned more that her husband (1989).

As dual-earning families are increasingly prevalent in today’s society, there is an obvious disjuncture between employment and breadwinning. Wives are not automatically defined as breadwinners as with men, it is a distinct responsibility, creating a gender boundary. While the economic circumstances, family size, and material conditions of a parenting couple can highly influence this boundary, these
factors do not determine its meaning. Today, a new millennium offers much more flexibility and exploration into defining family roles to ultimately foster a healthy living environment for the family as a whole.

With children, it is imperative in development to ensure that children do not become devoid of attention and care. As it is very likely that children can learn to exist with the attentive nurturing from their caregivers, it has been systemically proven that the bonds created between parents and their children, in all stages of development, should be a high regard in parenting. Time spent at home with family is positive for mothers and fathers, although fathers experience more positive affect and emotional benefit from being at home than their wives (Koh, 2005). When at work, fathers feel significantly lower levels of positive affect and greater negative affect than when they are at home or in public places. Mothers, on the other hand, report similar levels of positive affect at work and at home. Lack of, sudden changes, and drastic shifts in the attentive care that parents provide to their children can be traumatic for children and adolescents. The next portion of this study will explore the adolescent stage of development and how children can respond to surmounting challenges that dual-earning families face.

Jean Potuchek's “Who Supports the Family?” offers some insight into the undercurrents of contemporary family life and historical change. Potuchek demonstrates the ways that husbands and wives form, maintain, change, discard, and clash over the use of breadwinning within the gender boundary. She finds that
individual men and women tend to experience disjunctions and contradictions among their behavior, their norms, and the meaning they impute to their actions (1997).

Couples tend to settle into agreement or contention over time as they negotiate, construct, and adjust their strategies. Amidst social constraints and contingencies, changing economic and family circumstances, there are many triggers for these struggles and compromises. Beliefs and ideologies are especially pliable, and most couples struggle to develop worldviews that better fit the options they face and the choices they make. Some couples endeavor to maintain a strong division between male breadwinning and female domesticity in the face of eroding supports, and others encounter circumstances that push them toward such traditional arrangements.

The overwhelming majority, however, find themselves moving away from clear and consistent gender boundaries. The most prevalent trend in the is the blurring of gender boundaries and the emergence of new, more complex forms of breadwinning, including dual-earning relationships. This standard often shows growth of greater sharing in the allocating of family responsibilities- including parental caretaking as well as breadwinning. However, the rise of new, more egalitarian family forms do not represent simplicity. Ideologies and ideal behaviors deviate and collide; involving increased variation, confusion, and contradiction in how women and men structure and maintain their private lives.

Toni S. Zimmerman, PhD, a human development and family studies professor at Colorado State University states that, in striving for a true partnership with equal
responsibility for domestic chores and child care. "the partnership between mom and
dad-their ability to work well together and have each one's job and time be as valuable
as the other's" (American Psychological Association, 2005). Making the family unit a
priority is a common thread in Zimmerman’s research. This involves not pushing
children to be involved in continuous activities such as sports, playing instruments and
that multitasking almost doubled for working parents between 1975 and 2000. With the
increase in cell phone use and texting since 2006, one might expect that these numbers
would increase substantially. Parents have turned to purchasing services in the market,
such as childcare, takeout meals, and cleaning services (Bianchi et al. 2000; Stuenkel,
2005). Parents have also adjusted the amount of time they are willing to devote to
cooking, cleaning house, or participating in leisure activities to maximize time with
their children (Bianchi et. al., 2006). This multitasking constitutes yet another
mechanism working families use to cope with the pressures of the balancing time.
Zimmerman also reveals that parents with such organization and strategy were also
more focused in the workplace environment (2005). Parents being available and
attentive to their children and each other as a couple and even as individuals is the
center of the main strategies for successfully balancing work and family.

Lastly, the routines incorporated within interactions have been shown to form
the sense foundation within the family (Prentice, 2008). Focused specifically on the
children, research shows that routine directly relates to a child’s well-being (Denham,
Researchers investigated the profits of establishing a routine and found that children would have more positive outcomes such as enhanced academic performance, healthier peer relationships, better parent-child relationships and higher self-esteem when routines are practiced (Hsueh & Yoshikawa, 2007; McLoyd et al., 2008; Strazdins, Korda, Lim, Broom, & D'Souza, 2004). Routines may also forecast better physical well-being for children (Denham, 2002; McLoyd et al., 2008).
Chapter 3

METHOD

Chapter three details the methods used in the study, reviewing the research hypotheses, design, participants and procedures throughout the research.

