

**RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN MATERNAL
EMPLOYMENT AND CHILD-UPBRINGING
PRACTICES IN PLATEAU STATE**

BY

MAJAK NYAZI CECILIA (MRS)

**DEPARTMENT OF VOCATIONAL AND TECHNICAL EDUCATION, FACULTY
OF EDUCATION, AHMADU BELLO UNIVERSITY, ZARIA
NIGERIA**

MAY, 2007

**RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN MATERNAL
EMPLOYMENT AND CHILD-UPBRINGING
PRACTICES IN PLATEAU STATE**

BY

**MAJAK NYAZI CECILIA (MRS) B.ED (HOME ECONOMICS)
A.B.U 1988
(M.ED/EDUC/33994/2002 – 2003)**

**A THESIS REPORT SUBMITTED TO THE POSTGRADUATE
SCHOOL, AHMADU BELLO UNIVERSITY, ZARIA
NIGERIA**

**IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT FOR THE AWARD OF MASTERS
DEGREE IN HOME MANAGEMENT**

**DEPARTMENT OF VOCATIONAL AND TECHNICAL
EDUCATION, FACULTY OF EDUCATION, AHMADU BELLO
UNIVERSITY, ZARIA
NIGERIA**

MAY, 2007

DECLARATION

I Cecilia Nyazi Majak declare that the work in this thesis report entitled "RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN MATERNAL EMPLOYMENT AND CHILD-UPBRINGING PRACTICES IN PLATEAU STATE" has been performed by me in the Department of Vocational and Technical Education under the supervision of Dr. (Mrs.) T.O Ojo and Dr. (Mrs) S.L Ajayi. The information derived from the literature has been duly acknowledged in the text and a list of references provided. No part of this thesis was previously presented for another degree or diploma at any university.

Majak Nyazi. Cecilia (Mrs.)
Name of Student

Signature

May, 2007
Date

CERTIFICATION

This thesis report entitled "RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN MATERNAL EMPLOYMENT AND CHILD-UPBRINGING PRACTICES IN PLATEAU STATE" written by Majak N. Cecilia (Mrs.) meets the regulations governing the award of degree of M.Ed Home Economics (Home Management) of Ahmadu Bello university Zaria, and is approved for its contribution to knowledge and literally presentation.

Dr. (Mrs.) T.O. Ojo
Chairman Supervisory Committee

Date

Dr. (Mrs.) S.L. Ajayi
Member Supervisory Committee

Date

Dr. (Mrs.) A. Z. Mohammed
Head of Department

Date

Professor S.A Nkom
Dean, Post Graduate School

Date

DEDICATION

This research work is dedicated to my late beloved parents Da and Ngwo Birgi Gyang my late brother Mr. Joseph D. Birgi who were the architects of my educational career, and to my children Kachollom, Kangyang and Dachmo.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

To GOD be the glory great things He has done, and with Him all things are possible. My gratitude goes to GOD the Almighty Father for his love, guidance, protection and inspirations to a successful completion of this course despite all odds. My sincere appreciation goes to my major supervisor Dr. (Mrs.) T. O. Ojo, who never relented in her constructive criticisms, suggestions and encouragement to make this work a success.

My special gratitude goes to my second supervisor Dr. (Mrs.) L. S. Ajayi, who in no little measure contributed to bring this work to completion. I also register my sincere acknowledgement for the academic and moral support of Dr. (Mrs.) A. Z. Mohammed, Dr. (Mrs.) E. E. Adamu, Dr. (Mrs.) E. Ike, Dr. C. Bolaji, Dr. D. O. Oni, and all other lecturers of the Department of Vocational and Technical Education and Faculty of Education who rendered contributions in various ways to make this work what it is.

I am sincerely indebted to my children Kachollom, Kangyang Chundung and Dachomo for their perseverance, endurance, love and most important prayers and encouragement during the period of this study. I have not forgotten to register my gratitude to my late brother's wife Mrs. Yop J. Birgi and her grand children, for their encouragement and prayers. I acknowledge with special gratitude the encouragement, moral and financial support accorded me by my sisters and brothers, Mrs. M. Rwang, Bot, Pam and Vou. I have not forgotten you, Mr. J. Obemeata and Miss Philomina Ugwu for your endless efforts on this work. My sincere appreciation is also registered to members of United Sisters Association, the family of Mr. and Mrs. K. D. Kwol, for their encouragement and prayers.

I am very grateful to my former and present employers, Ministry of Education, Plateau State, College of Agriculture Garkawa, for the opportunity granted me, to further my career. I am also very thankful to the Technical Teachers' Training Programme (TTTP) for the award of Scholarship and to my colleagues in the Home and Rural Economics Department, friends and well wishers too numerous to mention, may GOD bless and reward everyone abundantly.

ABSTRACT

The main objective of this study was to investigate relationship between maternal employment and child – upbringing practices in Plateau State. Five null hypotheses were postulated viz: there is no significant difference between traditional and modern practices of child – upbringing, secondly; there is no significant relationship between maternal employment and maternal – child relationship, thirdly; there is no significant difference between child up-bringing practices with low and high levels of education of employed mothers. Fourthly, modern child- upbringing practices do not significantly have relationship with moral behavior of children and fifthly; there is no significant relationship between maternal employment and child – upbringing practices. Descriptive research design and survey method were adopted for the study. Simple random sampling technique was employed for the choice of six LGAs. A sample size of 500, mothers was drawn from a population of 6158 employed mothers. The selection of the sample was done by computing 20% of the population of each selected LGA. The data was collected using a 66 items researcher designed questionnaire. Descriptive statistics of frequency distribution and percentages, as well as paired t-test, two- tailed t-test and Pearson product moment correlation were used for data analysis at 0.05 level of significance. The findings revealed that there is significant difference between the traditional and modern child – upbringing practices. Results also indicated that there is no significant relationship between child- upbringings practices with high and low levels of education of employed mothers. No relationship existed between modern child-upbringing practices and moral behaviors of children. Result further indicated a significant relationship

between maternal employment and child - upbringing practices. Based on the findings, these recommendations were made; the three tiers of government should redesign welfare programs to strengthen employment opportunities for mothers on equal bases with their male counterparts; Enactment of laws to guide the transfer of employed mothers, to avoid separating them from their children and husbands. This study concluded that the positive sides of modern and traditional child-upbringing practices be merged and embraced for the convenience of employed mothers and their children, for the social, psychological, economical and physical development of the family members.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Title page	--	--	--	--	-	--	--	--	--	i
Declaration	--	--	--	-	---	--	--	--	--	ii
Certification	--	--	--	--	--	-	---	--	--	iii
Dedication	--	--	--	--	--	--	-	--	--	iv
Acknowledgement	--	-	--	--	---	--	--	--	--	v
Abstract	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	vii
Table of Contents	--	--	--	--	-	--	--	--	---	ix
List of Tables	--	--	-	--	--	--	--	--	---	xii
List of Appendices	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	xiv
List of Abbreviations			--	--	--	--	--	--	--	xv
Definition of Terms	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	xvi

CHAPTER ONE

1.0	INTRODUCTION	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	1
1.1	Background of the study	--	--	--	----	---	--	--	--	1
1.2	Statement of the Problem	--	--	--	-	-	-	-	-	4
1.3	Objectives of the Study	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	5
1.4	Research Questions		--	--	--	--	--	--	--	6
1.5	Hypotheses	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	6
1.6	Basic Assumptions of the study	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	7
1.7	Significance of the study	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	7
1.8	Delimitation of the study	--	--	--	-	-	--	--	--	8

CHAPTER TWO

	REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	9
2.1	A brief History of Plateau State	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	9

2.2	The Concept and scope of maternal employment	--	--	--	--	11
2.2.1	Factors influencing maternal participation in labour force	--	--	--	--	14
2.3	The Effect of Maternal Employment on					
	Child-Upbringing practices	--	--	--	--	15
2.4.0	Variations in Child-Upbringing Practices	--	--	--	--	19
2.4.1	Traditional child-upbringing practices	--	--	--	--	23
2.4.2	Modern child-upbringing practices	--	--	--	--	27
2.4.3	Approaches to child-upbringing practices	--	--	--	--	33
2.5.0	Maternal – Child relationship	--	--	--	--	38
2.5.1	Attention, Love and Care to the child	--	--	--	--	40
2.5.2	Family structure	--	--	--	--	42
2.5.3	Appropriate Role model creation	--	--	--	--	43
2.5.4	Creating a stimulating and responsive environment	--	--	--	--	44
2.6	Maternal Education and Child-Upbringing Practices	--	--	--	--	46
2.7	Maternal– substitutes	--	--	--	--	47
2.8	Review of empirical researches on child-upbringing practices	--	--	--	--	51
2.9	Summary	--	--	--	--	59
CHAPTER THREE						
	RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY	--	--	--	--	60
3.0	Introduction	--	--	--	--	60
3.1	Research Design	--	--	--	--	60
3.2	Population for the study	--	--	--	--	60
3.3	Samples and Sampling techniques	--	--	--	--	61
3.4	Instrument for Data Collection	--	--	--	--	62
3.4.1	Validity of the Instrument	--	--	--	--	63
3.4.2	Pilot study	--	--	--	--	63

3.4.3	Reliability of the instrument	--	-	--	--	--	64
3.5	Procedure for Data Collection	--	--	--	--	--	64
3.6	Procedure for Data Analysis	--	--	--	--	--	64

CHAPTER FOUR

	DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS--	--	--	-			66
4.0	Introduction	----	--	--	--	--	66
4.1	Presentation of demographic characteristics of the subjects	--					66
4.2	Analysis of factors influencing maternal employment	--	--				73
4.3	Effect of maternal employment on child-upbringing practices	--					75
4.4	Analysis of traditional maternal child-upbringing practices	--					79
4.5	Analysis of Modern maternal child-upbringing practices	--					81
4.6	Analysis of mother and child relationship	--	--	--			85
4.7	Test of hypotheses	--	--	--	--	-	87
4.8	Discussion	--	--	--	--	--	93

CHAPTER FIVE

	SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS	--	--				100
5.1	Summary	--	--	--	--	---	100
5.2	Conclusion	--	--	--	--	--	101
5.3	Recommendations	--	--	--	-	--	102
5.4	Implications for Home Economists and all Employed Mothers	--					104
5.5	Limitation	--	--	--	--	--	105
5.6	Suggestions for further study	--	--	-	--	--	105
	References	--	--	--	--	---	106
	Appendix A	--	--	--	--	--	112
	Appendix B	--	--	--	--	--	117

LIST OF TABLES

Table 2.1	percentages of labour force participation of mothers with children 1940 – 1996	--	--	--	-	--	12
Table 2.2	Percentages of labour force participation for wives, husbands presented by age of youngest child, 1975 – 1995						12
Table 2.3	Child minders while mothers are working	--	--				50
Table 3.1	LGAs, Zones and Population of working mothers					--	61
Table 3.2	Population and sample according to LGAs	--	--				62
Table 4.1	Age range classification of the respondents	--	--				67
Table 4.2	Respondents by their highest educational qualifications						67
Table 4.3	Respondents by their occupations	--	--	--			68
Table 4.4	Respondents by the employment status	--	--	--			69
Table 4.5	Respondents by the monthly income	--	--	--			69
Table 4.6	Respondents by their no of children	--	--	--			70
Table 4.7	Classification of the respondents by where they keep their children	--	--	--	--	--	71
Table 4.8	Classification of respondents by no of hours spent at work						72
Table 4.9	Distribution of respondents by the number of their children in the school	--	--	--	--	--	73
Table 4.10	Frequency scores of the respondents on factors influencing mothers to work outside their homes					--	75
Table 4.11	Frequency scores of the respondents on effects of maternal employment on child-upbringing	--	--				76
Table 4.12	Frequency scores of the respondents on traditional Child-upbringing practices	--	--	--	--	-	80
Table 4.13	Frequency scores of the respondents on modern child-upbringing practices	--	--	--	--	--	82
Table 4.14	Frequency scores of the respondents on mother-child relationship	--	--	--	--	--	85
Table 4.15	Paired t-test between modern and traditional child-upbringing practices by Plateau State employed mothers						87
Table 4.16	Correlation between mothers' employment and its effect on their relationship with their children in Plateau State						89
Table 4.17	Two-tailed t-test between high and low levels of educated employed mothers in their upbringing practices in Plateau State	--	--	--	--	--	90
Table 4.18	Correlation between mothers' employment and its relationship on their children's moral behaviour in Plateau State	--	--	--	--	--	91
Table 4.19	Correlation between mothers' employment and its relationship to their children upbringing practices in Plateau State						92

LIST OF APPENDICES

Appendix A:	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	112
Appendix B:	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	117

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AHRTAG - Appropriate Health Resources and Technology Action

Group.

IFHE - International Federation for Home Economics

LGAs - Local Government Areas.

NDHS - National Demographic and Health Survey

NPC - National Planning Commission

NpopC - National Population Commission.

SPSS - Statistical Package for Social Science.

PPMC - Pearson Product Moment Correlation

DEFINITION OF TERMS

The following terms that form the thrust of the operational vocabulary are defined.

Child -	Refers to a young person from 0 – 18 years
Child-upbringing or Child-Rearing -	This pertains to the care and nurture a child receives from parents, from birth to adulthood.
Child-Upbringing Practices -	Refers to the methods or ways in which children are trained or reared to function well in the society.
Culture -	Refers to a way of life as represented by traditions, language, beliefs, norms and values of a society.
Economy -	Money
Employment -	Paid work outside the home.
Maternal employment -	Refers to mothers working outside the home.
Parenting -	Fulfilling the obligations of a mother or father to children
Relationship -	Refers to contact, association, communication or an attachment that exist between two or more persons.
Mother-substitutes or Surrogate mothers-	Refers to people who take care of babies while the mothers go out to work.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

Historically, women have played diverse roles, such as house wives, homemakers, as well as mothers in-charge of the operations of their homes, (Perimuter and Hall 1985). In the past, the woman's position was restricted to the home and she accepted her place, as such and modelled her life accordingly. She was regarded as the director of home production, in the economy, which was mainly agricultural. The traditional view of the family pictured the woman as the helpmate of the male breadwinner. Currently, women struggle for independence to work outside the home, (Turner and Helms 1981). Once granted, such liberty compelled them to break new frontiers in the field of bread winning even if it meant working extra hard to avoid failure. For the most part, they sacrificed their love life completely because they are obsessed by the desire to prove themselves. Hence, some unconventional tactics may be employed against anyone and everyone who stood in the way of their progress, (Hoffman 1998). This rapid development had been attributed to a complex social changes of the present day, where both employed mothers and homemakers live in environments that are different from their counterparts twenty to forty years ago, (Hoffman 1998).

Hofferth (1999) and Lyle (2004) contended that, a major change in the pre-occupation of women was the movement of mothers into the working world in recent times. This movement, which began in the twentieth century, was greatly accelerated following the two world wars (1918-1920 and 1939-1945). This made women to leave their homes and took over certain functions

performed by men. Women of all classes then proved themselves capable in these offices, that were hitherto the exclusive roles of men, and still performed their roles of childbearing and upbringing.

Olaitan (1981) maintained that before the onset of Western Education into Nigeria, mothers and wives had managed the sacred ideals of the home. Through the art of home making, they nursed and raised their children, inculcating in them, the type of values, social norms and good habits of sound attitudes of the various ethnic groups in Nigeria. Mothers, therefore, assumed the role models in shaping the behaviours of their children. Today, however, the current generation of mothers in Nigeria, represent a new breed in child-upbringing practices, because of the quest for employment outside the home, this is as a result of changes in family structure.

In Plateau State, as in other parts of Nigeria, children are regarded as assets to be valued, as it is believed that children are gifts and blessings from God. In the family, each child is exposed to a unique interpersonal and family tradition, made up of interactions which include parents, siblings, and to a more general environment in which the family lives and functions. Therefore, the family as the first agent of socialization is expected to bring up children in all aspects of life. The responsibility for bringing up young children in the traditional Plateau family has not been limited entirely to the nuclear family unit. Extended family members, relatives, as well as neighbours would normally contribute to the upbringing of the child, providing a wide range of stimulating interactions, that positively nurture the child's development, (NPC, 2001). It has been widely accepted that there is need to equip the child with adequate physical, social, mental, moral and vocational skills, in order to

enable him function well in the society. This confirmed the study of Kolo (2001) which revealed that there were challenges in child-upbringing, in which the influence of the mother was significant.

Child-upbringing practices are important obligations of mothers, because among all living things, the human species is the epitome of God's creation, as he was said to have been created in God's own image (Genesis 1:27). Hence, the greatest task before man is to maintain or perpetuate this great legacy by raising a progeny, which is worthy of succeeding him. Bearing children is a natural quality which all-living things possess. But perhaps, harder than the momentary pangs of childbirth is the process of upbringing practices. This point becomes significant, when the fact is considered that children are helpless at birth and cannot survive without parental care. This confirmed the study of Mousa (2004) that parental care for the child started from conception and went through life as long as the parents lived. We may rationally assume that child-upbringing for a typical Nigerian child continues throughout life and ends at death of parents or child. This is so when the fact is considered that, a child is attached to other parents even when the biological ones are no longer living. The child, therefore, is a subject to the environment, he/she finds himself/herself, in this process of upbringing.

1.2 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

In a typical African society, Nigeria inclusive the behavioural outcomes that a child exhibits are rightly or wrongly assumed to be a reflection of his home upbringing. Therefore, the importance of child-upbringing, with the mother as the key actor cannot be over emphasized. However, the prevailing socio-economic conditions in Plateau State and Nigeria in general are such that mothers are compelled to take up paid employment outside the home. This is especially observed in the rapid increase of mothers in labour force participation, (Turner and Helms, 1981 and Hoffman, 1998). The implication of this is that, available time for mothering has been significantly reduced. This according to some researchers could result in unacceptable behaviours in children (Olukoshi and Aminu, 1990).

The researcher being a one time secondary school administrator and a classroom teacher, had not only observed but had handled and resolved different cases of misbehaviours exhibited by school children. Such behavioural patterns which included drug abuse, theft, fighting, immoral acts, pregnancy and abortion among others were confirmed by the researcher. Most of these problems were rooted from the type of home upbringing as it was revealed by some of the victims of such crimes that their parents stayed separately because they were both employed.

Similarly the researcher who was a member of a disciplinary committee of Barkin-Ladi Low-cost Association between 2003 and 2004, also had the opportunity to handle and to resolve cases of misconduct among youths. Among some of the cases handled, were those of a boy who was a drug addict and a thief, and the case of a girl who became pregnant by a boy within the

same environment. Their mothers were employed and lived in Jos township while the children lived alone in Barkin-Ladi.

The researcher's interactions with friends and colleagues also confirmed that most employed mothers had shifted their upbringing roles to substitute mothers and this has become a problem in many homes. All these experiences and incidences moved the researcher to think that maternal involvement in paid employment outside the home has brought changes in the traditional child-upbringing practices and consequently, responsible for the way children and youths of the present day society behave.

It was in this light that a study was conducted to evaluate the relationship between maternal employment and child-upbringing practices adopted by mothers in Plateaus State with a view to help employed mothers cope with their dual roles.

1.3 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

Main Objective

The main objective of this study was to establish the relationship between mothers' employment and child-upbringing practices in Plateau State.

The Specific objectives were to:

- I. Identify the traditional and modern child-upbringing practices in Plateau State.
- ii. Assess the extent to which maternal employment has affected maternal-child relationship.
- iii. Examine the influence of maternal education on child-upbringing practices in Plateau state.

- iv. Evaluate the effect of modern child-upbringing practices on moral behaviour of children in Plateau State.
- v. Determine the effect of maternal employment on child-upbringing practices in Plateau State.

1.4 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The study provided answers to the following questions that have been raised, to guide the researcher towards the achievement of the objectives.

- i. What are the child-upbringing practices that are typical of mothers in Plateau state?
- ii. How does maternal employment affect maternal-child relationship?
- iii. How does maternal level of education influence child-upbringing practices in Plateau State?
- iv. What are the effects of modern child-upbringing practices on the moral behaviour of children in Plateau State?
- v. What are the effects of maternal employment on child-upbringing practices in Plateau State?

1.5 HYPOTHESES

The following null hypotheses were tested:

HO i: There is no significant difference between the traditional and modern practices of child-upbringing.

HO ii: There is no significant relationship between maternal employment and maternal-child relationship.

HO iii: There is no significant difference between child-upbringing practices with high and low levels of education.

HO iv: Modern child-upbringing practices do not significantly have relationship with the moral behaviour of children.

HO v: There is no significant relationship between maternal employment and child- upbringing practices.

1.6 BASIC ASSUMPTIONS OF THE STUDY

The following were basic assumptions related to this study.

- i. Maternal employment outside the home has altered the traditional child-upbringing practices.
- ii. The children of employed mothers are those found with maladjusted behaviours.
- iii. The higher the educational level of a mother, the better child upbringing practices is expected
- iv. Employment outside the home has empowered mothers to sustain their families.

1.7 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The interest in Nigerian children, and how they are reared into adults in the society, has become an issue of concern in recent years. Environment and prevailing child rearing practices are changing as a result of economic, social and political changes. Most time these changes are very rapid and can have significant impact on children's development.

The present study is significant because it is focusing on the child-upbringing practices of a group of children in a particular state. It is therefore hoped that the results of this study, will help women, (particularly employed

mothers) women commission, social welfare department, policy makers on children matters, and teachers, to gain insight into the social and psychological needs of children, and thus plan toward achieving these needs. It will serve as an encouragement to husbands and other family members to see the need to participate and support employed wives in raising up children that will become better citizens and leaders of tomorrow. Furthermore, employed mothers will use the knowledge of this work, to plan on how to manage and cope with paid employment outside the home and still raise their children effectively. Finally the results of this study will be helpful to all employers, in providing a basis for a good employer and employee relationship, especially employed mothers. This research work will also serve as a valuable literature for future reference in the educational sector.

1.8 DELIMITATION OF THE STUDY

Plateau State has seventeen Local Government Areas, which are grouped into three Geo-political zones, namely the Northern, Central and Southern zones. The northern zone comprised of six LGAs, five in the central, and six in the southern zone, which gave a total number of seventeen LGAs in the State. In view of the significance of the study, and in order to produce a fair and objective report, the study was delimited to only six Local Government Areas two from each of the three geo-political zones. Mothers in civil service who were Plateau State indigenes, of twenty-five (25) years old and above either married or single constituted the respondents of this study. Local Government Areas were chosen for this study because employed mothers of all categories were likely to be found in the Local Government Headquarters, which gave a fair representation of all other women in the State.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

In order to achieve some level of success in this work, there was need to review the available literature on maternal employment, in relation to child-upbringing practices in a complex society of this century. The review helped to prevent unnecessary duplication of work, and to identify unresolved issues about the area under investigation. Hence the literature review focused discussion on the following sub-headings:

- ❖ Brief History of Plateau State
- ❖ The concept and scope of Maternal employment
- ❖ The effect of maternal employment on child-upbringing practices
- ❖ Variations in child-upbringing practices
- ❖ Maternal – child relationship
- ❖ Maternal education and child-upbringing practices
- ❖ Maternal substitutes
- ❖ Review of empirical researches on child-upbringing
- ❖ Summary

2.1 BRIEF HISTORY OF PLATEAU STATE

Plateau State of Nigeria derived its name from the geographical landscape that predominates in this part of the country, which is often referred to as the Jos Plateau. The State highlands stand at an average height of 400 metres above the sea level with the peaks raising over 1829 metres above the sea level. Plateau State covers nearly 26,899 square kilometers with a projected population of 3,565,607. The State is located in the middle zone of

the country, and lies between latitude 8°24' North and longitude 8°32' and 10°58' East. The State shares common boundaries with four out of the 36 states of the federation. To the South-West is Nasarawa State, while to the North – West and North – east are Kaduna and Bauchi states respectively, and the South East, Taraba State. Though situated in the tropical zone, the climate is nearest equivalent of the temperate climate in Europe and United States of America. The State has a mean temperature of 18.7°C degrees and 51.7°C maximum which have been recorded.

Plateau State has over 30 ethnic groups each with a proud cultural heritage with no single group large enough to claim majority position. The people are hospitable and accommodating and have similar cultural and traditional ways of life. The cultural traits of the ethnic groups indigenous to the State are interrelated and tend to blend into one another depending heavily on the proximity of one to the other. In fact, the cultural factors that bind the people are more than those that divide them. The elites (men and women) are predominately civil servants, while the uneducated are peasant farmers and some are in small scale businesses. The State is presently grouped into three geo-political zones, namely the Northern, Central and Southern zones for ease of governing, (Plateau State Diary, 1999).

Culturally, Plateau women have been known in the past to be the mainstay of the family, with the utmost responsibilities of bearing and raising children through nurturance, and to contribute economically to the family through agricultural work (farming). However with the advent of western education in the State, most women became educated and went into the

labour field in search for white-collar jobs, hence reducing the amount of time for child upbringing in the home.

2.2 THE CONCEPT AND SCOPE OF MATERNAL EMPLOYMENT

There is need to have a close look of the concept, scope, needs and interrelationships of the various aspects of the subject called work, as it relates to mothers. This concept has been defined severally by different people, but the meanings seem to convey an idea of domestic based women in mothering roles, who also have to cope with the heavy burden of meeting labour obligations. Perimuta and Hall (1985) had traced an evolutionary path in the emerging roles of women during the two world wars, with the traditional view of women as home makers, mothers, wives, and of recent, the role of breadwinner. Furthermore, labour participation by women, has been attributed to several social and economic changes. These resultant changes include birth control, thereby expanding opportunities for education and employment. Societal attitudes toward employed women have changed, and public policies on family, child-care, part-time work and maternity leave benefits are more favourable to the working mothers of today.

Hoffman (1998) in a study on changing employment patterns of mothers with school age children and mothers of children less than one year, observed that employment patterns of mothers have changed over the years, with increase in the labour force participation. The results of his findings were presented in Tables 2.1 and 2.2.

Table 2.1: Percentages of Labour force participation of mothers with children 1940 – 1996.

Year	%
1940	8.6
1946	18.2
1956	27.5
1966	35.8
1976	48.8
1986	62.5
1996	70.0

Source: University of Michigan – Ann Arbor (1998). This Table illustrated the steady rise of working mothers in the interval of ten years.

Table 2.2: Percentages of Labour force participation for wives, Husbands presented by age of youngest child, 1975 – 1995.

Age in years	1975	1985	1995
1 or younger	30.8	49.4	59.0
2	37.1	54.0	66.7
3	41.2	55.1	65.5
4	41.2	59.7	67.7
5	44.4	62.1	69.6
6 – 13	51.8	68.2	74.9
14 – 17	53.5	69.0	79.6

Source: University of Michigan – Ann Arbor (1998).

Table 2.2 showed the growth of employment rates of mothers with infants and pre-school children. Hoffman attributed the changing pattern of employed mothers, to changes within the family setting, in family life, family structure and size. Added to this is the onset of modern technology, which has reduced the amount of time spent on house work, more women are educated and the traditional gender role attitudes have been modified. To this effect childbirth and upbringing is no hindrance to mothers being employed into labour force.

The World's Women Trends and Statistics (2000) referred to Work as “the participation of individuals in productive activities for which women either receive remuneration (in cash or kind) for their participation, or are unpaid because they are contributors to a family business enterprise, which includes subsistence production of goods for households, and non economic activities such like domestic work and family care. NPC (2001), viewed work in the traditional rural Nigerian society, as that which exceeds labour force participation, to include petty trading and farm work.

Lerner (2004) saw maternal employment as “the labour force affiliation of mothers with children 0 – 18 years old. The concept includes a wide range of labour force participation patterns from full-time, to part-time work, and including contract work as well as working out side the home”. Lerner’s view of full-time, part-time, contract and the much wider form of work for the rural or semi urban third world Nigerian women are both controlled by the economy. Following Lerner’s definition, work is restricted to only labour participation, while, (NPC, 2001)’s definition includes farming and trading because paid job alone is not enough. To affirm this, the Federal Office of Statistics, in a profile of Nigerian women in 1997 reported that, 48% employed women participated in Agriculture (farm work), while 38 percent engaged in trading. To this effect one cannot be so rigid in placing boundaries for the scope of maternal work because the huge plethora of activity which women can engage into, to make ends meet in the home is sometimes better imagined than experienced.

2.2.1 FACTORS INFLUENCING MATERNAL PARTICIPATION IN LABOUR FORCE

The changes that occurred in a complex society necessitated the movement of mothers out of their homes into paid jobs. Troelstrup (1974) observed that, the American economy was influenced by the contributions of working wives. This however motivated his work with 600 wives randomly chosen, in an attempt to identify factors that militated or facilitated the movement of mothers into labour participation. Using a list of nine reasons for working, each woman was asked to itemize those reasons in order of preference. The result of findings revealed that:

- i. 88 percent of the respondents worked for financial consideration.
- ii. A few wives worked to improve the family standard of living and for good education for their children, which were all controlled by economic needs.
- iii. Unrelated to financial benefits, to some mothers work was a source of personal satisfaction and self-fulfillment. Holding similar views was the work of Papalia and Olds (1979). In addition to this some mothers went into labour, as a source of an opportunity to be out of home to keep company with colleagues. Others indicated the need to work, to support husbands with low wage paid, and those husbands that were not employed in the labour force.

Hoffman (1998) in his findings upheld that the more roles a person had, led to more psychological well being which in turn increased self esteem, social status, social identity with less depression. It was further maintained that mother's sense of well being was related to mental health and satisfaction. Hence, higher level of satisfaction, mental health and higher morale were

employment advantages, which were consistently found in working mothers. Other advantages mentioned were the support and stimulation provided by co-workers, and the sense of control that mothers had over their lives.

Cheston (2004) in a study on personal impact and family benefit with Ghanaian women documented the fact that, Ghanaian women worked outside the home to empower themselves, and to render financial aids to their families, which earned them greater respect from their husbands and children. Other researchers held the view that, the evolution of mothers from their homes into labour force, was as a result of the first and second World Wars, which many European countries, France and Germany inclusive mobilized mothers into work force, in demand for female labour services, (Hofferth, 1999, and Lyle, 2004). It is not out of place for one to note that, most women see employment as providing opportunities for accomplishment and creativity of the kind not possible in the home, for feeling useful and competent with respect to the larger social millennium. It therefore appears that mothers, who choose to work outside the home, may be actualizing some of their personal preference of personal growth, contentment and self-esteem.

2.3 THE EFFECT OF MATERNAL EMPLOYMENT ON CHILD – UPBRINGING PRACTICES

Hoffman in Papalia and Olds, (1979) reviewed a study on mothers' paid work and how it affected child upbringing. It was discovered that the effects on the child were in different dimensions. While some were positive, others were negative, which were all dependent on individual factors. Also observed was that paid work had effects on the emotional state of mothers, which could

be satisfying or displeasing, with a sense of guilt for being unable to supervise and monitor the children adequately and effectively. As a result, such differentiation in situational demands as well as mother's emotional state, affect child-upbringing practices as well as mother – child interaction.

The influence of Western education has moved a lot of mothers out of their homes for work which invariably affected the proper development of children as they were left at the mercy of surrogate mothers, who were most of the time immature and not competent to meet the emotional, psychological and even physical needs of the children, (Coleman 1984). Other parents who were either not educated, or educated and not on the pay roll of government or any private sector, had left home to business world. This also kept them away for hours, days, weeks or even months in search of resources for the upkeep of their families. This as a result has adversely affected the upbringing of children, as in most cases children were left in the care of house helps, grandparents, relations and in the nursery boarding houses. It may imply that, the absence of a mother's presence in the home for some hours or days, where children lacked that motherly care and guidance, this could eventually resulted in maladjusted behaviours in children.

Traditionally, the mother is the homemaker and real anchor on which all the family life hinges. She toiled to see to it that the family lacked nothing. Such a wife and mother had been likened to rare gem, and huge asset to her husband and entire household, (Proverb 31:10). The traditional view was that, when mothers get employed, the children will be left uncared for, with negative consequences, hence the fears of those who object to mothers being employed, (Perimuter and Hall, 1985). They held the assertion that, due to

socio-economic, as well as religious and cultural motivation, this sacred and lofty role of wife and mother had changed over the years. The assumption was that the ideal mother or wife was no more common, but the quest for the ideal mother was less elusive than that of the ideal father. This is to say that in spite of impending factors, the mother is more likely to be found at home with the children.

Richman and Lansdowne (1988) conducted studies on working mothers with school age children. They observed that, children of working mothers in most American homes, returned home from school to empty apartments, and were unsupervised by parents several hours each day, have been referred to as “latchkey” children. Most of these children lived solitary and fearful lives after school often with the television set acting as babysitters. The dangers of children staying alone today for many hours without parental care, may lead them to maladjusted behaviours. Consequently, children suffered from psychiatric problems, severe eating disorder, drug abuse and became victims of violent crimes in the society. This is as a result of reduced role of parents in child-upbringing through neglect and deprivation in the early ages of the child’s development.

Hoffman (1998) conducted different research works and came out with the opinion that sons and daughters of employed mothers had less traditional gender role attitudes, hence affecting children’s perception of masculine and feminine roles, since both parents maintained paid jobs.

Ogunbiyi (1999) in her research work between working mothers and childcare in Niger State, sampled 100 employed mothers. The result showed that 56 percent mothers spent eight hours in their work offices, and as a result,

the duration of working hours of mothers affected the care, and protection of their children. The study of Scott in Joshi and Verropoulou (2000), on the social attitudes of pre-school mothers, revealed that children suffered when their mothers went to work thereby affecting children's development in varying ways. He maintained that the absence of the mother from home was harmful, since it deprived the children from the mother's nurturing, time and energy, particularly when the baby was young. On the other hand Scott argued that, positively, maternal employment could be directly beneficial to the child, through being a role model. In addition, that child-care alternatives, the competency of the mother to manage multiple roles, and the involvement of the father and other family members in raising the child, and the flexibility of mother's workplace were other maternal factors that came to play to affect the child's development.

Kolo (2001) in his writing on the Nigerian Child and Parental challenges, stressed the need for effective human development. He maintained that it was the parents' roles to make adequate provision for children's basic needs (food, shelter and clothing). He added that, the provision of basic social, cultural and economic training of these children, was necessary to make them responsible and sensitive to societal demands, as well as faced challenges of life. By this the fundamental values, attitudes and traditions of the society were preserved and entrenched with the ultimate goals of enhancing discipline. Although it was an established fact that, child-upbringing was the responsibility of parents, and other relatives especially in the African culture, yet studies have revealed some contradictions, where some parents ended up frustrating and abusing children under their care in the pretence of modernization. This parental noble

role of raising children as affected by modernization, science and technology, is not peculiar to the European continents. It has also impinged on the African continent, Nigeria inclusive and Plateau State in particular. The present study therefore intends to evaluate the extend of this situation as it exists in Plateau State.

Today, the drive for economic advancement and other factors have driven some mothers to abandon their primary role at home for other calls. This may amount to some sort of neglect and deprivation on their part. But on the whole the maternal-child relationship is so emotionally bound that the effect of neglect and deprivation from her is more devastating for the child than from any member of the family, (Christian Women Mirror, 2004).

2.4.0 VARIATIONS IN CHILD-UPBRINGING PRACTICES

Child-upbringing is a process of socializing young human beings, to enable them live successfully in the culture of their parents. The practice of child-upbringing is considered by many researchers to be a universal phenomenon. The methods applied into this practice, the culture and beliefs will however vary from one place to another. Ames, (1970) viewed child-care as, the process through which a child was catered for, from infancy through adulthood by the parents. The Kibbutz tribe of Israel operated a culture that prescribed, that women should have equality with men at work, with a primary goal of building a nation rather than a family. This tribe believed in training children to value group experiences above individual ones. Hence, the upbringing practices adopted by the Kibbutz was communal in nature. For example, the husbands and wives of this community lived together with other

adults in one apartment, while all the children lived in a succession of children's houses. While in these houses a specially trained person (teacher) held the duty to expose and inculcate into children, values and virtues of cooperation and participation in work, and other peer group experiences. In order to establish emotional relationships between children and parents, visits were exchanged two hours each day, (Papalia and Olds, 1979). Furthermore Papalia and Olds (1979), reported that the Russian style of child-upbringing was based on social and collective practice. Raising up children was a combine effort of the family and school. Hence Russian children were brought up, in homes and in schools, in accordance to the goals and values of the society in which they lived.

Richman and Lansdown (1988) conducted a study on how the British and Japanese parents raised their children. It was reported that the British's concept of child-upbringing placed emphasis on how children could be trained to sleep, feed and to practice toileting. Furthermore, the British allowed their children freedom of expression over issues that concerned them. On the other hand the Japanese traditional upbringing practice, focused interest on discipline. It was their belief that children should be trained to be obedient and to show respect to their parents and other elders in the society. Richman and Lansdown (1988) also maintained that, child-upbringing practice in Kenya was an exclusive relationship between a mother and her offsprings.

According to Ennew and Milne, (1989), the experiences of a child in his first year of life largely determined his character and later personality. It may be so because every experience was said to teach the child something, and the effects of these experiences were cumulative. The authors therefore

referred to the term 'upbringing' as the treatment and training of the child within his home. Hence, the home moulded the child in a way that was acceptable to the society.

Although different communities gave different treatment to their children, in terms of up-bringing, however all communities had consideration for age of children the period in time, and most of all the culture of the people. It has been reported by some researchers that traditionally in Nigeria and elsewhere in Africa, the ownership, and the upbringing of children was not perceived as personal or individual affair. Rather children were perceived as belonging to the society. It was therefore the responsibility of the parents, relatives of extended family, and other members of the society, to socialize the child into the values of the society (mannerism, standards, ethics, and behavioural codes) which he was expected to learn and live by in preparation for adulthood. Thereafter, the child gradually acquired a responsible status within the society in which he lived, (Fadayomi in Olukoshi et al, (1990), and Bello, (1990).

Ellis 1978 in NPC (2001) remarked:-

“All children are in a sense everybody's children or at least the concern of a great number..... and there is much less stress upon the individual mother's role in the socialization of the child”.

LeVine (1996) studied 28 Gusii children of Kenya over 17 months, and provided a profile of care from birth to 30 months (2½ years) of age. Differences existed between the up-bringing practices of the Gusii and North American mothers. The Gusii mothers were found to breast feed babies for 16 months (1¼ years), and slept on the same beds with their infants. Raising up

children, from infancy to five years was strictly the responsibility of Gusii mothers, in anticipation of reciprocation in return when their children became adults. The culture also allowed for the training of children in domestic labour force, to make them obedient and responsible, as they contributed to the household economy. On the contrast as reported by LeVine (1996) the American mothers unlike the Gusii, did not involve children in domestic labour, rather they were trained in schools to acquire specialized economic skill from childhood through adulthood. Child-upbringing practices as considered by Lippe (1999) was a process through which the child was socialized into the societal culture by his parents. Lippe (1999) maintained that upbringing practices of a specific group were embedded in the culture, patterns and beliefs, which determined to a large extent the behaviours and expectations surrounding a child's birth and infancy. For example, the practice of constantly carrying a child, had a different effect on the development of that child than the practice of placing the child in a cradle.