Study Objectives

This study will compare the functional outcomes of the parents perception towards children versus the parents interaction with their children in adolescents negative and positive development. It also incorporates parental demographic variables.

Study Design

The primary research question of this study was examining how the functionality of dual-earning households effects the quality of relationships within families with children. Specifically, what significance do parental perspective and routine have on adolescent moral, social and educational development? This was examined through a correlational study examining relationships between adolescent behavioral outcomes and parental demographics and routine with children.

Researchers used a secondary data set to analyze the provisions of child development in dual-career families. The 500 Family Study (1998-2000) by Barbara Schneider and Linda J. Waite identify participants as children, adolescents and their parents. These participants were chosen to examine how the careers of parents affect family maintenance and more specifically how it impacts the quality of parenting, moral and social development, and the learning experiences of children.
There are five-hundred twelve families in eight different communities that participated in this study, three-hundred twenty-seven having teenaged children and one-hundred fifty-seven having kindergarten-aged children and twenty-eight having both teenagers and kindergarteners. This study analyzes and compares the data of all datasets to provide a relative understating the effects of occupational responsibilities of two working parents and the developmental pathways of their children and adolescents.

The demographic identifiers consist of data collected eights cities in the United States, more specifically in five cities in the Midwest, one in the Southeast, one in the Northwest and one on the West Coast.

The 500 Family Study provides measure of the dynamics on today’s families and the strategies used to balance the demands of maintaining work and their families. The study evaluated the parents’ perception of their children’s moral, social and educational development; quality of parent-child relationships; parenting and demographics such as parents’ education, income and race.

Quantitative and qualitative data were collected throughout a series of surveys, interviews and time diaries. Collectively, these tools provided information pertaining to work, marriage and relationships, childcare, supervision, household tasks, organization, coping and the overall well-being of individuals as parents, kindergarteners and adolescents. The structure of the responses was based on each individual parent, increasing the sample selection to 878 participants. For the purpose of the study, that
sample selection was narrowed to 597 as the research focuses in on the larger scale of families with adolescents, avoiding families with kindergarteners or both.

The data has been downloaded from a public domain of Inter-University Consortium For Political and Social Research (ICPSR) at http://www.icpsr.umich.edu/icpsrweb/ICPSR/studies/4549?archive=ICPSR&q=4549. ICPSR is a website that provides data access and methods of analysis for social science research community. California State University, Sacramento is a member institution, permitting access to data to students and faculty of Sac State. By creating an account, the researcher was permitted to download data available only to ICPSR members. Once logged on, and in agreement with the terms of privacy and purpose of the data collection, the researcher downloaded the data for statistical reporting and analysis.

In this study, the use of a secondary data set voids the requirement of obtaining informed consent from subjects, as well as the rights to privacy and safety. In addition, there is no risk of discomfort or harm, no use of equipment, instruments, drugs, pharmaceuticals, or other devices.

**Data Analysis**

The research data of the 500 Family Study was analyzed by quantitative analysis. First, themes of the research as it relates to the progression of parent-child relationships and dual earning families, were established. These themes were identified as depended and independent variables to test, which include the parental
demographics, parent-child activities, children educational behaviors, parents’ perception and the discussion of educational goals.

The questionnaires of the study in dataset three were determined to be most resourceful to the research by reviewing the data contained in each of the datasets surveys. Each question in every survey distributed separately amongst mothers, fathers and adolescent were reviewed, highlighting the relevant concepts and information as related to parent-child relationships, perspective and child behavior. Each survey question was condensed through data reduction, which is the process of simplifying and eliminating data that does not directly address the research question. Patterns and connections within the variable categories were identified. The correlations that were hypothesized between the dependent and independent variable manifested the SPSS statistical analysis.

**Measurement**

Recoding was conducted to create a constant nominal value, across each independent variable highest to lowest. After the recoding, there were labels attached to the values of the new variables. Value and value labels were placed onto the recoded variables. In this study, the independent variables are the parental demographics. These variable were measured by the sex of the parent, race, level of education, annual income, and number of children. The dependent variable is the children behavior. This variable was measured by the negative and positive outcomes of educational beahviors, parent perception and the unity of parent-child relationship by discussion and activities.
As required by California State University, Sacramento, the human subjects application was submitted for the Protection of Human Subjects. The committee approved the proposed study determined the project “exempt” from risk, as the researcher used secondary data. The approval for application number 13-114-007 was received prior to the collection of any research data.
Chapter 4

STUDY FINDINGS AND INTERPRETATIONS

Overall Findings

The present study investigated the interactions between parents and children, and the outcomes of such interactions. The questionnaire was provided to dual-earning mothers and fathers; kindergarteners and adolescent children of dual role parents. Cases were selected based on the volume of response, excluding kindergarteners for the purpose of the study. Variables were tested using regression tables to identify the significance between parent-child interactions and the effects on adolescents’ behavior.
Table 1.