However, Akiware and Ojomo in Lippe (1999) and the NPC (2001) lamented that, in recent decades, rapid urbanization and the harsh economic situation in the country, had increasingly eroded the traditional pattern of child-care. This is considered so, because approximately one third of families, who now live in the cities, have lost the mutual support that was a prominent feature of the rural life. This in turn has given way to a situation where each household is to a large extent responsible for care of children.

2.4.1 TRADITIONAL CHILD-UPBRINGING PRACTICES

In Nigerian society, as in most societies, women take primary responsibilities for infant care, they spend more time with infants and children than do men and sustain primary emotional ties with the children. To some extent when the biological mothers do not parent, other women rather than men, virtually always take their place. The women's mothering role has therefore gained psychological and ideological significance. Kaye (1962) and Ames (1970) had held the view, that the pattern in which Nigerian mothers cared for children in the past varied greatly in the Northern part of the country. The method of child care was dependent upon several factors. Further report showed that, in very poor families, other family relations attended to the care for children, and in some other cases mothers sent some of their siblings to more prosperous relations living in other towns or villages. However this traditional adapted practice of raising children might have been gradually reduced due to technological advances. Durojaiye (1977) contended that the traditional system of child-upbringing and family life promoted strong bonds of loyalty between family members. This was important because the child's personality adjustment depended upon a close relationship with his mother and other family members during his early years of development.

Chodorow (1978) confirmed that, mothering role is one of the few universal elements in the sexual division of labour, and this role had endured overtime, even though other aspects of social and family life had changed.

Anyakoha and Eluwa (1991) and Christian Women Mirror (2004) believed that good training and upbringing in traditional Nigerian culture involved good modeling of adult roles, giving instructions, teaching the child to

respect and be obedient to people. They maintained that, by this, children grew up to acquire skills and became good citizens of the society.

i. Feeding and weaning practices: According to Uka (1973), breastfeeding was the normal practice in nurturing Nigerian infants, these infants were allowed to suckle on demand for the breast milk which was controlled by the babies. The breastfeeding could last for two years before the child was weaned. Fast developing children were weaned earlier than late developers.

The Freudian psycho-analytic theory as documented by Johnson and Medinnus, (1974) indicated that feeding was the earliest pressure of the socialization of an infants experiences. It was reported that, breastfed babies developed psychological relationships with their mothers through close affection. The study of Kisekka (1981) on socio-culture and traditional upbringing of the child confirmed that the traditional upbringing of the child was characterized by extended family living, multiple caretaking of and personal interaction with the child. Furthermore, a child was carried around on the shoulders or back. The child was breastfed for at least a year, and this was controlled by the demand of the child, and no infant was ever left to sleep alone. Ellioth and Cutting (1988), in a paper titled “dialogue on diarrhea” asserted that weaning practice was a time of extra danger for the Brazilian mothers. This was especially so, because mothers breastfed their babies from infancy to six months, and weaned them at the age of two years, when the children had become accustomed to the family diets.

Scrimshaw and Underwood, (1979) and Mwanri and Worsley (1999), documented that breastfeeding practices in developing countries had been a universal and ancient practice in most cultures. For instance Nigeria and

Congo Zaire were noted for this traditional practice. Emphasis was placed on the nutritional value of breast milk which was considered to convey immunological protection, which protected children from succumbing to infections, that could have deleterious nutritional effects and enhancing the impact of nutrition on the survival of children. It was however observed that malnourishment later occurred in the life of children due to inadequacy in weaning practice, which led to high mortality rates in infants and children.

ii. Toilet Training: Toilet training was yet another practice in child-upbringing. This aspect of training was meant to control and regulate the toilet behaviour of the child, that was to enable the child understood when and where to defecate or urinate. Ames (1970) adopted the suggestion of Watson a psychologist, that toilet training could commence as early as the age of ten months. The bowel and bladder control were regulated by the number of times the child slept and woke up. Uka (1973), asserted that there existed a common toileting practice amongst the Igbos, Yorubas and Ibiobios, which commenced soon after birth. Uka (1973) maintained that the role of the mother, was to dictate the signs and signals of bowel movements exhibited by the child so that he was placed in a position to empty the bowels or bladder on the ground. This training as observed by the author ended by the second or third year when the child could move around. A study conducted by Johnson and Medinnus (1974), with some American mothers revealed that 87 percent of mothers, commenced bowel training for their children at 18 months and by the age of two years training had been completed.

Meeme (1990) maintained that toilet training was a situation of everyday life, which involved interaction between a child and the mother, and

or other family members. The work of Rayner in Ogunbiyi (1999) suggested that mothers should start bowel and bladder training for their babies at the age of ten months, and could continue for at least two years when he had gained control over his bowels. A child, who was brought up, with a good culture of toileting, developed a toilet routine and cultivated a habit of cleanliness which was next to godliness and healthy living. Omooba (2002), in a study of Ekiti State parents, reported that, the influence of foreign culture in Ekiti land could not adulterate the traditional child-rearing practices of breast-feeding habits, toilet training patterns and disciplines, while maternal-child relationship remained significant.

iii. Discipline: In another way discipline had been an active, element that was used in the process of nurturing a child from childhood through adulthood. “Spare the rod and spoil the child” is a common saying, which perhaps may mean neglect in child discipline. This assumption is supported biblically. Proverbs 23;13-14 stresses the significance of discipline on the child. “Do not withhold discipline from a child, if you punish him with the rod he will not die. Punish him with the rod and save his soul from death.”

Hake (1972), and Uka (1973) shared the same opinion that discipline in the Nigerian culture was the responsibility of the mother who spent most of her time with the children. The common forms of discipline were usually verbal scolding, threats and deprivation of certain privileges. However the father came to play, by taking the final decisions and disciplinary measures against any erring child, who exhibited gross misconducts against the family's rules or values. Patel (1996), an Islamic scholar wrote on upbringing and discipline from Islamic view point. He affirmed that discipline was part of child-

upbringing in Islam as a necessity which protected the child from getting out of hand. The author cautioned that, Muslims should not spare the proverbial 'rod' in checking children from becoming reckless in life. He further argued that it was unhealthy and of no kindness in Islam to spare the rod and spoil the child. It may then be deduced that the transition of a child into adulthood, his behaviours and attitudes towards people, whether positive or negative, all depend on what his parents have made him to be.

2.4.2 MODERN CHILD-UPBRINGING PRACTICES

The ideology of a moral and ideal mother is almost a mirage in our present day Nigerian society. The mother who is supposed to be home to nurture her children has now assumed the father's role of providing food and shelter. As women's mothering became less entwined with employment outside the home, it also became more isolated and exclusive. Hence today's homes have fewer children and also send them to schools at tender ages, (Chodorow 1978). Zanden (1978), had condemned the use of multiple mothering practices by housemaids/nannies, as they observed that the adverse effects were maladjusted children with behavioural problems.

Kisekka (1981) in his study, observed that the socio-culture in our society has been altered in many ways, hence the communal family child care has been jeopardized. These changes according to Kisekka (1981) were more pronounced in the urban areas, where the children of employed mothers had to be cared for by housemaids or nannies in the absence of the extended family practice. These inexperienced nannies could not control these children

thus, children roamed aimlessly in unsafe environments learning deviant behaviours from their peer groups.

Coleman, (1984), reported that mothers who worked outside the home, with no arrangements for mother-substitute, made their children to live solitary and fearful lives. This type of upbringing affected the social and emotional lives of the children. Ogunbiyi, (1999) in her research work on problems of employed mothers in Niger State, reported that the care and protection of children were greatly affected by the number of hours mothers spent in their work places based on the responses of 85 percent of employed mothers.

Hofferth, (1999) and Joshi and Verropoulou (2000), shared similar opinions on the effects of mothers employment on the child. They argued that the child may suffer temporary maternal absence from the home as a negative effect, but the positive effects seemed to outweigh the negative ones. The authors maintained that maternal employment was not the only causal variable that affected the child's upbringing. Other variables that were attributes included employment type (full time or part time), social class and marital status of the mother as well as her parental attitudes toward child upbringing.

i. Feeding and Weaning practices: According to Uka (1973) due to maternal employment, infant feeding had a scheduling pattern. Further observations revealed that mothers who worked outside the home, breastfed babies for the first six to nine months, and thereafter substituted the breast milk with bottle formula. Weaning process was an abrupt withdrawal of the breast-milk which led to a reduction of warmth and intimate relationships between mother and child. Child's feeding according to Grange (1990) began right from conception and continued after the birth of infant. He lamented that,

this noble practice of breastfeeding by employed mothers had eroded in recent years. Furthermore his findings revealed that nearly 100% of mothers breastfed their babies at birth. Unfortunately this practice discontinued in about 15% of mothers in the rural areas, and 50% in the urban areas when babies were just six months of age. The higher percentage of mothers in the urban areas was attributed to the fact that working mothers saw breastfeeding as a burden that diminished freedom of movement, and participation in income generation. The fact remained that, to some extent, children suffered from deprivation of maternal love and attention, which could mean child neglect.

Bottlefeeding and formula milk manufacturers, had not been a traditional practice in the third world developing countries. However, due to changes in life styles and having to take paid work, bottle feeding is now a common practice as a substitute for breastmilk. Very mindful of the financial involvement on these formula products, there were also danger signals on health. Further investigations revealed that in many poor areas in developing countries, there were poor environmental sanitation, inadequate artificial feeding facilities, and poor nutritional status, all of which contributed to frequent attacks of diarrhea and dysentery which led to morbidity and mortal rates in infants and children alike. Other factors also considered were, poor knowledge on how to sterilize and handle breast milk substitutes which further aggravated the poor health situation. This subsequently led to reduced nutritional status for infants which predisposed them to infections, (Mwanri and Worsley 1999).

Froozani, Permehzadeh, Motlagh and Golestan (1999) in Islamic Republic of Iran, emphasized on the nutritional aspect of breastmilk, which

they maintained, was the only way to provide complete nutrition for neonates' growth, and also reduced respiratory tract diseases during the first one year. Friesen, Vince, Boas, and Danaya (1999), in their own submission on protection of breastfeeding, reported that the government of Papua New Guinea, enacted and implemented a law, that all infants must be breastfed exclusively for the first 4-6 months of life with no bottle-feeding. To enforce this law on every mother, the policy provided adequate feeding time for working mothers. Feeding a child may therefore be seen as a universal child-upbringing practice. Aries in Neumark (2003) documented that in a complex society like United Kingdom, upper class educated employed mother's child-upbringing was carried out by wet-nurses (women employed by others to suckle their children). This practice was associated with a high infant mortality and unruly behaviours exhibited by children who survived. Surprisingly, the biological employed mothers never considered this mortality rate as a problem in raising their children.

ii. Discipline: Considering another form of modern child up-bringing practice, Ames (1970), viewed good discipline, not to mean effective punishment, but to be seen as measures set up by parents to mould their children without frustration and chaos. The work of Bronfenbrenner (1971) revealed that Russian mothers trained the children on developmental traits such as respect, politeness and obedience, which they believed led to self-discipline, hence rewarded and reinforced children who manifested such traits. Contrary to the Russian type of training, Bronfenbrenner (1971) also observed that, the American families spent little time with their children, thus erring children were corrected by the care givers.

Hake (1972) in his review of literature on child rearing practices in Nigeria, reported that educated employed parents were more severe in the punishment of children than the illiterate parents. For instance educated parents discussed with the children whenever they misbehaved to make them see reasons, rather than using any physical punishment. Blair, Jones, and Simpson (1975) had a developmental study of 500 nursery school children over a period of three years. The study revealed that children raised in homes where parents disagreed on method of discipline, presented problems more than those raised in homes where parents agreed on methods of control, also observed was that harsh disciplinary practice led to hostility in children.

Hurlock (1978) classified discipline into three techniques, the authoritarian, permissive and democratic techniques. The mother chose and modified any of these techniques for the purpose of teaching children to conform to the standards of behaviour set by the parents.

Research work by a psychologist indicated the role of discipline in raising up children. The psychologist, held opinion that children needed discipline to control and to keep them away from undesirable behaviours, which led them to self control later in life, Minett 2000). Another psychologist Neumark (2003) argued that, it was not the discipline that mattered but the technique of application. Reviewing on the consequences of different kinds of parental control, it was observed that, love oriented disciplinary techniques made children to be responsible for their actions through reasoning, which made them felt guilty, and sorry for such actions. On the other hand, the assertive and power techniques resulted children to non cooperative and aggressive behaviours.

Fafunwa in Odemelam and Okafor (2004), suggested and emphasized that mothers should guide and supervise their children to instill discipline in them through their involvement in different responsibilities. The writers also advised, that through the role of good modeling, mothers could imbibe discipline in their children, which would minimize the use of physical punishment that might only be used as the last resort.

iii. Toilet Training: Toilet training is yet another child up-bringing practice that is observed in raising children. According to Uka (1973), strict and high standard of toilet training was maintained by employed mothers as well as educated sophisticated women in the society. The child was introduced to use the potty at an early age of three months, and thereafter learnt to use the adult toilet as he grew up. Anyakoha and Eluwa (1991) stressed the importance of helping the child to learn bowel and bladder control through toilet training. Unlike the traditional training which did not care about the cleanliness of the floor, the educated employed mother trained the child on the use of potty and toilet facilities to avoid messing up the floor. Anyakoha and Eluwa (1991) advised that toilet training could begin at 3-6 months when a child could sit comfortably on a potty. This training according to the writers remained consistent through which the child formed his toilet habits.

In a view to reconcile maternal employment outside the home with her family responsibilities, Kinney, Dunn and Hoferth (2004) worked on family strategies for managing time crunch. In their report they argued that mothers could successfully maintained their gainful employment outside the home, as well as played their child-upbringing role in the home. The managing strategies according to Kinney Dunn and Hofferth (2004) included among

others, part time/flexible work schedule (one parent remained home at a time), the use of relatives and neighbours, children helped around the house and avoidance of stressful activities. The father played a vital role by his participation in home tasks and taking care of the children.

2.4.3 APPROACHES TO CHILD'S-UPBRINGING PRACTICES

Approaches and models exist for child-upbringing practices, and each has its strengths and weaknesses based on the inherent circumstances under which the process was adopted. The success or failure of each may be assessed by the outcomes that emerged in children as a result. Gardner (1978) classified it broadly into restrictive, and permissive, with different characteristic outcomes or typical traits under each. Richman and Lansdown, (1988) affirmed that differences in child-upbringing models affect children's social behaviour with several examples of being either aggressive or assertive.

In their classical work, Olson and DeFrain (2000) contended that the key ingredient in classification of parenting styles was what they termed 'parental support', defined as the amount of caring, closeness and affection that parents control, the degree of flexibility that a parent uses in enforcing rules and discipline. Considering these two factors, these styles of parenting evolved democratic, authoritarian, permissive, rejecting and uninvolved styles. Reviewing theoretical approaches to child- upbringing, Olson and DeFrain (2000), also traced historical evolution of child-upbringing theories and models. From the sixties, emphasis was child's influence on parents, and in the 1980s focus was bi-directional, that is the effects of the child on parents and vice

versa. This led to the generation of copious literature on parent-child dynamics.

In this vast body of knowledge, there are schools of psychologists ranging from the Freudian faction, which focused on the importance of early childhood development, often termed the psychodynamic theory. The organismic theory was postulated and the championed by Jean Piaget, who stressed on cognitive development. The behaviourists took advantage of learning theories, came up with reinforcement strategy that is a careful application of reward system. (Student companion site Home (2004).

Heins (2004) asserted, there are good or bad mothers in the employment ranks as well as full-time homemakers but what separates them is the attitude of parenting or model used. Parenting or child-upbringing styles have been categorized into various ways by different psychologists. Odoemelam and Okafor (2004) opined that character training was the corner stone of African traditional education and upbringing. It was further asserted that, in the traditional society, parents spent time with their children telling them stories, which was a source of recreation. The writers however observed that the disinclination of family values and roles in child-upbringing has resulted in breeding irresponsible children who now engaged in crimes and other anti-social behaviours.

i. Democratic Style

Douvan and Adelson in Blair Jones and Simpson (1975) in a study on the different backgrounds children were reared, reported that democratic mothers allow much autonomy, with the child being a part of

important decisions affecting him. The authors observed that, this social atmosphere produced children who were usually self-reliant, poised and effective, free with parents, but maintained warm relationship with one another. Gardner, (1978) referred to this style, permissive parenting with some degree of comfort. While reviewing earlier studies done between the late 1950s and early 1970s he reported the consensus among psychologists that the outcomes of this upbringing style produced children that are interestingly lively, obedient, polite and generally conforming. Hoffman (1998) conducted a research with some employed mothers in Michigan using a limited group of parenting variables. In the study a broad range of parenting attitudes and behaviours, were considered, to examine if they provided a link between mother's employment and child's outcomes. The study revealed that employed mothers of the middle class were likely to adopt to this style of parenting which was related to their children's higher academic performance in school.

Of recent, Olson and DeFrain (2000) explained the fact that, though parents may set up rules and expectations, the child's perspective and acceptance are key ingredients to the success of this style because these standards are discussed and taught to the child. However some level of control were exerted to enforce such standards. The outcome of this flexible style of parenting was the evolution of emotional healthy and happy children who were successful in school

and life thereafter. In addition to these qualities such children became more self-reliant and cheerfully coping with stress effectively and are result oriented, (Olson and DeFrain 2000).

Odoemelam and Okafor (2004) maintained that a democratic child-upbringing technique enhanced confidence in children, and encouraged their participation in decision making where cooperation, commitment to duty and consideration for the feelings and rights of others become the order of the day.

ii. Authoritarian Style of Parenting

Blair, Jones and Simpson (1975), maintained that authoritarian mothers set rules without consulting children, and allow little or no autonomy, and use physical techniques for reinforcing discipline. These treatments and controls, according to Blair et al produce children who comply on the surface, but beneath they are rebellious and impulsive.

Gardner (1978) held the opinion that parents set up firm and narrow guidelines for behaviour, and seriously punishes non-compliance. It discourages self-expression and inclination toward independence and autonomy. Children raised in this manner were more likely to become delinquents and emotionally distressed. Outwardly, such children could be submissive, while they are really frustrated and resentful. Hoffman, (1998) in his study observed that full-time homemakers were more likely to exert more authoritarian control and less permissive, while employed mothers exert less of authoritarian control and more permissive.

Olson and DeFrain (2000) reported that parents established very rigid rules and expectations, which were enforced strictly. The expected obedience from children, which should come naturally is demanded and often extracted. The degree of rigidity and strictness may form a continuum on which this style is classified. Olson and Defrain (2000), further asserted that the outcomes were conflicted irritable children, frequently moody, unhappy, unfriendly and prone to succumb under stress.

iii. Permissiveness

This is a child driven strategy, where parents particularly the mother, let the children take preeminence over their ideals and are rarely compelled to conform to parents standards, (Gardner 1978, Olson and DeFrain 2000). The degree of flexibility could approach the maximum fringes as to become chaotic in some extreme cases, (Baumride in Olson and DeFrain 2000). They observed that children of such permissive parents are more likely to become rebellious, domineering and under achievers. The main problem with this style of parenting was the tendency of the child getting out of control where children no longer have regards for their parents.

iv. Rejecting Style

Blair Jones and Simpson (1975), wrote that children who came from homes in which, they were neither loved or valued by parents were considered rejected children. They further maintained that such treatment from parents threatened the child's need for affection and security where children felt helpless and withdrawn. In addition such children had difficulty in

forming genuine attachment for anyone. According to Lovell, (1976), a mother's rejection, neglect or repression was associated with later aggressiveness, delinquent and inhibited behaviour in children. Levis in Lovell (1976), studied 500 deprived children and reported that a child who is deprived of his mother in the first one to two years of life may be compensated by good substitute mothering.

As the name indicates, here parents paid minimum attention to the needs and aspirations of the child and did not have very clear or distinct expectations from the child. In extreme cases parents totally disengaged themselves from the child as he/she grew, making the child to feel uncared for and neglected, (Olson and DeFrain 2000). They asserted that mothers of such children often placed their paid jobs as first priorities; hence the responsibility of the child's welfare was a secondary thought. Some researchers had postulated that a child who was neglected by parents particularly mothers, may be reduced to a wretch and fearful individual who may develop emotional and social problems later in life.

2.5.0 MATERNAL-CHILD RELATIONSHIP

According to Hurlock (1978), the effect of mother's work on mother-child relationship, depends to a great extent on the child's age at the time the mother starts to work. Further investigating revealed that if the mother starts work before any definite relationship is established, the minimal the effect of work will be. And on the other hand, if a strong attachment has been formed, then the child suffers from maternal deprivation, unless a satisfactory mother substitute is provided. Papalia and Olds (1979) in their study on mother – infant relationship, stressed the importance of the bond between mother and

child, which was postulated as a significant determinant of an infant sense of trust. Papaia and Olds ((1979) argued further that a mother brings the social world to the child through her warmth love, and interactions. Social relationships are important, and the consequences of social isolation are devastating. This is because individual development occurs in a human context, and the person who grows up without social interaction or affection has little chance of being normal, (Perimeter and Hall (1985). This assertion was supported by some social psychologists (George, Herbert and Mead) in Perimeter and Hall (1985) who said, “we could not become human if we were not social”. Therefore socialization which is the basis for the ways people experience life, can take place only in the context of human relationships.

Watson and Lindgren (1989) asserted that the relationship between a mother and child is so significant, and plays a great role in the upbringing of his early development. The relationship between mother and child may be enhanced or diminished when time spent with children by the mother was adequate or limited. This was explained by Haveman and Wolfe in Hofferth (1999), who asserted that, the concept of quality time spent, referred to the time mothers spent engaging children in some productive and stimulating activities. This quality time was a function of mother’s educational status and socio-economic well being which are almost the exclusive reserve of the employed. Amen in Ogunbiyi, (1999) observed that, the parent-child relationship was the first and one of the most important and intricate, that a human being ever experienced. Such experiences were said to form the foundation for a series of other good relationships with people throughout life.

The mother-child relationship is perceived by most behavioral psychologist as a product of dependent and independent variables, with the child and parent as the components respectively. So the outcome which is the child's outward manifestation of traits, character, behaviour, personality and adjustment is a direct product of the constituent of maternal attributes, (Joshi and Verropoulou 2000). Furthermore, the authors stressed the importance of mother – infant bonding, by asserting that when babies were removed too early from their mothers, such children suffered attachment problems and when they were removed for a long period of time brain development was impeded. It was however, not clearly stated, the length of time that was likely to stimulate this chain of negative effect.

Omooba, (2002) in her research work on child-rearing, observed that, 63.7% of parents in Ekiti State did not spend much time with their children, which affected the mother – child relationship, leading to maladjusted behaviour in children. According to (Christian Women Mirror, 2004) the life of a woman, who has the heart of a mother, is intricately woven with the life of her child where the child is an object of her deepest love and affection. Such a woman made much sacrifices and took any risk to ensure the survival of her child, as well as protected and provided for his needs,

2.5.1 ATTENTION, LOVE AND CARE TO THE CHILD

Every child wants to be loved. This is true for young babies as well as older children. Love and affection from parents, make children feel accepted

and belonging to the family. Hence, the need for affection and the need to belong are important elements in emotional security, (Durojaiye, 1976 Lovell, 1976). It is an established fact, supported by vast body of scientific reports, that the provision of a congenial atmosphere of love is very vital in the development of a healthy child. Coleman, (1984) reviewing previous literature on the subject of child development made this remarkable observation. Further observation revealed that, there is a very positive relationship between parental affection and the development of such traits as self esteem, self reliance, independence and self control. In that land mark work, Coleman, (1984) also contended that love, attention and care were the foundation for building of broad positive patterns of family interaction and relationships.

Hoffman (1998) claimed that employed mothers encourage independence in their children more than non-employed mothers do. This is so because the situational demands of the dual role of the mother enables the family to function more effectively in her absence. Love and acceptance also generate sense of trust towards their parents and the world generally. Supporting this view, Fafunwa in Odoemelam and Okafor (2004), in a recent write up affirmed that, it is the responsibility of the mother to provide love, care and support to her children, to build in them desirable traits.

More recently, Coleman in Kinney, Dunn and Hofferth (2004) reported that, spending time with children, providing support, guidance and supervision, stimulated the development of interpersonal skills which was termed "social capital". This ultimately results in balanced social development of the child. It, then, follows that the coronary of such desirable traits will not evolve in the

children if love, care and attention are hampered; in view of maternal employment,(Hoffert 1999). This however, may not mean that all the time that parents spend with their children will not result in the provision of love, care and attention, because some parents have this unfortunate attitude of looking at their children as necessary burdens that should be dispensed with as quickly as possible. Some even go further to abuse children under their care. Such interactions may result in sending the wrong signal to the children, with detrimental consequences (Kolo, 2001).

2.5.2 FAMILY STRUCTURE

The structure and organizational frame work in families have attracted the attention of research psychologists who saw it as a response to the complexities and problems which the family presents to parenting. Some of these psychologists like Coleman (1984) viewed the question of family structure and discipline as role definition, roles are clearly spelt out for every member of the family or group and what is expected is equally known. Limits and boundaries are placed with regards to behavioural outcomes with positive or negative interaction to encourage or discourage desirable and undesirable behaviour patterns. This approach took into account the age, sex, need, abilities and other specifications of the child in question. Dijk in Hofferth (1999) explained that the structures of the families raised from single-parent family (biological or otherwise) to living in a step-family with one of the biological parents and their partner/spouse, had a number of child behavioural outcomes which were observed to have resulted from such family structural changes, for example impulsive/hyperactive behaviour. School behavioural

Problems were however observed more in boys than in girls, who were less affected by these family structural alternatives. The issue of discipline and child upbringing may as well be mostly a function of family structure (Home pragrames and services, 2002). This publication categorically stated that family composition and structure actually changes the child's behavioural well being which could be negative or positive.

2.5.3 APPROPRIATE ROLE MODEL CREATION

Almost all children imitate adults whom they see as models. This assertion is supported by scientific research findings. Modeling in child-upbringing patterns, is an active ingredient. It is true that in the African context, the child learns behavioural traits mostly through the imitation of the adult figure in the house. Bronfenbrenner, (1971) and Pumroy and Pumroy, (1978) observed that much of a child's learning comes from observing others. The fact that children imitate others is something that can be of help in raising up children. Most parents frequently do just that when they say, "watch me", or "do it this way". By so doing the child learns a new behaviour. Hence modeling can be used to induce inhibition and control behaviour. Of special interest to this work was the submission of Hoffman in Papalia and Olds, (1979) that working mothers presented different role model from that presented by unemployed mothers depending on their level of satisfaction capacity to cope with the stress of time management and parental obligations.

Coleman, (1984) quoting Bandra said "much of learning occurs by observing and imitating models". In the light of this, he emphasized the seriousness of the position of parents in creating ideal models for their

children. Olson and DeFrain, (2000) reported that children develop into adults and behave much like their parents. In effect mothering is a stronger and more consistent predictor of child's outcomes, which could be positive or negative, depending on the mother's outward attitudes. The significance of parents presenting a precious role model for children was given a spiritual twist by Mousa (2004) who contended that, setting good examples for children to emulate was a divine duty of all parents.

2.5.4 CREATING A STIMULATING AND RESPONSIVE ENVIRONMENT

Pumroy and Pumroy (1978) and Zanden (1978), have categorized families into two sub-groups: the warm and good home and the distant and hostile home. For the former home characteristics such as acceptable children, affectionate relationships, approving and child-centred behaviours were the rule rather than the exception. In the distant and hostile home, coldness, rejection, disapproval, self-centredness, hostility and punitive behaviours reigned.

Kisekka (1981) contended that environment plays a role in traditional upbringing. Child-upbringing as observed by the author, is facilitated by the rural environment with its natural surroundings which provide space, where children engage in exciting games and imitate play at adult roles. Thus children are exposed and integrated in their cultural traditions.

The concept of quality time, postulated by Hofferth (1999) can also be said to be a direct response to time limitation, which employed mothers have with respect to the practices of child upbringing. Studies have revealed that most educated working mothers tend to spend more quality time with their

children, and are very mindful of the environment in which their children are brought up. These categories of mothers take child-upbringing and the development of positive outcomes very seriously and may have entered the labour force to facilitate their empowerment to provide these necessary stimulus for child-upbringing.

The influence of a stimulating and responsive environment to child upbringing patterns has often been stressed, hence the maxim, the child is a product of his environment. It is expected that the mother constitutes part of her time to create and monitor this stimulating/responsive child nursing, but the mother's paid work seems to diminish that role to some appreciable levels, (Hoffman (1998) Joshi and Verropoulou, (2000),. These authors also explored the possibility of the capacity of parents to provide this environment on the strength of enhanced family income occasioned by mother's paid work through the provision of children's needs.

Mousa, (2004) in his submission also pointed out that, provision of electrically based learning aids can mould the child in ways that are dependent on the importance of such vices. These and many other components create an environment in which children are brought up. However these possibilities do not obscure in any way the problems of deprived outcomes envisaged, and probably observed when the child-upbringing environment is destabilized, when the mother is employed. The assumption is that, the traditional adopted method of raising children in Nigeria as a whole, and Plateau State to be precise is now a mirage, since most mothers are busy on their paid work or business. In view of this, maternal-child relationship seems to have been very elastic, hence, the full development of the child's potentials might have been

hampered. The opinions from these scholars helped in the present study, where an evaluation was made on what is obtainable in Plateau State, on the issue on mother-child relationship.

2.6 MATERNAL EDUCATION AND CHILD-UPBRINGING PRACTICES

The World's conference on Women and Development, held in Beijing 1995, was a forum that triggered the inspirations of women to move forward. Thus, more and more women are in education which they see as a major vehicle for the future success and happiness of their children. Lippe, (1999) in a research work reported that, educated working mothers are less traditional in their child-upbringing practices. As a result they engage their children in more active competent training through an authoritative child-rearing style. Further findings revealed that the employed mothers are found to be more positively verbal, when interacting with their children than the non-educated mothers.

In a research conducted by Hofferth, (1999) on working mothers and child-care in United States, it was found that education served as a proxy for preferences, for greater investments in children. Further submissions by Hofferth indicated that educated employed mothers spent quality time with their children, thus their children experienced good motherly attention and care. Rawlings in IFHE, (2000) and Women, (2000), noted that when you educate a woman, you educate the nation, but when you educate a man you educate an individual. This perhaps stresses the importance of the woman's education through which she is being empowered, and subsequently her family as a whole.

The issue of girl-child, and women education has been vastly discussed over the media, and our National News papers, by the government at the different levels as well as individuals.

NPC (2001) observed that women's self advancement in the past was curtailed by the burden of reproduction, and the cultural views about the basic role of the woman being that of child-bearing, child-raiser and home maker, with limited reasons to entertain wider aspirations. However, today these physical and attitudinal constraints are changing albeit more gradually in Nigeria than other parts of the world. Supporting this opinion, Joshi and Verropoulou, (2000) argued that a mother's qualification is relevant in child's-upbringing. Furthermore, these writers maintained that education enhances a woman's earning power, which in turn changes the family well being. It is also indicated that when a mother is educationally equipped, the better her productivity and the more efficient she becomes, and the better her services in child-upbringing.

It may then be said that the higher the qualification or educational status of a mother, the better her experience in the child-upbringing practices. This study is therefore interested in evaluating how the educational status of women in Plateau State has influenced the upbringing of the young ones in the area.

2.7 MATERNAL-SUBSTITUTES

It has been asserted by many psychologists, that an affectionate nurturing mother is essential for a better development of the child. Hence the effects of deprivation of mother's love upon the child could be devastating,

since these housemaids who are themselves not educated cannot be good models for children to emulate.

Mead in Hoeflin (1970) reported that, the working mother is responsible for making arrangement for mother substitutes. This is to ensure that children do not come from school to meet empty homes, and also to bridge the gap between the time the mother leaves for work and when the baby-sitter arrives. The writer lamented that, children left alone with no adult figure, most times become over anxious and embedded in fears. Hence the attitudes and personality of the mothers, are important in child-upbringing. Perry and Perry (1980) contended that mothers who take their children to Day-care centres to be cared for, are sometimes left with the feeling of inadequacy, guilt and resentment. These negative attitudes are communicated to the child in various ways, thereby retarding the child's emotional development, rather than enhancing it. According to Ezewu (1984), the practice of leaving children under the care of paid workers is a recent development in Nigeria. This is so because mothers in the past were assisted to care for their young siblings, by aged women relatives who were experienced in child-care and of good disposition.

As children feel insecure in the absence of any adult figure, to depend on, while their parents are at work, the presence of a substitute mother becomes important, for a continuity of care for the children. This is so because the child by its nature is meant to be deeply intimately dependent on the mother, through which it acquires security and builds up character through the emotional love, gained very often from the mother in the early years. The work of Coleman (1984) on reduced parental role, indicated that parents who

worked outside the home, depended on Day-care facilities or other social support systems to assist in the upbringing of their children. His findings further revealed that about four million American children lived solitary and fearful lives after school, because their parents were labour employees.

Glosson and Meek (1997) agreed that mother-substitutes were ultimately satisfying and beneficial to the psychological growth of the child. This is so because the child felt a sense of belonging to some one in the absence of the mother. One may rationally deduce that, the kind of people children become is largely depended on the love, care and guidance received from adults. Therefore, the role of a surrogate mother in the life of a child is a critical one. Capable care givers tend to raise children who are well adjusted and an asset to the society, while children are likely to grow with problems when the care-givers fail in their responsibilities.

Beaver, Brewster, and Jones (1999) contended that the primary place for the care of young children is the home, where the mother is supposed to be the home keeper. However, the absence of present day mothers from their homes, for long or short periods, in search for paid employment, is a matter of concern in many families. This leave of absence and change, which take much of the mother's time outside the home, has brought a situation in which nannies, baby-sitters, housemaids and Day-Care centres have replaced parents, particularly mothers. These surrogate mothers, look after the children, while the biological mothers are away to work. Although maternal substitutes serve in various capacities to nurture the children, they do not have the emotional and material resources to adequately compensate for love, care, attention and commitment needed by those children in their formative years.

In another study conducted by Olson and DeFrain (2000) on working mothers and care of children, the finding of their work advanced a breakdown on how 21 million children under five years were being cared for. Out of this number of children only 30% received care from their parents, 21% were cared for by relatives, 31% attended Day-care centres, 14% enrolled in family day-care, while 4% were cared for by baby-sitters in the home. This is an indication of the wide range of the engagement of mother-substitutes by working mothers. In a more recent study, NPC (2001) had on record that 53% of employed women had a child under six years of age, while 41% of working mothers looked after their children while they were at work. According to NPC, these mothers were mainly urban women who had less opportunity to entrust their children to family members or relatives in the community.

Table 2.3:

Child minders while mothers are working (% distribution of minders of children under six)

Care of child by:	%
Mothers	41
Others	28
Other relatives	13
Male child	3
Female child	13
Male partners	2

Source: NDHS 1999 [NpopC, A 2000]

This Table showed that 13% of the children of working mothers were entrusted to the older female siblings, 3% to male siblings, 2% to male partners. The “other” which accounted for 28% of child minders included a wide range of persons, including neighbours, friends and servants. Other

extended relatives 13%. NPC maintained that, the situation was different in the rural areas, since extended family ties were stronger and older children were less likely to be in school. This offered more opportunities for child minding arrangements at home and in the community.

Uwakwe in Tor-Anyiin and Baaki (2004), claimed that women's roles have been taken over by such family agencies like Day-care centres, the school and church. Further observations revealed that the ubiquity of nursery schools and employment of home caretakers, have greatly reduced the burden of child-upbringing role of the mother. This situation according to Uwakwe has given the mother more time, energy and opportunity for other engagements outside the home. The fact however remains that, due to biological reasons, the role of child-upbringing is still that of the mother. Based on these documented literature, the present study examined the situation of employed mothers in Plateau State, to assess what is on ground now.

2.8 REVIEW OF EMPIRICAL RESEARCHES ON CHILD-UPBRINGING

An understanding and knowledge of child upbringing practices, patterns and beliefs will place employed mothers at a better position to play their fundamental role of child – care.

Uka (1973), carried out a research titled “Growing up in Nigerian culture”: Child-upbringing study in Nigerian society. The study was aimed to investigate the child-upbringing practices in the Nigerian culture. The sample subjects consisted of 1,300 boys and girls from three ethnic groups, Igbo, Yoruba and Ibibio. The instruments used for collecting data were questionnaire and interview. The data collected was analysed using the chi-square (X^2) statistical tool.

The results of Uka's finding revealed that:

- The mother was typically the sources of several primary rewards for the child in terms of food, tactile contact and the alleviation of pain and warmth.
- Breastfeeding was the normal practice in the nurturance of infants, which lasted for three years.
- Weaning was reported to be a gradual process and a systematic reduction of the number of times the child suckled during a twenty four hour period.
- Discipline was frequently meted by the mother.

The study of Uka (1973), shared much similarities with the present work except for the statistical tools and number of subjects that vary. While Uka used X^2 to analyse his work, the present work has used t-test related test. Uka's subjects were boys and girls within ages 5 – 15 years old. The present study has used employed mothers from 25 years old and above. However both the work of Uka (1973) and the present study focused on "child-upbringing practices".

Troelstrup, (1974) conducted a research on the working wife and mother. The purpose of the study was to determine the reasons why mothers went into gainful employment, rather than remained home to care for their children. A population of 600 working mothers between the ages of 18 - 65 years old and above was randomly chosen from thirty – five States in America. Using a descriptive research and a survey method a questionnaire was used to collect the data. The researcher designed a nine itemed questionnaire to evaluate why mothers worked outside the home. Working mothers responded

to the questions in order of importance. The result of the findings revealed the following:

1. Eight-eight percent (88%) of the mothers worked for a financial consideration. Three other reasons most frequently mentioned were:
 2. To provide better living for the family.
 3. To provide for the children's education
 4. To get out of debts..
5. Eight percent (8%) of the mothers opted for a non-financial reason, who worked just to get away from the boredom of housekeeping.

The findings further revealed, that the ranking for maternal employment outside the home varied by age, income group and family situation of the mothers. It was also confirmed that 16% mothers between the ages of 18 –24 years old worked to help their husbands finish their educational pursuit.

Mallum (1988), carried out a study to compare the child-rearing patterns of employed and unemployed mothers in Plateau State of Nigeria. The research had the following goals:

- To investigate the differences in the child-rearing practices of the employed and unemployed mothers.
- To determine how the particular child-rearing patterns adapted by each group of mothers affected their children's social and academic behaviours.

The study drew a sample of 790 respondents from three LGAs in Plateau State, out of which 370 were employed and unemployed mothers.

The instruments adapted for this study were interview, questionnaire and academic achievement testing. To analyse the data ANOVA and X^2 tests were used. The results of Mallum's study (1988) revealed that:

- There was a significant difference between child-rearing patterns of employed and unemployed mothers in Plateau State in favour of the employed mothers.
- The social behaviours of children of employed mothers varied significantly from those of the unemployed in favour of the employed mothers' children.
- There was a significant difference between academic achievement of children of employed and unemployed mothers in favour of employed mothers' children.