Variable descriptive statistics

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</table>

Of the 878 participants, 43% (376) were female and 57% (502) were male.

Divided into two groups by the median salary, 18% (159) of parents stated they had a household annual income range of $0-80,000 and the majority 72% (632) rests with a household salary between $80,001-150,000. Over 84% (741) identified as Caucasian, 3% (25) Hispanic, 7% (59) African American, and 2% (16) Asian. Two percent (17) parents choose more than one race category they identified with. Forty percent (409) stated they were divorced from the child’s other parent, while 7% were divorced, and
3% were not married. This sample sized was reduced to 597 by targeting the parent population with adolescent children; both male and female high school adolescents.

**Specific Findings**

Table 2.

*How do parent demographics affect the frequency of parent-child activities together?*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Unstandardized Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardized Coefficients</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>Std. Error</td>
<td>Beta</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>2.338</td>
<td>.061</td>
<td></td>
<td>38.035</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mom</td>
<td>.050</td>
<td>.041</td>
<td>.064</td>
<td>1.212</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education: Less than college</td>
<td>.090</td>
<td>.057</td>
<td>.084</td>
<td>1.582</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education: More than college</td>
<td>-.007</td>
<td>.043</td>
<td>-.008</td>
<td>-.156</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parent’s income ($1,000)</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>-.022</td>
<td>-.363</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asian</td>
<td>-.007</td>
<td>.178</td>
<td>-.002</td>
<td>-.037</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hispanic</td>
<td>.088</td>
<td>.098</td>
<td>.040</td>
<td>.905</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>African American</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.074</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Biracial</td>
<td>.014</td>
<td>.125</td>
<td>.005</td>
<td>.112</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work: Part-time</td>
<td>.020</td>
<td>.048</td>
<td>.021</td>
<td>.420</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work: Self employed</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.109</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.002</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 shows the consistency between parental demographics and how often the parent and adolescent child actively participates with each other, such as talking with each other, conducting household duties together; doing outdoor activities and/or attending religious services together. As observed, there is no significance in the education, income, level of employment or race.

Table 3 examines the same parental demographics as featured in Table 2, only
changing the dependent variable to explore the significance of the parents’ perception toward their children.

Table 3.

*How do parental demographics effect the parent's perception toward their children when both parents are working?*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Unstandardized Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardized Coefficients</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>Std. Error</td>
<td>Beta</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>2.779</td>
<td>.074</td>
<td>37.717</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mom</td>
<td>.347</td>
<td>.050</td>
<td>.334</td>
<td>6.914</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education: Less than college</td>
<td>.051</td>
<td>.069</td>
<td>.036</td>
<td>.738</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education: More than college</td>
<td>.158</td>
<td>.052</td>
<td>.151</td>
<td>3.032</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parent's income ($1,000)</td>
<td>.002</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.171</td>
<td>3.100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asian</td>
<td>.316</td>
<td>.213</td>
<td>.062</td>
<td>1.481</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hispanic</td>
<td>-.279</td>
<td>.133</td>
<td>-.087</td>
<td>-2.103</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>African American</td>
<td>.158</td>
<td>.092</td>
<td>.073</td>
<td>1.714</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Biracial</td>
<td>.016</td>
<td>.150</td>
<td>.004</td>
<td>.105</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work: Part-time</td>
<td>-.380</td>
<td>.059</td>
<td>-.296</td>
<td>-6.425</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work: Self employed</td>
<td>-.233</td>
<td>.145</td>
<td>-.067</td>
<td>-1.607</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The parents, specifically mothers, who earned a college degree or high were stated to believe that children’s whose parents both work full-time are more independent, responsible and are higher achievers. This was also significant to mother’s, who are perceived more positively and parents who identified as part-time employees, compared to full-time employees.

Table 4 analyzed the attentive discussion of educational and career plans after high school. How often a parent talks with their adolescents is not comparable to
parental demographics. The background of the parent does not correlate with how often the parents talk with their adolescents about what they have studied in class, grades, coursework or programs to enroll in, and test scores.

Table 4.

*How do parental demographics affect the frequency of parent-child discussions on educational goals and planning for the future?*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Unstandardized Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardized Coefficients</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>1.880</td>
<td>.109</td>
<td>17.313</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mom</td>
<td>.089</td>
<td>.073</td>
<td>.067</td>
<td>1.220</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education: Less than college</td>
<td>.011</td>
<td>.099</td>
<td>.006</td>
<td>.113</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education: More than college</td>
<td>.098</td>
<td>.075</td>
<td>.073</td>
<td>1.307</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parent’s income ($1,000)</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.050</td>
<td>.802</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asian</td>
<td>.006</td>
<td>.301</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.020</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hispanic</td>
<td>.059</td>
<td>.165</td>
<td>.017</td>
<td>.361</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>African American</td>
<td>.109</td>
<td>.132</td>
<td>.040</td>
<td>.830</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Biracial</td>
<td>-.272</td>
<td>.212</td>
<td>-.059</td>
<td>-1.281</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work: Part-time</td>
<td>-.102</td>
<td>.085</td>
<td>-.062</td>
<td>-1.196</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work: Self employed</td>
<td>-.169</td>
<td>.184</td>
<td>-.043</td>
<td>-.920</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Tables 5 and 6 both show significance between the negative and positive behaviors throughout the school year that the surveys were completed. Parents who were more active with their child, conducting activities with them were more likely to be aware of the negative behaviors of their teen (Parent-child activities together, .000 sig.). These negative behaviors included drinking beer, cheating on tests, stealing and/or getting into physical fights while at school or work. Last of all, leaving the lines
of communication open between parents and teens reinforce positive behaviors throughout the school year (Parent-child discussion about educational goal, .002 sig.). These behaviors include receiving awards and/or recognition for academic and/or athletic performance, teens elected into student council or being recognized for their services in the community.

Table 5.

*How do parental demographics affect the parents’ knowledge of negative behaviors of their children?*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Unstandardized Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardized Coefficients</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>Std. Error</td>
<td>Beta</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>.389</td>
<td>.099</td>
<td></td>
<td>3.925</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mom</td>
<td>.032</td>
<td>.027</td>
<td>.072</td>
<td>1.194</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education: Less than college</td>
<td>.009</td>
<td>.036</td>
<td>.014</td>
<td>.238</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education: More than college</td>
<td>.003</td>
<td>.027</td>
<td>.007</td>
<td>.115</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parent’s income ($1,000)</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.100</td>
<td>1.530</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asian</td>
<td>-.050</td>
<td>.102</td>
<td>-.024</td>
<td>-.487</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hispanic</td>
<td>-.042</td>
<td>.064</td>
<td>-.032</td>
<td>-.655</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>African American</td>
<td>-.052</td>
<td>.048</td>
<td>-.054</td>
<td>-1.075</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Biracial</td>
<td>-.029</td>
<td>.085</td>
<td>-.017</td>
<td>-.342</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work: Part-time</td>
<td>.021</td>
<td>.032</td>
<td>.038</td>
<td>.658</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work: Self employed</td>
<td>.118</td>
<td>.070</td>
<td>.083</td>
<td>1.697</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parent-child activities together</td>
<td>-.118</td>
<td>.030</td>
<td>-.201</td>
<td>-3.962</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parent’s perception toward children</td>
<td>-.022</td>
<td>.023</td>
<td>-.050</td>
<td>-.923</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parent-child discussion about educational goal</td>
<td>.015</td>
<td>.017</td>
<td>.045</td>
<td>.890</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 6.

*How do parental demographic effect the parents’ knowledge of positive behaviors of their children?*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Unstandardized Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardized Coefficients</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>Std. Error</td>
<td>Beta</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>.254</td>
<td>.423</td>
<td>.600</td>
<td>.549</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mom</td>
<td>-.204</td>
<td>.115</td>
<td>-.105</td>
<td>-1.783</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education: Less than college</td>
<td>-.289</td>
<td>.154</td>
<td>-.109</td>
<td>-1.877</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education: More than college</td>
<td>-.084</td>
<td>.116</td>
<td>-.042</td>
<td>-.724</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parent's income ($1,000)</td>
<td>.002</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.106</td>
<td>1.651</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asian</td>
<td>.393</td>
<td>.433</td>
<td>.044</td>
<td>.909</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hispanic</td>
<td>.043</td>
<td>.272</td>
<td>.008</td>
<td>.158</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>African American</td>
<td>-.114</td>
<td>.203</td>
<td>-.028</td>
<td>-.561</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Biracial</td>
<td>.444</td>
<td>.363</td>
<td>.058</td>
<td>1.225</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work: Part-time</td>
<td>.151</td>
<td>.136</td>
<td>.062</td>
<td>1.111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work: Self employed</td>
<td>.186</td>
<td>.295</td>
<td>.031</td>
<td>.631</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parent-child activities together</td>
<td>.263</td>
<td>.127</td>
<td>.104</td>
<td>2.076</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parent's perception toward children</td>
<td>-.028</td>
<td>.101</td>
<td>-.015</td>
<td>-.277</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parent-child discussion about educational goal</td>
<td>.229</td>
<td>.073</td>
<td>.158</td>
<td>3.140</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Interpretations of the Findings**