The researcher concluded that, maternal employment in the Nigerian culture positively affected mothers' child-rearing patterns and children's social and academic behaviours.

The work of Mallum 1988 shared similar characteristics with the present study with exception of some few variations. While Mallum's work was restricted to three LGAs in Plateau State, and a sample size of 370, both employed and unemployed mothers, the present study used 500 employed mothers only from six LGAs of Plateau State. The findings of her work will be of relevance to the discussion of the present work.

In yet another study, Hoffman (1998), in a research work titled "Effects of maternal employment on families and children: effects on children's well-being", examined the differences between children of employed and non employed mothers in United States. The objective of the research was:

To compare the children of employed and non-employed mothers with special attention to:

- maternal social class,
- maternal employment status (full-time or part-time),
- maternal marital status (married or single),
- maternal attitudes and parenting styles,
- maternal available time spent with children,

Hoffman (1998) used a total of 400 Michigan mothers for the research whose employment status had been stable for at least three years and who also stayed together with their children. The data was obtained by use of questionnaire and interviews, and standard achievement test scores provided by schools. The results of Hoffman's work indicated that:

- Children of employed mothers had higher academic achievement, greater career success and greater occupational commitment than children of non-employed mothers.
- Children of employed mothers had less traditional gender-role attitudes (whether or not men could do things that were traditionally part of women's domain and vice versa).
- Father's role was viewed as an important mediator of the link between mothers' employment status and child's outcomes.
- Employed mothers as compared to full-time home makers used less of either authoritarian or permissive parenting styles and more of the authoritative parenting style.

- Full-time employed mother spent less time with their children than part-time and non-employed mothers.
- Employed mothers encouraged positive interaction and independency in their children.

The researcher concluded that maternal employment status presented both positive and negative effects on families and children with the positive effects outweighing the negative ones. Hoffman's study (1998) laid emphases on the child's well being as it related to maternal employment,

In another related study, Hofferth (1999) conducted a survey research titled Women's employment and care of children: relationship between access of children to parental care and attention in United States. The research aimed at:

- Developing policies that would help families to bring up children and as well participate in the workforce.
- Identifying alternative non-parental care arrangement for children.
- Examining the amount of time employed mothers spent with their children.

The study had a population of 8,700 families including mothers, fathers and children. The instrument used was interview and the statistical tool applied was the multivariate analysis which examined the influence of maternal employment and work hours on the time children spent with mothers. The results of Hofferth's finding was reported as follows:

- Children of two parent families spent 39.8 hours per week as against 33.1 hours with parents in dual earner families.

- Employed mothers spent 7.5 hours less with their children as compared to non employed mothers.
- Employed mothers had higher educational levels which earned them better and greater resources to bring up their children. Sharing the care of children between fathers and mothers, and adjustment of work schedule e.g. part-time was an alternative to non parental care.

In yet another study, Lippe (1999), carried out a research titled “the impact of maternal schooling and occupation on child-rearing attitudes and behaviours in Cairo Egypt. The researcher focused on the traditional and modern child-rearing values in an education-based society. The purpose of the study was to investigate the socialization values and practices of the mothers: to evaluate how mothers prepared preschool children for cognitive demands in schools. The researcher used thirty educated mothers of low income group and similar housing standards but different educational and occupational status. The interviewing method was adapted for collection of data, however the statistical tool was not indicated. The results revealed that:

- The thirty educated mothers were generally found to emphasize on a controlling, restricting and protecting style of child-rearing with moral education, compliance, agreeableness passivity and loyalty as ideals.
- Educated employed mothers expressed belief in early developmental timetables with less traditional values of stimulation and interaction.
- Educated employed mothers interacted positively with their children than the non employed low educated mothers.

The researcher reached the conclusion that maternal educational and occupational status did not predict children's cognitive competence rather mothers' child rearing behaviours acted as mediators.

In another related study, Omooba (2002) worked on the influence of socio-cultural and economic variables: methods and processes of child rearing among Ekiti parents of Ekiti State. The purpose of the study was:

- To identify child rearing practices of the traditional Ekiti people.
- To identify the changes that have taken place in the traditional Ekiti child rearing practices due to influence of foreign culture.
- To examine the influence of parental education, occupation, socio-economic status and religion on the upbringing of Ekiti children. The sample for the study was 825 drawn from 15 LAGs.

The instrument used for collecting data was questionnaire while the statistical tool used in analyzing the data were 2 tailed t-test, chi-square (X^2) and regression procedure and multiple regression analysis.

The results of Omooba's study revealed that:

- No significant difference existed in the childrearing practices of urban and rural dwellers in Ekiti State.
- Foreign cultures, parental occupation, social and marital status had not significantly influenced the child-rearing practices of Ekiti people.
- Family neglect and peer group influenced children to commit crimes.

Since Omooba's study focused on children-rearing practices which, was also the focus of the present research, some of its instruments were used. This allowed for comparison between the pattern of response from Omooba's work and the present study.

2.9 SUMMARY

This chapter reviewed literature related to the area of research. A brief history of Plateau State has been stated. Plateau State of Nigeria has over thirty ethnic groups with similar and interrelated cultural traits that bind the people together. Most of the educated women in the stated are employees of the labour force, while both the educated and non educated are good on the farm and small scale businesses, (Plateau State Diary, 1999).

The concept, maternal employment, as viewed by Lerner (2004) is “the labour force affiliation of mothers with children 0-18 years old.” The employment patterns range from full-time, part –time as well as contract work. Lippe (1999) on the other hand has explained that child-upbringing practices are values, norms, patterns and beliefs which are embedded in the culture of a people, and which to a large extent determine the behaviour of a child. An attempt was made to look at child-upbringing practices of other cultures. For example the Japanese, British, Kibbutz tribe of Israel, Gusii of Kenya were cited among others. The traditional and modern child-upbringing practices were also reviewed on the practices of feeding and weaning, discipline as well as toileting. Empirical researches on maternal employment and child-upbringing practices were also considered, as well as an evaluation of maternal substitutes who fill in the gaps for biological mothers during work hours.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.0 INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between maternal employment and child-upbringing practices in Plateau State, along with the effects of employment on the upbringing practices.

The following sub headings were discussed in this chapter.

- ❖ Research design,
- ❖ Population for the study,
- ❖ Sample and sampling techniques,
- ❖ Instrument for data collection,
- ❖ Procedure for data collection,
- ❖ Procedure for data analysis.

3.1 THE RESEARCH DESIGN

This study employed a descriptive research design, due to the fact that it studied people in groups, and also described and interpreted relationships between or among variables that existed in a research. A survey research method, an example of this design was used to collect and analyze data of this study, (Akuezuiilo and Agu, 2003).

3.2 POPULATION OF THE STUDY

The population for the study comprised of all working mothers in Plateau State of Nigeria. Employed mothers from the seventeen Local Government Headquarters formed the target population for this study. The estimated population of employed mothers, as obtained directly from the

individual LGAs secretariats, stood at six thousand, one hundred and fifty – eight (6158), (Staff Pay Rolls Statistics Units 2004). The breakdown of the population per LGAs is shown in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1

LOCAL GOVERNMENT AREA	ZONES	POPULATION OF WORKING MOTHERS
BARAKIN LADI	Northern zone	520
BASSA	Northern zone	541
BOKKOS	Central zone	366
KANAM	Central zone	135
KANKE	Central zone	299
JOS – EAST	Northern zone	324
JOS – NORTH	Northern zone	615
JOS – SOUTH	Northern zone	538
LANGTANG – NORTH	Southern zone	376
LANGTANG – SOUTH	Southern zone	278
MANGU	Central zone	386
MIKANG	Southern zone	283
PANKSHIN	Central zone	307
QUAN – PAN	Southern zone	379
RIYOM	Northern zone	348
SHENDAM	Southern zone	384
WASE	Southern zone	79
TOTAL		6158

SOURCE: LGAs Secretariats: Staff Pay Rolls, Statistics Units 2004.

3.3 SAMPLE AND SAMPLING TECHNIQUES

For the purpose of this study, a simple random sampling technique was used. Plateau State is grouped into three geo-political zones. The Northern zone comprised of six Local Government Areas, five in the Central, and six in the Southern zone, which gave 17 LGAs with an estimated population of 6158 employed mothers. The balloting or hat-draw method was used to select the six Local Government Areas, (Uzoagulu 1998).

Based on the recommendation of Krejcie and Morgan (1970) a minimum of 375 subjects could be used for a population of 15,000. The present research drew a sample of 500 subjects from a sample population of

2511, by computing 20% of the population of each selected Local Government Area as suggested by Boll and Gall in Uzoagulu (1998). The Table 3.2 showed the population and samples from each column.

Table 3.2 Population and sample according to Local Government Areas.

Local Government Areas	Zones	Population	Sample taken
Barakin Ladi	Northern zone	520	104
Jos – South	Northern zone	538	107
Pankshin	Central zone	307	61
Mangu	Central zone	386	77
Langtang North	Southern zone	376	75
Shendam	Southern zone	384	76
Total		2511	500

3.4 INSTRUMENT FOR DATA COLLECTION

The instrument for this study was the use of questionnaire. In order to collect data and to provide answers to questions raised in the study, a self designed questionnaire based on the objectives and hypotheses of this study was used. Likert scale format was adopted to design the questions because it deals with statements of facts or a set of attitude items, considered to be equal in value, and to each of which subjects respond with degrees of agreement or disagreement: strongly agree, agree, disagree, and strongly disagree, (Kerlinger 1973). The questionnaire consisted of seven sections, each addressing a specific area of the study. The breakdown as shown below:

Section A: Biodata to provide personal information about the respondents.

Section B: Factors influencing maternal participation in labour force.

Section C: Effect of maternal employment on child-upbringing.

Section D: Traditional upbringing practices.

Section E: Modern upbringing practices

Section F: Maternal – Child relationship.

Section G: Maternal substitutes.

3.4.1 VALIDITY OF THE INSTRUMENT

The self-structured questionnaire was subjected to vetting by the supervisors and other experts in the field of education.

3.4.2 PILOT STUDY

A pilot study was conducted in Jos – North Local Government Area in the State headquarters. This Local Government was chosen because it shared similar characteristics with the six Local Government Areas selected for this study. Using a sample size of thirty respondents, thirty copies of the questionnaires were administered, who completed and returned immediately. The pilot study was carried out to ascertain the reliability of the test items within the instrument.

After the pilot study, the researcher however discovered that, there was need to reframe items 8 and 12 of the test questions in section C, which were not properly responded to. This amendment was properly made before the final administration of the instrument. Question 8 which read: my children cannot differentiate between the traditional roles of mothers and father because we both work outside the home was reframed to read: my children are likely to be confused about gender roles in the family. Question 12 which formerly read: teenage pregnancies, stealing and drug abuse are bad behaviours that are common among Plateau State youths was also reframed

to read: social vices that are likely to be as a result of maternal absence from the home(i) drunkenness (ii) drug abuse (iii) sexual immorality and so on.

3.4.3 RELIABILITY OF THE INSTRUMENT

The data obtained from the pilot study was subjected to reliability test, using the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS). Using the split-half method, the result of the data analysis gave an observed reliability co-efficient of 0.655. The questionnaire was interpreted correctly adopting the principles of (Tuckman, 1975 and Anastasi, 1980).

3.5 PROCEDURE FOR DATA COLLECTION

The researcher with the help of four trained research assistants administered and retrieved the questionnaires in the six Local Government Areas (Barkin Ladi, Jos-south, Pankshin, Mangu, Langtang North and Shendam) which were selected for the study. A period of five working days was given to respondents to complete the questionnaires. After which the researcher and the research assistants went round and collected the questionnaires.

3.6 PROCEDURE FOR DATA ANALYSIS

The data collected for this study were subjected to various statistical methods. Descriptive statistic, in terms of frequencies, simple percentages and means were used to analyze the demographic data. For test of hypothesis the following were applied.

Hypothesis one was tested with Paired t – test, while hypotheses two, four, and five were analysed by the use of Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient (PPMC).

Hypothesis three was tested with two-tailed test. All null hypotheses were tested at 0.05 level of significance.

CHAPTER FOUR

PRESENTATION OF RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.0 INTRODUCTION

The statistical analysis of the data collected for this study, are presented in this chapter. A total number of 500 questionnaires were administered for the study, but 486 (97.2%) were successfully completed and returned. In the statistical presentation, a univariate approach which treated and rated items independently was adopted in the analysis of the demographic characteristics of the respondents and the summary statistics of frequencies and percentages were used. This approach was also used in the analysis of the responses to the items. In the analysis of the items, all discussions were based on the modified Likert Scale used for the instrument. In the test of the hypotheses, a bivariate approach analysis of the variables was the major focus.

4.1 PRESENTATION OF DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF THE SUBJECTS

A number of demographic variables of the subjects were evaluated along the major objectives of this study. These were the age, marital status, educational qualification and occupation of the subjects. Others were employment status, income per month, number of children, period of commencement of work and location of work place, where children were kept when going to work, number hours spent at work, frequency of visits to the children and number of children in school were the other personal variables involved in this assessment.

Table 4.1 Distribution of Respondents according to Age

Age range years	Frequency	%
25 – 29	98	20.2
30 – 34	64	13.2
35 – 39	104	21.4
40 – 44	112	23.0
45 – 49	73	15.0
Above – 49	35	7.2
Total	486	100.0

The distribution of the respondents in Table 4.1 showed that all ages of the women in the working group of the society were well represented in the study. As high as 80.2% of the respondents were married at the time of the survey and 7.0% of them were either divorced or separated from their spouse while 12.8% of them were widowed.

Table 4.2 Distribution of respondents by their highest educational qualifications

Qualification	Frequency	%
Primary	15	3.1
Adult Education	6	1.2
Secondary	84	17.3
NCE/OND	174	35.8
HND	67	13.8
Nursing	65	13.4
University	75	15.4
Total	486	100.0

Table 4.2 showed that the dominant qualification among the respondents was the National Certificate in Education (NCE), which accounted for 35.8% of the total sample. The next highest percentage of the respondents by qualification was those with secondary school certificates 17.3%. Those with university degrees were 15.4%, while those with Adult Education and primary school certificates were the least among the group with 1.2% and 3.1% respectively. Nursing and those with Higher National Diploma (HND) were relatively low with 13.4% and 13.8% of the total respondents respectively.

Table 4.3 Distribution according to Respondents' occupations

Occupation	Frequency	%
Medical Doctor	2	0.4
Accounting staff	58	12.0
Teaching	133	27.4
Nursing	74	15.2
Administrator	70	14.4
Typist	38	7.8
Other civil servants not specified in the table	111	22.8
Total	486	100.0

The respondents tended to be evenly distributed among the various occupations listed in Table 4.3 with a skewness to teaching. Other civil servants with unspecified occupations accounted for 22.8% of the sample, while nursing and administration took 15.2% and 14.4% of the sample respectively. The least number of the respondents (0.4%) were in the medical field, which could be due to other factors outside the domain of this study.

Table 4.4 Distribution of Respondents by their employment status

Employment type	Frequency	%
Full time	390	80.2
Full time with shift	83	17.1
Part time	3	0.6
Part time with shift	2	0.4
Contract	8	1.6
Total	486	100.0

Full- time employment was the dominant employment status of the women in Table 4.4. The status accounted for 80.2% of the total sample Others (17.1%) with relatively high percentage scores were also on full-time appointment but also involved in shift. Those who were on part time were 0.6% of the total sample and 1.6% of the respondents said they were involved in contract work, while 0.4% respondents were on part-time combined with shift. The important observation here is that all the respondents were involved in employment that required their leaving the children at home while at work.

Table 4.5 Distribution of Respondents by their monthly income

Income range	Frequency	%
Below ₦10,000.00	127	26.1
₦10,000.00 – ₦19,00.00	170	35.0
₦20,000.00 – ₦29,000.00	82	16.9
₦30,000.00 – ₦39,000.00	46	9.5
₦40,000.00 – ₦49,000.00	20	4.1
Above ₦49,000.00	41	8.4
Total	486	100.0

Table 4.5 showed the ranges in monthly income of the respondents. The distribution of the income in Table4.5 showed that 61.1% of the

respondents earned ₦19,000.00 and below. The percentage was made up of those who earned below ₦10,000.00 and those who earned between ₦10,000.00 and ₦19,000.00 per month. The respondents with all other income groups were relatively low as indicated in the Table. The least income group were those between ₦40,000.00 – ₦49,000.00 who amounted for to 4.1% of the total sample. The main point here was that the respondents were within reasonable income groups.

Table 4.6 Distribution of Respondents by their number of children

No of children	Frequency	%
1 – 2	207	42.6
3 – 4	167	34.4
5 – 6	67	13.8
Above 6	45	9.2
Total	486	100.0

As indicated in the Table 4.6, 42.6% of the respondents had between 1 and 2 children, while 34.4% had between 3 and 4 children. Only 13.8% of the respondents had between 5 and 6 children and 9.2% of the total sample had more than 6 children each. On the average, each of the respondents had 2 children with a standard deviation of 1 child. This implied that the respondents in the study were the actual target and could be expected that the information they provided were valuable and valid for the study. Most (57.2%) of them started working before they had their first child while the remaining 42.8% started working after having the first child. Also 56.6% worked within their Local Government Areas, while the remaining 43.4% worked outside their Local Government Areas.

Table 4.7 Classification of the respondents by where they kept their children

With whom did children stay?	Frequency	%
Husband alone	37	7.6
Wife alone	84	17.3
Both Husband /Wife	275	56.6
On their own	10	2.1
With relations	41	8.4
With House helps	39	8.0
Total	486	100.0

Table 4.7 showed that 7.6% of the respondents claimed that their husbands were responsible for care of children when they went to work. Those who claimed that the wife alone was responsible for childcare were 17.3% of the total sample. But 56.6% of the respondents claimed that both husband and wife looked after the children, while 2.1% claimed that children were always left alone. But 8.4% of the respondents left their children with their relatives, while 8.0% respondents left the children with house-helps. The observation from Table 4.7 showed that where children were left with either husband or wife, indicated that one partner was not engaged in full time employment. But where respondents claimed that the children were left in the care of both parents could mean that such children were taken to Day-care or school where they were picked at the end of the day's work depending on their ages.

Table 4.8 Distribution of Respondents by number of hours spent at Work

No of hours	Frequency	Percentage
Six	97	19.9
Seven	54	11.1
Eight	304	62.6
Twelve	22	4.5
Above twelve	9	1.9
Total	486	100.0

Table 4.8 showed that 62.6% of the respondents maintained regular working hours of 8 hours per day. Other groups with relatively different working hours were those who spent only 6 hours per day at work, which accounted for 19.9% of the total sample, while 11.1% of the respondents spent 7 hours per day in their workplaces. Respondents who spent more than 8 hours at work were relatively low as indicated in the Table. This variable had a major consideration in this work since the number of hours spent at work was a determinant of most of the concerns of this study. The longer the hours spent by mothers at work the more the children were likely to be left alone or at the care of another person. This is where the effect of maternal employment is mostly important. It is therefore considered as the variable defining maternal employment outside the home.

Table 4.9 Distribution of respondents by the number of their children in the school.

No of children in school	Frequency	%
1 – 3	343	70.6
4 – 6	111	22.8
7 – 9	22	4.5
Above 9	10	2.1
Total	486	100.0

As indicated in Table 4.9, 70.6% of the respondents had between 1 and 3 children in the school, while 22.8% had between 4 and 6 children in the school. Those who had between 7 and 9 children in school among the respondents were 4.5%, while 2.1% of the total sample claimed that they had more than 9 children in schools. The important factor here is that most of the respondents had their children in the school.