During adolescence, parents and youth spending less time together (Larson et al., 1996) report a weakening in feelings of closeness (Laursen & Williams, 1997).

Reexamining the hypothesis, how the functionality of dual-earning households effect the quality of parent-child relationships and the impact on child and adolescent moral, social and educational development; although insignificant to the research as a whole,
minimal findings from this research support the structure of suggesting that there is a
direct correlation. The research supports, but does not indicate, that the more time
invested into the parent-child relationship, the better the awareness of child’s behavior
and long term outcomes.
Chapter 5

CONCLUSION

Summary of Findings

This study provides information on the correlated relationships of dual earning parents and the effects on the children within the household. From the history of the evolution of dual-earning parenting, the study explored the societal demographics and how they may or may not create a standard for parenting. The results were not comparative however the data provided a starting point to the next step of developing research in dual-role parenting. This topic provide insight into child development and parenting, the heart of social services.

Implications to Social Work Practice and Policy

As noted in chapter two, parents being available, attentive and establishing routines amongst their children is the center of strategies for successfully balancing work and family. However as noted by the current research, these practices do not show any relevancy against unemployed or families with a stay-at-home parent.

The topic and findings of this research are relevant to the social work profession. Parent-child relationships, and balance of the professional and home demands have historically and continue to be subjects of finding success in mental health, overcoming stress and coordinating resources for organizing and developing structure. The benefit of this study to social workers, specifically those who conduct home visits and practice in primary educational settings, is its exploration into
connecting and development of the parent-child relationship. It provides aspects that, in specific cases, provide insight as to why children may not be as successful in school or ensuring that parents are meeting the needs of their children’s success. Continuous education of the population, parental demographics, child behavior characteristics and employment patterns will benefit social work professionals who work in school settings and provide adult therapy and marriage counsel.

**Limitations and Future Research**

The limitations of this study include the age range of the children measured and the identification of single-parent households. Children of these families were broken down into two groups, kindergarteners and adolescents. This limits the representation of the effects on children that fall between the two age groups of adolescents and kindergarteners. This study also focuses on households with two parents (interchangeable with care provider) that are both employed with measurable revenue. One of the largest restriction to this research is that is does not include any comparable measures of single-parent households.

Lastly, the data was developed and collected between 1998 and 2000. Although is is not an accurate scale of measurement for representing American families, it does reflect on one of the most pressures moments of the population. Further research should and could include investigation into how the rapid advancement of technology and media have impacted the design of parent-child relationships and parenting.
Conclusion

This research may have proved largely inconclusive to any significance because the parenting methods and parent-child relationships do not contain any comparable data. The data did not represent any single-parent families or any families with children between the kindergarten and adolescent ages. While proving that keeping open communication with adolescents will foster positive outcomes and behavior of their children, there was not enough exploration into the routines of parent-child interactions. Investigating this area further and even defining a correlation with technology would provide implications for children who are growing up in dual-earning households and could impact the professionals who lay the foundation for their families.
Appendix A. IRB Request for Review

To: Dezarae Johnson

Date: September 26, 2013

From: Research Review Committee

RE: HUMAN SUBJECTS APPLICATION

Your Human Subjects application for your proposed study, “Dual Career Families and the Effects on Child and Adolescent Development”, is Approved as Exempt. Discuss your next steps with your thesis/project Advisor.

Your human subjects Protocol # is: 13-14-007. Please use this number in all official correspondence and written materials relative to your study. Your approval expires one year from this date. Approval carries with it that you will inform the Committee promptly should an adverse reaction occur, and that you will make no modification in the protocol without prior approval of the Committee.

The committee wishes you the best in your research.

Research Review Committee members Professors Maria Dinis, Jude Antonyappan, Serge Lee, Francis Yuen, Kisun Nam, Dale Russell,

Cc: Nam
References