4.2 ANALYSIS OF FACTORS INFLUENCING MATERNAL EMPLOYMENT

Though mothers generally are looked upon as homemakers and have the primary responsibility of taking care of their children, necessities have moved them beyond this primary responsibilities. In this section, some of the necessities that influenced mothers to take up employment outside their homes as additional responsibility were identified. Table 4.10 showed the respondents' opinions on the factors that influenced mothers to take up employment outside their homes. Items in the Table were based on the modified Likert Scale system and the mean score for disagreement for each of the items was 2. The observed mean for the respective items were shown along the observed frequencies and percentages for each of the items. From the Table, 98.2% of the respondents took up employment in order to earn

money to support their families. The mean score for the item was 3.755, which means that most of the respondents took up outside employment because of their family needs.

Table 4.10: Factors influencing mothers to work outside the home

	Factors influencing mothers to work outside home	Agree		Disagree		Mean
		Freq	%	Freq	%	
1	I want to earn money to support my Family	477	98.2	9	1.8	3.755
2	I want to earn money to empower Myself	341	70.2	145	29.8	2.786
3	I work to gain respect from my husband and my children	354	72.8	132	27.2	2.922
4	Work gives me personal satisfaction	448	92.2	38	7.8	3.319
5	I work to feel useful and fulfilled	452	93.0	34	7.0	3.315
6	I work to meet with people outside the home	202	41.5	284	58.5	2.377
7	I work to make friends	147	30.2	339	69.8	2.121
8	I work to interact with colleagues	262	53.9	224	46.1	2.484
Aggregate mean score of the Table						2.885

The response to the second item in the Table showed that the need for self empowerment was also high among the factors that influenced mothers to take up employment outside the home. The mean score on the item was 2.786, and 70.2% of the sample agreed with the expressed opinion. The percentage of those who disagreed was relatively low as indicated on the Table. The responses to items 3, 4 and 5 in Table 4.10 showed, that most respondents took up outside employment for personal fulfilment which was considered necessary apart from the family responsibilities. This assertion could be seen from the high percentages of the respondents who concurred to the suggested opinions on the Table. For example, 72.8% of the total sample took up outside

employment to gain respect from their husbands and children. Also 92.2% of the total sample showed that outside employment gave them personal satisfaction, while 93.0% and of the respondents showed that outside employment gave them the impression of being useful and fulfilled.

The need for personal interaction was not really rated as major factor for outside employment by the respondents. This indication could be clearly seen from the responses to items 6 and 7 in Table 4.10. The percentage of the respondents who disagreed that the reason for mothers taking outside employment was merely to make friends was higher than those who agreed. Even in the last item of Table 4.10 where the percentage for agreement was relatively higher than that of disagreement, it could be considered as a post intentional interaction. This means that the responses could be a direct result of the consequences of the outside employment, which the respondents were already involved in and therefore answered on the affirmative because of their interaction in the work places.

4.3 EFFECTS OF MATERNAL EMPLOYMENT ON CHILD UP BRINGING

In this section, the effects of maternal employment on the upbringing of the child were considered. Items considered in the section were the effects of mothers' outside employment on the care of the child in terms of discipline, companionship, supervision and monitoring of child's activities and child involvement in some social vices within the home and the society. Such vices included, drunkenness, drug abuse, sexual immorality and occultism. Other vices also considered were disrespect to elders and laws of the society, juvenile activities, fighting and truancy. The absence or presence of some of these vices could be a direct product of the mothers' presence or absence

from home since her direct intervention would always in most cases resulted in positive behaviour of the children as the case may be.

Table 4.11: Effects of maternal employment on child- upbringing

Effects of maternal employment		Agree Freq	%	Disagree Freq	%	Mean
1	Children are not likely to get adequate monitoring and supervision	387	79.7	99	20.3	3.121
2	Children are likely to be indisciplined	480	78.2	106	21.8	3.025
3	Children may be deprived of maternal love, attention and care	387	79.6	99	20.4	3.132
4	I am likely to spend little time with my children	389	80.0	97	20.0	3.016
5	My children are likely to be confused about their gender roles in the family	261	53.7	225	46.3	2.529
6	I meet the needs of my children and solve their problems	441	90.8	45	9.2	3.311
7	My absence from the home has helped my children to be self reliant	284	58.4	202	41.6	2.545
8	I love to be at work more than to be at home with my children	55	11.3	431	88.7	1.757
9	Social vices: Drunkenness	397	81.7	89	18.3	3.134
10	Drug abuse	402	82.7	84	17.3	3.097
11	Sexual immorality/Teenage pregnancy	411	86.6	75	15.4	3.185
12	Occultism	388	79.8	98	20.2	3.033
13	Disrespect for elders and laws of the society	376	77.4	110	22.6	2.959
14	Juvenile delinquencies	388	79.8	98	20.2	3.045
15	Fighting/stealing	402	82.7	84	17.3	3.101
16	Truancy/school drop out	392	80.7	94	19.3	3.123
Aggregate mean score of the table						2.945

The frequency scores for items 1 to 7 in Table 4.11 showed that most of the respondents were in consonance that mothers' employment outside the home has some negative impact on child-upbringing. In response to item 1 for example, 79.7% of the total sample agreed that children of mothers who took up outside employment were not likely to get adequate monitoring and supervision from their mothers. The only divergent opinion among the

respondents was 20.3%, who disagreed that maternal employment did not necessary affect upbringing of children in the home.

The responses to item 2 in the table showed that 78.2% of the respondents concurred that maternal employment had adverse impact on the child discipline. Those who disagreed with this opinion were relatively few (21.8%) as indicated in the Table.

It was a consensus opinion of the respondents that children of employed mothers could be deprived of maternal love, attention and care. A total number of those who agreed with this opinion was 79.6% while only 20.3%, disagreed with the same opinion. As indicated in item 4 of Table 4.11 80% of the total sample accepted that maternal employment could deprive mothers of the time they spent with their children.

The responses to item 5 on the Table showed that 53.7% of the respondents were of the opinion that children of employed mothers could be confused about gender roles in the family due to the absence of their mothers from the home. But 46.3% of the respondents disagreed with this opinion. However, 90.8% of respondents agreed that employed mothers provided most of the needs of children as indicated in item 6 in the Table. And 58.4% of the respondents were of the view that the absence of employed mother from home tended to help the children to be self reliant. But 41.6% of the respondents did not agree with this opinion. However, most of the respondents (88.7%) disagreed that they loved to be at work more than to be at home with their children, implying that other factors were responsible for their outside employment. It is only in item 8 that the means score by the respondents was on the disagreement side of the modified Likert Scale used in the study.

The respondents opinion of some of the social vices resulting from the mother's absence from home as shown in items 9 to 16 in Table 4.11 showed that all concurred that the mother's employment could have great adverse effect on the child. However, 81.7% of the respondents accepted that involvement in drunkenness could be one of the vices that the children of employed mothers are likely to indulge in. Other vices highly scored by the respondents included sexual immorality, drug abuse, lack of respect for elders and societal values, juvenile delinquencies, fighting and (truancy and school dropout), which tended to have a consensus opinion among the respondents. The aggregate mean score for the Table showed that most 2.945 of the respondents assented with the suggested items on the effect of employment of mothers on their children. These observations tended to reflect similar observations by Papalia and Olds (1979), in their study that maternal employment had negative effects on the child's upbringing. In a similar study, Hoffman (1998) also observed that gender role was not really maintained by children of working mothers because children did not know who the breadwinner of the family was and what the other parent ought to be doing within the house. Ogunbiyi (1999) also made similar observations from a study on working mothers and the care of children. The study, reported, that the absence of employed mothers from home had adversely affected the care and protection of the children. Also Coleman (1984) observed that children of employed mothers lacked the check and supervisory role necessary for children upbringing.

4.4 ANALYSIS OF TRADITIONAL MATERNAL CHILD UPBRINGING PRACTICES

There are some traditional roles, which the status of employed mothers do not really conform with in child-upbringing practices. In this section some of these roles were examined to explore how employed mothers have been able to fulfill them in relation to the care and up-bringing of their children. Table 4.12 showed the respondents opinions on some of the suggested traditional practices of mothers in the upbringing of their children.

Table 4.12: Responses scores of the respondents opinions on traditional maternal child upbringing practices

	Traditional child upbringing practices	Agree		Disagree		Mean
		Freq	%	Freq	%	
1	Take care of their children and maintain their homes	447	92.0	39	8.0	3.405
2	Support their husbands in breadwinning	434	89.3	52	10.7	3.255
3	Breastfeed their children without any restriction	446	91.8	40	8.2	3.319
4	Wean their children at the age of 2 or 3 years when they can eat adult food	440	90.5	46	9.5	3.243
5	Use cane to discipline their children	419	86.2	67	13.8	3.099
6	Train their children for toileting from 4 months after birth	342	70.4	144	29.6	2.792
7	Sleep on the bed with their younger children	403	82.9	83	17.1	3.023
8	Train their children to respect elders and the laws of the society	468	96.2	18	3.8	3.358
9	Train their children to participate in all household work	454	93.4	32	6.6	3.377
10	Spend most of their time with their children at home	403	82.9	83	17.1	3.193
Aggregate mean score of the table						3.206

The responses to item 1 in Table 4.12 showed that 92% of the sample consented that one of the traditional practices of mothers was to take care of children and to maintain their homes. Also 89.3% of the respondents agreed that helping the husband in the home was another role of the mother. Almost all 91.8% of the respondents agreed that another role played by mothers was to breastfeed their babies. Also 90.5% of the respondents concurred that

mothers weaned their children at the ages of 2 to 3 years when they could eat adult food. However, 86.2% of the respondents were of the opinion that mothers used the cane to discipline children. Most of the respondents who accounted for 70.4% agreed that one of the roles of mothers was to train children for toileting some months after birth. On the aspect of sleeping on the same bed with children 82.9% respondents assented that in the past mothers slept on the same beds with their infant babies. The training of children to respect elders and the laws of the society was part of upbringing practices of mothers, which was also highly rated and accounted for 96.2% of the sample . Also, highly scored 93.4% of the respondents agreed that it was the duty of mothers to train their children to participate in all household work. And most 82.9% of the respondents agreed that it was traditionally mandatory on mothers to spend most of their time with their children at home. In all these items in Table 4.12 the percentages of disagreement were relatively low. This means that most of the respondents assented to the suggested items in the Table.

4.5 ANALYSIS OF MODERN MATERNAL CHILD UPBRINGING PRACTICES

As a result of changes in modern needs of the family and the advent of the industrial revolution, some of the traditional roles of women have started changing to such an extent that mothers who are employed now take up additional responsibilities in the homes, while shelving some traditional responsibilities of child upbringing practices. Table 4.13 showed the opinion of the respondents on the adopted modern practices of child upbringing by employed mothers.

Table 4.13: Responses on modern maternal child upbringing practices

Modern child upbringing practices		Agree		Disagree		Mean
		Freq	%	Freq	%	
1	To employ housemaids to take care of their children and their homes	440	90.5	46	9.5	3.440
2	To have few number of children	451	92.8	35	7.2	3.235
3	To be breadwinners in their families	392	80.7	94	19.3	3.097
4	To practice both breast and bottle feeding of their children	432	88.9	54	11.1	3.210
5	To wean their children before the age of one Year	374	77.0	112	23.0	2.905
6	To schedule their children's feeding pattern because of their work	436	89.7	50	10.3	3.140
7	To train their children on how to use the potty and the toilet	452	93.0	34	7.0	3.126
8	To avoid corporal punishment of their children	330	67.9	156	32.1	2.745
9	Not to teach their children to respect societal values	146	30.1	340	69.9	2.183
10	To enroll their children in school at age below 3 years	446	91.8	40	8.2	3.309
11	Not to share the same room with their young children	410	84.4	76	15.6	3.097
12	To be away from home for many hours because of their work	388	79.8	98	20.2	3.099
13	I send my children to good schools	467	96.1	19	3.9	3.492
14	I invest a greater part of my resources to train and provide learning materials for my children	476	98.0	10	2.0	3.545
15	My children enjoy a better standard of living because my education has enhanced my Income	458	94.2	28	5.8	3.374
16	I engage my children in some useful and productive educational skills when on vocation	452	93.0	34	7.0	3.212
17	I create a conducive environment to discuss educational issues with my children	466	95.9	20	4.1	3.317
Aggregate mean score of the Table						3.149

Among the modern child-upbringing practices was the employment of housemaids to take care of children and the various homes of employed mothers. On this, 90.5% of the sample agreed with this practice. Most employed mothers (92.8 %) agreed they had fewer numbers of children. There was a consensus option in that 80.7% consented that employed mothers had also added the role of the family breadwinners to their responsibilities.

There was also an unanimous agreement among the respondents that employed mothers practiced breastfeeding, however, 88.9% of the respondents (strongly agreed and agreed) respectively that employed mothers practiced both breastfeeding and bottle feeding at the same time. And 77.0% (17.5% and 59.5% of the respondents strongly agreed and agreed) that employed mothers weaned their children before the age of one year. Scheduling children's feeding pattern was another upbringing practice adopted by employed mothers. Most (89.7%) of the respondents agreed that employed mothers scheduled the children's feeding pattern. Also included in the modern child upbringing practices was the training of the child on how to use the potty and the toilet, which accounted for 93% of the respondents who assented to this practice.

From the responses to item 8 in Table 4.13, it could be seen that 67.9% of the respondents agreed that employed mothers did not really want to use the cane as a form of punishing children, while 69.6% of the respondents disagreed with the opinion that employed mothers did not teach children to respect elders and societal values. Only 30.1% respondents consented that employed mothers did not teach children to respect elders and societal values.

The enrolment of children in school at very low ages was another added role to the child upbringing practices by employed mothers. Most of the respondents (91.8%) agreed that employed mothers enrolled their children in schools at ages below 3 years. While 84.4% of the respondents agreed that employed mothers did not want to share their beds with their infant babies. Most (79.8%) of the respondents opted for the expressed opinion that employed mothers were usually away from home for many hours because of their work.

In addition 96.1% respondents agreed that employed mothers sent their children to good schools. Also of the respondents (98%) agreed that employed mothers invested a greater part of their resources to train and to provide learning materials for their children. Table 4.13 showed that 94.2% respondents agreed that employed mothers' children enjoyed a better standard of living because their education had enhanced their income. While 93% of the respondents agreed that the employed mothers engaged their children in some useful and productive educational skills when on vocation. However 95.9% of the sample showed that the employed mothers created a conducive environment to discuss educational issues with their children. The main observations were that the modern child-upbringing practices adopted by employed mothers have some additional responsibilities to the traditional child-upbringing practices. The aggregate mean score for the Table was 3.149 and showed that most of the respondents were in consonance with the modern roles of the employed mothers in child-upbringing practices in the area covered by the study.

These observations were in line with Perimuta and Hall (1985), as was reported that the role of the woman has been changing from that of the traditional home maker to that of the family breadwinner since the era of the first and the second World Wars. Reflecting the same observation, Hoffman (1998) reported that women had increased in their participation in the labour force.

4.6 ANALYSIS OF MOTHER AND CHILD RELATIONSHIP

Table 4.14 showed the opinions of the respondents on mother to child or vice-versa relationship.

Table 4.14: Responses scores of the respondents on mother-child relationship

Relationship	Agree		Disagree		Mean
	Freq	%	Freq	%	
1 My children are my close friends	450	92.6	36	7.4	3.368
2 I try to satisfy my children's needs	472	97.1	14	2.9	3.385
3 I spend much time with my children during working hours	72	14.8	414	85.2	1.961
4 I am never harsh with my children	233	47.9	253	52.1	2.496
5 I correct my children when they make Mistakes	471	97.0	15	3.0	3.564
6 I watch television programmes and play indoor games with my children	434	89.3	52	10.7	3.111
7 I take my children out for a walk or Recreation	391	80.5	95	19.5	2.918
8 I eat with my children	429	88.3	57	11.7	3.132
Aggregate mean score of the table					2.992

In all, 92.6% of the respondents agreed that their children were their close friends. While 97.1% opted for the expressed opinion that they always

tried to satisfy their children's needs. However, 85.2% of the sample disagreed that they had enough time with their children during working hours, while only 14.8% of the mothers agreed with the fact that they spent much of their working time with their children. From the responses to item 4 in the Table, it showed that only 47.9% of the respondents agreed that they were never harsh with children. This percentage was made up of those who strongly agreed and those who agreed with the opinion. Thus the majority 52.1% respondents did not agree that they were never harsh with their children. However, there was an unanimous consensus (97%) of the sample agreed that children were corrected when they made mistakes. Only 3% of the respondents disagreed with this opinion. Most, of the respondents (89.3%) strongly agreed that they watched television programmes and played indoor games with their children, while only 10.7% of the employed mothers disagreed with this expressed opinion on the Table. Also 80.5% of the respondents agreed that they took children out for walk and recreation, while the respondents who disagreed had relatively low scores as indicated on the Table. And 88.3% of the respondents agreed that they ate together with their children. The general observation of the responses on this Table was that in spite of the long number of hours spent by employed mothers in their various workplaces, there was still the possibility that they actually valued and respected their children's companionship. This could be seen from their responses to the various opinions on their relationship with children as indicated on Table 4.14 It could be deduced from Table 4.14 that most respondents were of the opinion that the relationship between employed mothers and their children was very strong.

These observations from Table 4.14 were in line with the observation of Coleman (1984), which pointed out that there was a very positive relationship between parental affection and the development of the child. In a related report, Coleman in Kinney et al (2004), stated that spending time with children, providing support, guidance and supervision stimulated the development of the child.

4.7 Test of hypotheses

Five null hypotheses were stated in this study in order to test the accuracy of the observations from the data collected and analysed for the purpose of providing answers to the research questions raised in this study. The hypotheses were as follows:

Hypothesis I There is no significant difference between the traditional and modern practices of child' upbringing in Plateau State.

This hypothesis was tested using the scores for Tables 4.12 and 4.13. The test for the differences between the traditional and modern child-upbringing employed by employed mothers in the State was tested with the paired t-test.

Table 4.15: Paired t-test between modern and traditional upbringing practices by Plateau State employed mothers.

Variables	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error	Degree of Freedom	t-value	P-value
Traditional	3.2043	0.4430	0.020	483	7.78	0.000
Modern	3.0412	0.3780	0.017			

(Critical value of t is 1.96 at 0.05 level of significance)

There is a significant difference between the traditional child upbringing practices and the modern child upbringing practices adopted by employed mothers in Plateau State as indicated by the result from Table 4.15. The observed t-value was greater than the critical value of 1.96 and the observed significant level was lower than 0.05 level of significance ($P < 0.05$). The null hypothesis was thus rejected. As observed in the discussion of Table 4.12 and 4.13, modern child- upbringing practices were not exactly the same with the traditional methods. While the employed mothers had added some additional practices, they also abandoned some traditional practices as a direct result of their duty schedule. This finding was in line with Perimuta and Hall (1985), as these changes were attributed to the evolutionary roles of women resulting from the industrial revolution and the advent of the first and second world wars. Lippe (1999) also had similar finding and reported that working mothers were less traditional in their child - upbringing practices. It was also observed that working mothers tended to engage their children in more active competent training through an authoritative child-upbringing practices. The report, also revealed that working mothers were more verbal in their interaction with children than non-working mothers.

Hypothesis II There is no significant effect of maternal employment on maternal - child relationship in Plateau State.

This hypothesis explored the effects of employment of mothers on their relationship with children. The employment status of the mothers was measured by the number of hours spent by the employed mothers at work. The Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC) procedure was used to test the hypothesis. The use of the Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC)

was necessitated by the need to determine the effect of mothers employment on their relationship with their children. Table 4.16 showed the result of the test.

Table 4.16: Correlation between mothers' employment and its effect on their relationship with their children in Plateau State

Variables	Mean	Standard Deviation	Degree of Freedom	r	P-value
Employment	2.5640	0.9358	482	-0.0135	0.7650
Effects	2.9853	0.3646			

The result of the test on relationship in Table 4.16 showed that the relationship between mothers' employment as negative effects on their relationship with their children was not statistically significant ($P > 0.05$). The null hypothesis could not be rejected. This means that in spite of their employment, the mothers still tried to uphold their relationship with their children. This finding was in consonance with the findings of Hurlock (1978), as it was observed that if mothers established a good relationship with children, the mothers employment may not really change such relationship. In a similar report, Joshi and Verropoulou (2000), argued that the effect of such a relationship was rather on the positive side, and that maternal employment served in enhancing the prospect of their children.

Hypothesis III: There is no significant difference between the child-upbringing practices of mothers with high and low levels of education in Plateau State.

In this hypothesis, the effects of educational qualification on the type of child-upbringing practices by employed mothers in the State were tested. The two-tailed t-test procedure was used in the test. The use of the two tailed t-test was

informed by the dichotomous categories (high and low levels of education) of the independent variable

Table 4.17: Two-tailed t-test between high and low levels of educated employed mothers in their child upbringing practices in Plateau State

Educational Status	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error	Degree of Freedom	t-value	P-value
High	2.8029	0.413	0.040	483	1.34	0.183
Low	2.8633	0.389	0.020			

Critical value of t = 1.96 at 0.05 level of significance

The result on Table 4.17 showed that child-upbringing practices adopted by highly educated employed mothers were not significantly different from those adopted by the lowly educated employed mothers in Plateau State. The observed t-value (1.34) between the two groups was lower than the critical value, which was 1.96 at 0.05 significant level ($P > 0.05$). The null hypothesis was thus accepted since both high and low levels of educated employed mothers practically adopted the same child upbringing practices in the State.

Hypothesis IV: modern-upbringing practices do not significantly affect the moral behaviour of the children in Plateau State.

This hypothesis tested the effect of modern child-upbringing practices on the moral behaviour of children. The Pearson Product Moment Correlation was used for the test because of the need to establish the relationship between the two variables.

Table 4.18: Correlation between modern child-upbringing practices, its effects on children’s moral behaviour in Plateau State

Variables	Mean	Standard Deviation	Degree of Freedom	r	P-value
Employment	2.5640	0.9358	482	0.0439	0.335
Children’s morals	3.0777	0.7135			

The test on Table 4.18 did not show significant relationship between modern child-upbringing practices and children’s moral behaviours. The observed correlation coefficient for the two variables was 0.0439 and the observed P-value (0.335) was greater than 0.05. This means that the null hypothesis could not be rejected, it was therefore retained. In other words, modern child-upbringing practices as a result of maternal employment was not a determinant of children’s moral behaviours. This result was contrary to the finding of Richman and Lansdown (1988), who reported that children of such working mothers suffered from psychiatric problems, indulged in drug abuse and suffered from severe eating disorder. The observation of the result in Table 4.18 is that modern child-upbringing practices adopted by employed mothers do not in any way contribute to children’s moral behaviours.

Hypothesis V: There is no significant effect of mothers’ employment on child-upbringing practices in Plateau State.

This hypothesis tested the overall effects of maternal employment on the child-upbringing practices of employed mothers in Plateau State. The PPMC was used in the test of this hypothesis. Table 4.19 showed the result of the relationship between the two variables.

Table 4.19: Correlation between mothers' employment and its effects on their children upbringing practices in Plateau State

Variables	Mean	Standard Deviation	Degree of Freedom	r	P-value
Employment	2.5640	0.9358	482	0.0919	0.043
Children's rearing	2.8492	0.3942			

The result of the test in Table 4.19 showed that maternal employment had significant relationship in their child upbringing practices in Plateau State ($P < 0.05$). The observed correlation coefficient for the relationship between the two variables was 0.0919 and the observed significant level was 0.043 ($P < 0.05$). The null hypothesis was thus rejected. The implication of this finding was that maternal employment did not allow employed mothers to practice the traditional methods of child upbringing. This could be attributed to many factors related to the employment status of the mothers such as the work schedule, the time spent at work, the need to substitute other persons for the role of the parent when the actual parents were away to work and a lot of other factors some of which were outside the scope of this study.

This finding was a reflection of the observations of Papalra and Olds (1979) and Perimuta and Hall (1985), where this development was attributed to the changing roles of women from that of the family home managers to that of the breadwinners. These changes were however, ascribed to have negative effects on children. Ogunbiyi (1999) also observed that the duration of hours employed mothers spent at work could affect the type of care and protection they gave to their children.

4.8 DISCUSSIONS

The study was specially designed to investigate on the issue of maternal employment as related to child-upbringing practices. To achieve the purpose of the study, five hypotheses were stated and tested. The summary statistics of frequencies and percentages were used in the presentation of the results of the finding.

Among the main objectives of this study was the identification of the traditional and modern child-upbringing practices of employed mothers in Plateau State. In the analysis of data presented on Tables 4.12 and 4.13, it was observed that traditionally, mothers took care of children and maintained their homes. They also breastfed babies, assisted husbands in their daily activities, trained the young ones and spent a lot of time with children as their traditional and primary responsibilities. This result was a confirmation of Perimuter and Hall (1985) study which claimed that women in the past had been homemakers, mothers in-charge of the operations of their homes and helpmates of their male breadwinners.

However, these responsibilities have added another dimension with the advent of modernism ushered in by the industrial revolution and the advent of the first and second World wars. These added responsibilities transcend all nooks and crannies of the world and in Plateau State inclusive. These modern roles did not allow employed mothers to limit their roles to the traditional child-upbringing practices. Rather modern practices like playing the role of breadwinner of the family as well as being responsible for the formal education of children in the home were added responsibilities observed. Thus, modern child-upbringing practices included bottle feeding, early weaning of the child,

and early enrollment of the child into school. This was in agreement with the work of Uka (1973) and Mwanri and Worsley (1999) that due to changes in life styles with mothers taking up paid employment, bottle feeding was a common practice among employed mothers. The result in table 4.13 also showed that the modern method of child-upbringing required the employment of substitutes like housemaids, nannies or relatives to cater for the children when the mother is away to work. Interestingly the modern method tended to avoid corporal punishment on the child. However, this method tended to offer better opportunities and better living standard to children because of the economic power of the mothers that have been enhanced by their employment. This supported the opinion of Joshi and Verropoulou (2000) that a mother's earning power changed the family well being.

In response to research question one which states: What are the child-upbringing practices that are typical of employed mothers in Plateau State? From the discussion on Tables 4.12 to 4.13, it was observed that all items were highly rated, based on the respondents scores. Among some of the highly ranked and common upbringing practices adopted by the employed mothers in Plateau State included breast/bottle feeding, early weaning of children from breast milk, toilet training of children and training children to respect elders and values of the society. Additionally, employed mothers valued quality education for children, and had taken up responsibilities as family breadwinners.

In the test of hypothesis one Table 4.15, it was observed that, there was significant difference between the traditional and modern child-upbringing practices. This observation pointed out that, although employed mothers had

limited time to spend with their children, they had added roles to perform which differed from the traditional roles. The study therefore concluded that maternal employment had brought about changes in the traditional child-upbringing practices in Plateau State.

The second objective of the study was to assess the extent to which maternal employment had affected maternal child relationship in the state. The research question related to this objective was: How does maternal employment outside the home affect maternal-child relationship? In the test of hypothesis two, the effect of maternal employment on maternal- child relationship was tested. The result did not show any significant effect of maternal employment on maternal-child relationship. This was also observed from the responses of respondents to most items on Table 4.14, to imply that, maternal employment had no significant impact on mother-child relationship. But it was expressed in the time the mother was away from the child and the need to replace mother with relatives or employed persons. No matter the type of replacement, it really had no impact on maternal –child relationship. This might be explained on the basis that most mothers within the period of the study had only 1-2 children, as shown on Table 4.6 and most mothers also indicated staying together with their children and husbands. Therefore it might have been easier for mothers to make arrangements to keep watch over children even during working hours. This assertion was in agreement with NPC (2001)'s finding that 41% of employed mothers looked after their children while at work.

An alternative explanation might be that, children are more than the object of their parents attention and love, of great importance they are a

biological necessity that is intrinsically bonded. This was in agreement with Papalia and Olds (1979) that the biological bond between a mother and child was very strong in nature which tended to exist even when the mother did not seem to show any affection to the child.

The third objective of the study was to examine the role, level of education played on the adopted child-upbringing practices by employed mothers in the State. In the test of hypothesis three the differences between highly educated employed mothers was tested against that of the lowly educated employed mothers. From the test of the hypothesis, no significant difference was observed in the adopted child-upbringing practices. The point here was that working mothers tended to use the same approach in their child-upbringing practices irrespective of their educational levels. Maternal level of education did not make a difference in the child-upbringing practices adopted by employed mothers, in Plateau State served as the answer to research question three which states: "How does maternal level of education influence child-upbringing practice in Plateau state?"

The fourth objective of the study was related to the fourth research question, the study aimed to provide an answer. The objective was to evaluate the effect of modern child-upbringing practices on the moral development of children in Plateau State. In the test of hypothesis four, the test of modern child-upbringing practices was tested with the aid of correlation statistical procedure. Although there were effects, but were not statistically significant to deduce a relationship between modern upbringing practices and the moral behaviours of children of employed mothers in the State. In essence the work of a mother outside the home has no impact on the behavioural

disposition of the child. This meant that the behavioural outcomes of the child as manifested in the home, were not necessarily due to maternal absence as a result of employment. This position could be explained on basis that employed mothers left their children under the care of paid housemaids while at work as indicated in item one of Table 4.13. Also observed in this Table was engagement of children of employed mothers in some useful and productive activities, which might have reduced children's idleness. This perhaps might have been responsible for developing and maintaining good behaviours in children within the period of the study. Alternatively some other variables or factors outside the scope of this study such as peer group interaction, indecent television films and video materials could be responsible for the moral behaviours of children. This position was a confirmation of Kisekka (1981) and Omooba (2002); findings, that children's moral behaviours could be influenced by peer groups within the environment or society.

The last objective of the study was the determination of the effects of maternal employment on child-upbringing practices in the State. From the discussions of Table 4.11 and the test of hypothesis five in Table 4.19, it could be said that maternal employment had introduced some changes to the traditional child-upbringing practices in the State. While some of these changes were negative effects, others were positive. As observed in Tables 4.11 and 4.13 some of the negative effects of maternal employment on child-upbringing practices were cited such as inadequate monitoring and supervision of children, inadequate care as a result of being away for many hours, the practice of artificial formula and scheduling of feeding patterns by employed mothers, as well as early weaning of children from breast milk.

However positive effects were also observed in these tables. These included, the provision of children's needs in terms of food, clothing and shelter, sending children to good schools and providing them with learning materials as a result of economic status enhanced by employment. Rather than corporal punishment employed mothers adopted love oriented form of discipline, and also played the role of breadwinning in the family. The formal role of the mother as home-maker was gradually changing owing to several factors, changes in family structure, the nature of women's work and the women's positions as breadwinners. All these changes were as a result of modernization and urbanization. This development had some attendant effect on the role played by mothers in relation to their responsibilities towards children.

Employed mothers now take up some roles that were traditionally the exclusive reserved for husbands. Thus, mothers now cater for children in schools and as well choose the type of schools children can attend because of their empowered economic status. This result was in consonance with the opinions of Hoffman in Papalia and Olds, (1979), and Mallum, (1988), that maternal employment status presented both positive and negative effects on child-upbringing practices which all depended on individual factors.

In addition, the use of substitute persons for mothers was a common practice among employed mothers in Plateau State. Therefore, employed mothers now engage the services of house-helps to take up their roles of catering for children. In some cases relatives of wives or husbands performed these roles while the mother was away on duty. In this study, 94.2% of the respondents consented that grand parents performed the roles of maternal

substitute, while 67.3% of the respondents claimed that older children played such roles for them, when they were away on duty. Some (32.2%) of the respondents made use of friends as maternal substitutes, yet others (67.9%) indicated the use of employed housemaids to perform the traditional duties of caring and training the child. In some cases Daycare centers were used, as it was also observed that 66.2% of the respondents reported using this option, while 75.5% of the respondents showed that husbands offered to help in some cases. In 93.6% cases, it was the employed mothers that made the alternative arrangement for another person to take over the roles of child-upbringing. This, then, meant that modern child-upbringing practices did not only involve employed mothers, but all other persons who played the role of the mother while the biological one was away on duty. This result was consistent with the reports of NPC (2001) and Kinney et al (2004), who observed that relatives, neighbours, friends and paid nannies, filled in the gap for biological mothers during work hours.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

In this chapter, the summary, conclusion and recommendations are presented based on the results obtained from the study.

5.1 SUMMARY

The study was conducted to investigate the relationship between maternal employment and child-upbringing practices. Five objectives were stated thus: to

Identify the traditional and modern child-upbringing practices of mothers in Plateau State

Assess the extent to which maternal employment has affected maternal-child relationship.

Examine the influence of maternal education on child-upbringing practices.

Evaluate the effects of modern child-upbringing practices on moral behaviour of children.

Determine the effect of maternal employment on child-upbringing practices.

In this study five research questions were raised and answers provided, while five null hypotheses were postulated and tested. The study was carried out in six LGAS of Plateau State using a survey method. A total of five hundred (500) respondents was drawn from a population of six thousand one hundred and fifty eight (6158) employed mothers and were used for the study. This was done by completing 20% of the population of each selected LGA. Four hundred and eighty six (486) respondents completed and returned a 66 items researcher -designed questionnaire which was used to collect the data for the

study. Data collected were analysed using the summary statistics of frequencies and percentages. In testing the hypotheses, hypothesis 1, was tested using the paired t-test and a two tailed t-test was applied in the test of hypothesis III while hypotheses II, IV and V were tested using Pearson Product Moment Correlation co-efficient, all at 0.05 level of significance.

The result in the test of hypothesis one revealed that, there was significant difference between the traditional and modern child-upbringing practices, therefore the null hypothesis was rejected. The result of hypothesis two however, did not show significant relationship between maternal employment and maternal – child relationship. The null hypothesis was therefore retained. Results of hypotheses three and four also revealed that, there were no significant relationships or effect established in the test of maternal employment on the highly and lowly educated employed mothers, and modern child-upbringing practices on moral behaviour of children. The two null hypotheses were also retained. The fifth hypothesis however tested the relationship between maternal employment and child-upbringing practices, and the null hypothesis was rejected on the bases that, the result revealed significant effects of maternal employment on child-upbringing practices.

5.2 CONCLUSION

Based on the results from this study, the following conclusions were drawn:

Since material employment appears to contribute positively to child-upbringing practices, efforts should be made to make provision for as many mothers as possible to become involved in paid employment.

The positive sides of modern and traditional child-upbringing practices should be merged and embraced for the convenience of employed mothers and their children and for the social, psychological, economical and physical development of the family members.

Maternal employment is a source of economic empowerment to mothers, which enhances their families' standards of living.

Employed mothers are waving out most of the traditional child-upbringing practices for modern methods.

Maternal employment does not hamper maternal-child relationship.

Modern child-upbringing practices are not dominant determinants of the moral behaviours of children, rather external factors outside the scope of this study may be responsible.

Maternal employment in Plateau State culture presented both positive and negative effects on child-upbringing practices,

The use of mother substitutes by employed mothers cannot be avoided or eliminated.

Employed mothers should train their hired house helps or paid nannies on child-upbringing practices, before they are fully engaged to look after children.

5.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

The following recommendations are proffered based on the major findings of this study.

1. The three tiers of government should:
 - a. Redesign their welfare programs, to strengthen employment opportunities for mothers which will be equal with those of their male counter parts

- b. Improve the conditions of service for employed mothers as incentives for personal satisfaction and self-fulfillment.
 - c. Encourage husbands to participate in child-upbringing, by giving them allowance on children -upkeep.
 - d. Encourage wives to be educated to widen their knowledge on child-upbringing practices through the provision of; scholarships, in-service awards, on the job, educational facilities for higher relevant higher education.
 - e. Enact laws to guide the transfer of employed mothers, not to separate them from their children and husbands.
2. Mothers should get into professions that favour child-upbringing practices, for example the teaching profession.
 3. The Parent Teachers Association at all levels at their meetings should educate, enlighten, and empower, parents on the need to explore positive practices in bringing up of their children.
 4. Home Economics Teachers Association, from the National level down to local levels should organize workshops, seminars or talks, to educate employed mothers that are not Home Economists, on the importance of child-upbringing practices in moulding children to be good citizens.
 5. Religious Women Organisations as well as other Non Governmental Organisations are also forums where rural mothers can be counselled on the need for sound upbringing for their children through talks and dramas.

5.4 IMPLICATIONS FOR EMPLOYED HOME ECONOMICS MOTHERS

From the findings of this study, it was observed that mothers involvement in paid employment outside the home had positive influence on child-upbringing practices, by enhancing the families' income for the support of children's needs. The study also identified some traditional and modern upbringing practices. Also revealed by the result of the study was the differences that existed between these practices which however had both positive and negative bearings on the development of children.

The result of this study will therefore serve as an encouragement to non-employed mothers to get involved in paid employment, to enhance them economically in bringing up children. The information from this work will also widen the knowledge of mothers on child-upbringing practices, by providing them with a clearer understanding of these practices, (the modern and traditional methods) to be integrated and used positively to raise children. Based on these findings mothers are guided on the negative effects of upbringing practices on the development of children, thereby identifying and discouraging such practices.

The Home Economics curriculum developers will also use the results of this finding, as a guide when reviewing the curriculum with regards to the area of childcare development, child-upbringing practices, education should be incorporated into the school curriculum at all levels. Also based on this result curriculum developers in Home Economics should carefully design training programs and methods on upbringing practices to be integrated into the existing Home Economics curriculum. Home economics teachers will also be

guided by the findings of this work in their efforts to teach and inculcate into children skills, values and norms expected by children on moral behaviours.

Finally all employers will be informed by the results of this study on employed mothers and their child-upbringing responsibilities, which will form a basis for promoting a good employer and employee relationship. Employed mothers, thus will stand a better chance of receiving fair treatments in their work places. This could be achieved when employed mothers are not transferred indiscriminately and are not made subordinates to their male folk.

5.5 LIMITATION

A major limitation of this study was that some of the respondents, though educated could read fluently to their understanding. Therefore in some cases the researcher had to read out some of the questionnaire items which became tasking

5.6 SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

The following areas are recommended for further research work.

1. Child-upbringing practices and strategies for developing appropriate programming for children.
2. Comparative study on child-upbringing practices among the employed and non employed mothers.
3. Relationship between maternal employment and child-upbringing practices in other parts of the country.
4. Maternal socio-economic class and child-upbringing practices.

REFERENCES

- Akuezuilo O.E. and Agu N. (2003) Research and Statistics: In Education and Social Sciences, Nuel Centi Publishers and Academic Press Ltd, Awka-Nigeria, pp. 87, 103, 108.
- Ames B.L. (1970). Child Care And Development. J.B. Lippincott Company, New York, pp. 1, 123, 175, 223.
- Anastasi A. (1980) Content of Psychological Testing. McMillan Publishing Co., New York, p 78.
- Anyakoha, E. and Eluwa M. (1991). Home Management for Schools and Colleges. Africana – FEP Publishers Ltd., Onitsha – Nigeria, p 90.
- Beaver M., Brewster J., Jones P. et al (1999). Babies and Young Children. Stanley Thornes Publishing Ltd, United Kingdom, pp. 28, 167.
- Bello S. (1990). The Nigerian Child: The Concept and Treatment of the Child in Nigerian Culture. The Federal Ministry of Health and Human service and UNICF, Lagos – Nigeria, pp. 71 –73.
- Blair, M. G., Jones, S. R. and Simpson, H. R. (1975). Educational Psychology. Macmillan Publishing Co. Inc., New York, pp 304 – 306, 411.
- Bronfenbrenner U. (1971). Two Worlds of Childhood. Russel Stage Foundation, Great Britain, pp. 7 – 10, 97.
- Cheston S. (2004). Economics Perspective. Personal impact and Family Benefit, 9(1): 24.
- Chodorow, N. (1978), The Reproduction of Mothering: Psychoanalysis and the Sociology of Gender. University of California Press, London, pp. 3 and 45.
- Christian Women Mirror (2004). A mother not just a Woman. A publication of Deeper life Church, Lagos – Nigeria, p.2.
- Coleman C. J. (1984). Intimate Relations, Marriage and Family, Bobbs – Merrill Company, U.S.A, pp. 13 – 14, 346 – 347, 405- 407, 411, 431 – 436, 445.
- Durojaiye (1977). A New Introduction to Education Psychology. Evans Brothers Ltd., Ibadan – Nigeria, pp 21, 28.
- Ellioth, K. and Cutting W. (1988). Dialogue on Diarrhoea: Control of Diarrhoea diseases. Appropriate Health resources and Technology Action Group Ltd, United Kingdom, pp. 1 –2.
- Ennew J., and Milne B. (1989). The Next Generation. New Society Publishers, U.S.A., pp. 8, 45.

- Ezewu, E. (1984). Sociology of Education. Longman Nigeria Ltd., Lagos – Nigeria, p 41.
- Friesen H., Vince J., Boas P. et al. (1999). On Public Health. Protection of Breastfeeding in Papua New Guinea, 77(3): 271 – 272.
- Froozani D.M., Permezhadeh K., Golestan B. et al (1999). On Public Health. Effect of Breastfeeding Education on Feeding Pattern and Health of Infants in their first 4 months, 77(5): 381.
- Gardner H. (1978). Developmental Psychology. Little Brown Company, Boston Toronto, pp. 298 –299.
- Ginoh G.H. (1976). Between parent and Child, New Solutions to old Problems. McGraw Hill Book Company, London, pp. 76, 115 – 6, 153.
- Glosson L. R. Meek J. P., Smock L.G. (1997) Creative Living. Glencoe McGraw-Hill, New York , pp. 210, 217 – 222, 365-366.
- Grange N. (1990). The Nigerian Child: Infant Feeding in Nigeria. the Federal Ministry of Health and Human Service and UNICEF, Lagos-Nigeria , pp 111-112.
- Hake M. J. (1972). Child-Rearing Practices In Northern Nigeria. Ibadan University Press, Ibadan-Nigeria pp. 9, 40.
- Heins M. (2004). Maternal Employment. <http://www.parentskidsright.com/pt-maternal Employment.html>.
- Hoeflin R. (1970). Careers in Home Economics. The Macmillan Company, London. p. 134.
- Hofferth L.S. (1999) Women's Employment and Care of Children in the United States. Institute for Social Research University of Michigan Ann Arbor, MI48106-1248, <http://ceel.psc.isr.umich/pubs/papers/ceel003-99.pdf>.
- Hoffman W. L. (1998). The Effects of the Mothers Employment on the Family and the Child. University of Michigan-Ann Arbor, parenthood. Library. WISC.edu/Hoffman/Hoffman.html.
- Home Programmes and Services (2002). The Effect of Changes in Maternal Employment and Family Composition on Children's Behaviour. www.hrsdc.gc.ca/en/cs/sp/hrsdca/arb/publications/research/20002-002373/page 06.shtml
- Hurlock, B. E. (1978). Child Development. McGraw – Hil Kogakusha Ltd, Tokyo, pp. 395, 504.

- International Federation for Home Economics (IFHE), (2000). A New Century: Focus on the future, p 14. proceedings of a Conference held at Ghana University Accra, Ghana, July, 2000
- Johnson C.R. and Medinnus R.G. (1974). Child Psychology: Behaviour and Development. John Wiley and sons, New York, pp. 21, 130-131, 276 – 7, 280 – 1.
- Joshi H. and Verropoulou G. (2000). Maternal Employment and Child Outcomes. The Smith Institute ISBN I 90248809I, www.org.UK/research/files/team_40/project10/literautre/%20review.doc.
- Kaye B. (1962). Bringing up children in Ghana. Tinling and Co Ltd., London, pp. 69, 86 – 90, 139 – 142.
- Kerlinger, N.F. (1973). Foundations of Behavioural Research. Holt Rinehart and Winston Inc., New York, p 496.
- Kinney D. A. Dunn S.J; and Hofferth L. S. (2004). Family Strategies for Managing Time Crunch. <http://www.popcentre.umd/people/hofferthandra/papers/rivers/viewrevised2refmar04.doc>.
- Kisekka M.N. (1981). Children in Kaduna State, Nigeria: Problems and Needs. Ahmadu Bello University Printing Press Zaria – Nigeria, pp 169 – 170.
- Kolo. J. (2001). Counselling and Human Development. The Nigerian Child and Parental Challenges 1(1) 211- 212.
- Krejcie, R.V. and Morgan D. W. (1970). Determining Sample Size for Research Activities. Educational and Psychological Measurement, 30: 607 – 610.
- Lerner J. (2004). Maternal employment and Child Outcomes, Boston College, <http://www.be.edu/borg/arp/wfnetwork/rft/wfpedia/wfpMECOent.html>.
- LeVine A. R., Dixon S. LeVine S. Richman A, Herbert P. Keefer H.C. and Brazelton B. T. (1996). Child-Care and Culture. Cambridge University Press, U.S.A., pp. 1-3, 23, 57.
- Lippe A. L. V.D. (1999). Behavioural Development. The Impact of Maternal Schooling and Occupation on Child-rearing Attitudes and Behaviour in Low income Neighbourhood, 23(3): 703 – 729.
- Local Government Secretariats, (2004). Staff Pay Rolls: Statistics units LGAs Secretariats, Plateau – Nigeria.
- Lovell, K. (1976). Educational Psychology and Children. Hodder and Stoughton, London, pp 215

- Lyle D. (2004). Political Economics. The Effects of Female Labour Supply on the Wage Structure at Mid Century, 3(112): 499.
- Mallum, J. O. (1988). Child rearing Patterns of Employed and unemployed Mothers in Plateau State and Their Effects on Academic Achievement and Social Adjustment of Pupils, Unpublished Ph.D Thesis. University of Jos, - Nigeria.
- Meeme B. D. (1990). Child-Rearing Practices Among the Illiterate Non-Working Mothers in Katsina Ala Local Government Area of Benue State. Unpublished B. Ed. Project. Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria – Nigeria.
- Minett P. (2000). Child Care and Development. John Murray Publishers Ltd, London, pp.154.
- Ministry of Information (1999). Dairy. Plateau State Ministry of Information, Jos- Nigeria, pp. 14, 16.
- Moussa G. H. (2004). The Family and a Sound Upbringing. <http://www.coptichymns/mod-pagesetters/viewpub-tid-1-pid-276.html>
- Mwanri, L. and Worsley, T. (1999). Nutridate: Infant Feeding in Developing Countries, 10(3): 5 – 6.
- Newmark, V. (2003). Child Rearing. Microsoft® Encarta® Microsoft Corporation.
- NPC.(2001). Children's and Women's Rights in Nigeria: Awake up call. National Planning Commission and UNICEF Abuja – Nigeria, pp 14, 137, 177, 178.
- Odoemelam, A. M. and Okafor, H. C. (2004). Family Development. The Family and Nation Building, 1(2): 114 – 117.
- Ogunbiyi A. O. (1999). Problems Encountered by Working Mothers in Respect to Childcare in Tunga Magajiya Town. Niger State. Unpublished B.Ed. Project. Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria, Nigeria.
- Olaitan, O. S. (1981). Introduction to Teaching of home Economics. John wiley and sons Inc., New York, pp 17-19
- Olson H. D. and DeFrain J. (2000) Marriage and the Family-Diversity and Strengths. Mayfield Publishing Company, London, pp. 21, 394, 396. 405 – 409.
- Olukoshi, B. and Aminu, S. L. (1990). The Nigerian Child. The Federal Ministry of Health and Human Services and UNICEF, Lagos – Nigeria, pp. 59, 137

- Omooba, B. T. (2002). A study of the influence of Socio-Cultural and Economic variables on Child-rearing practices in Ekiti state: Implications for Citizenship Education. Unpublished Ph.D Dissertation. Ahmadu Bello university, Zaria, Nigeria.
- Papalia E. D. and Olds W.S. (1979). A child's World. McGraw-Hill Book Company, pp. 188, 197, 452-453,467,470.
- Patel I. M.M. (1996). A L-Jamiat. Upbringing of Children: Discipline of Children. An Islamic Perspective 3(4):[http://www.jamiat.org-za/al-jamat/v34 father.html](http://www.jamiat.org-za/al-jamat/v34%20father.html).
- Perimuter M. and Hall E. (1985). Adult Development. John Willey and sons Inc. New York, pp 310 – 311, 356 – 357, 392, 395.
- Perry and Perry (1980) Pairing and Parenthood. Canfield Press, New York. pp 354-355.
- Pumroy K. D. and Pumroy S. S. (1978). Modern Child-rearing. A Behavioural Approach: Nelson-Hill, Chicago, pp. 16, 29, 43 – 44, 84.
- Richman N. and Lansdown R. (1988) Problems of Preschool Children. John Wiley and Sons Ltd, New York, pp. 14 – 15, 17 – 18.
- Scrimshaw S.N. and Underwood (1979). Timely and Approach Complementary Feeding of the Breast Fed Infant- an overview. Food and Nutrition Bulletin 1 (4): 13.
- Student Companion Site Home (2004), The Impact of Day Care on Children's Welfare. John Wiley and Sons Inc., United State of American
- The Holy Bible; New International Version (1994). Genesis 1:27, Proverbs 22:6, 23: 13 – 14, 31: 10 and 27. Zondervan Publishing House U.S.A., pp. 1, 572-3.
- The World's Women Trends and Statistics, (2000), United Nations. New York, p. 109.
- Tor – Anyiin, A. S. and Baaki, I. J. (2004). Family Development. Changes and Continuity of the Family Roles in Tiv Family System. 1(2): 100 – 101.
- Troelstrup W. A. (1974). The Consumer in American Society. McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York, pp 78 – 79, 85.
- Tuckman, W. B. (1975), Measuring Educational Outcomes: Fundamental Testing. Harcourt Brace Janova Int., New York pp 252 – 260.
- Turner, S. T. and Helms, B. D. (1981). Contemporary Adulthood. Saunders College Publishing Company, U.S. A, pp. 98 – 100.

- Uka, N. (1973). Growing Up in Nigerian Culture. Institute of Education, University of Ibadan-Nigeria, pp. 43 – 4, 46-7, 50, 64.
- Uzoagulu E. A. (1998). Practical Guide to Writing Research Project in tertiary Institutions. John Jacob's Classic Publishers, Ltd, Enugu—Nigeria.. pp 67- 68 .
- Watson, L. R. and Lingren H. C. (1979). Psychology of the child and Adolescent. Macmillan Publishing Co. Inc. New York, pp. 521.
- Women, (2000), Gender Equality Development and Peace for the Twenty – first Century. United Nations Department of Pubic Information, New York.
- Zanden V. W. J. (1978). Human Development. Alfred A. Knopf Inc., New York, pp.331, 341, 348.

APPENDIX A:

Department of Voc. & Tech.
Education
Faculty of Education,
Ahmadu Bello University,
Zaria.

Dear Respondent,

I am a postgraduate student of the above named institution, conducting a study on “The relationship between Maternal Employment and Child-upbringing practices in Plateau State”.

Please assist by expressing your honest opinion in providing answers to the following questions and statements on child-upbringing practices. You are assured that all information obtained shall be kept strictly confidential. I therefore solicit for your maximum cooperation and contributions as mothers to make this study a success.

Thank you in anticipation for your cooperation.

Yours sincerely,

Cecilia N. Majak (Mrs.)

PLEASE RESPOND TO ALL QUESTIONS IN EVERY SECTION

SECTION A: BIODATA

Please tick (✓) the appropriate box

1. Age (in years):
 - a. 25 - 29 ()
 - b. 30 – 34 ()
 - c. 35 – 39 ()
 - d. 40 – 44 ()
 - e. 45 – 49 ()
 - f. 50 and above ()

2. Marital Status
 - a. Married ()
 - b. Divorced/Separation ()
 - c. Widow ()

3. Highest educational qualification

- a. Primary Education ()
 - b. Adult Education ()
 - c. Secondary/Grade II Education ()
 - d. NCE/OND ()
 - e. HND ()
 - f. Nursing ()
 - g. University Education ()
4. Occupation
- a. Medical doctor ()
 - b. Accountant ()
 - c. Teacher ()
 - d. Nurse ()
 - e. Clerk ()
 - f. Typist ()
 - g. Others (Please specify in the space provided).....
5. Employment Status
- a. Full Time normal working hours ()
 - b. Full time shift working hours ()
 - c. Part time normal working hours ()
 - d. Part time Shift working hours ()
 - e. Contract ()
6. Your income per month
- a. Below N10,000.00 ()
 - b. N10,000.00 – N19,000.00 ()
 - c. N20,000.00 – N29,000.00 ()
 - d. N30,000.00 – N39,000.00 ()
 - e. N40,000.00 – N49,000.00 ()
 - f. N50,000.00 and above ()
7. Number of children between 0-18 years.
- a. 1 – 2 ()
 - b. 3 – 4 ()
 - c. 5 – 6 ()
 - d. above 7 ()
8. When did you start work outside your home?
- a. Before the first child ()
 - b. After the first child ()
9. Where do you work?
- a. Within your LGA of residence ()
 - b. Outside your LGA of residence ()
10. With whom do your children stay?
- a. Your husband alone ()
 - b. With you alone ()
 - c. With you and your husband ()

- d. Stay on their own ()
- e. Stay with relations ()
- f. House helps/nannies ()
11. Indicate number of hours spent at work per day
- a. 6 hours ()
- b. 7 hours ()
- c. 8 hours ()
- d. 12 hours ()
- e. above 12 hours ()
12. How frequent do you visit your children (if you do not live together with them)?
- a. Weekly ()
- b. Fortnightly ()
- c. Quarterly ()
- d. Twice a year ()
- e. Once a year ()
13. How many children are in schools?
- a. 1 – 3 ()
- b. 4 – 6 ()
- c. 7 – 9 ()
- d. above 9 ()

FROM SECTIONS B-G PLEASE INDICATE WITH A TICK THE STATEMENT WHICH BEST CORRESPONDS WITH YOUR FEELINGS

S/No	SECTION B: FACTORS THAT INFLUENCE MOTHERS TO WORK OUTSIDE THE HOME	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Agree
1.	FINANCE				
1	I want to earn money to support my family.				
2	I want to earn to empower myself.				
	SELF ESTEEM/ACTUALIZATION				
1	I work to gain respect from my husband and my children.				
2	Work gives me personal satisfaction.				
3	I work to feel useful and fulfilled.				
4	I work to meet with people outside the home.				
5	I work to make friends.				
6	I work to interact with colleagues.				
	SECTION C: EFFECT OF MATERNAL EMPLOYMENT ON CHILD-UPBRING PRACTICES.				
1	Children are not likely to get adequate monitoring and supervision				
2	Children are likely to be indisciplined.				

3	Children may be deprived of maternal love, attention and care.				
4	I am likely to spend little time with my children.				
5	My children are likely to be confused about their gender roles in the family.				
6	I meet the needs of my children and solve their problem.				
7	My absence from the home has helped my children to be self reliant.				
8	I love to be at work more than to be home with my children.				
	SOCIAL VICES THAT ARE LIKELY TO BE EFFECTS OF MATERNAL ABSENCE FROM THE HOME				
9	Drunkenness.				
10	Drug abuse.				
11	Sexual immorality/teenage pregnancy.				
12	Occultism.				
13	Disrespect for elders and laws of the society.				
14	Juvenile delinquencies.				
15	Fighting/stealing.				
16	Truancy/School drop out.				
	SECTION D: TRADITIONAL UPBRINGING PRACTICES TRADITIONAL MOTHERS:				
1	Take care of their children and maintain their homes				
2	Help their husbands in breadwinning.				
3	Breastfeed their children without any restriction.				
4	Wean their children at the ages of 2 to 3 years when they can eat adult food				
5	Use cane to discipline their children.				
6	Train their children for toileting from 4 months after birth.				
7	Sleep on the same bed with their younger children.				
8	Train their children to respect elders and the laws of the society.				
9	Train their children to participate in all household work.				
10	Spend most of their time with their children at home.				
	SECTION E: MODERN CHILD-UPBRINGING PRACTICES WORKING MOTHERS ARE LIKELY:				
1	To employ housemaids to take care of their children and their homes.				
2	To have few numbers of children.				
3	To be breadwinners in their families.				
4	To practice both breast and bottle-feeding for their children.				
5	To wean their children before the age of one year.				
6	To schedule their children's feeding pattern because of their work.				
7	To train their children on how to use the potty and their toilet.				
8	To avoid corporal punishment on their children.				
9	Not to teach their children to respect societal values.				
10	To enroll their children in school below the age of 3 years.				
11	Not to share the same room with their children.				
12	To be away from home for many hours because of their work.				
13	I send my children to good schools.				
14	I invest a greater part of my resources to train and provide learning				

	materials for my children.				
15	My children enjoy a better standard of living, my education has enhanced my salary.				
16	I engage my children in some useful and productive educational skills when on vacation.				
17	I create a conducive environment to discuss educational issues with my children.				
	SECTION F: MOTHER-CHILD-RELATIONSHIP				
1	My children are close friends.				
2	I try to satisfy my children's need.				
3	I spend much time with my children during working hours.				
4	I am never harsh with my children.				
5	I correct my children when they make mistakes.				
6	I watch television programmes and play indoor games with my children.				
7	I take my children out of a walk or for recreation.				
8	I eat with my children.				
	SECTION G: MATERNAL-SUBSTITUTES				
1	Grandparent.				
2	Elder siblings.				
3	Friends.				
4	Nannies/Housemaids.				
5	Day-care centres.				
6	Husbands.				
7	I make necessary arrangement for maternal substitute to enable me to work.				

APPENDIX B

Frequency scores of the respondents on factors influencing Mothers to work outside their homes.

Factors influencing mothers to work outside home	SA	A	D	SD	Mean
1 I want to earn money to support my family	380 (78.2)	97 (20.0)	5 (1.0)	4 (0.8)	3.755
2 I want to earn money to empower myself	81 (16.7)	260 (53.5)	105 (21.6)	40 (8.2)	2.786
3 I work to gain respect from my husband and my children	124 (25.5)	230 (47.3)	102 (21.0)	30 (6.2)	2.922
4 Work gives me personal satisfaction	208 (42.8)	240 (49.4)	23 (4.7)	15 (3.1)	3.319
5 I work to feel useful and fulfilled	199 (40.9)	253 (52.1)	22 (4.5)	12 (2.5)	3.315
6 I work to meet with people outside the home	25 (5.1)	177 (36.4)	240 (49.4)	44 (9.1)	2.377
7 I work to make friends	13 (2.7)	134 (27.6)	238 (49.0)	101 (20.8)	2.121
8 I work to interact with colleagues	26 (5.3)	236 (48.6)	171 (35.2)	53 (10.9)	2.484
Aggregate mean score of the Table					2.885

**Frequency scores of the respondents on effects of maternal
Employment on child upbringing**

Effects of maternal employment	SA	A	D	SD	Mean
1 Children are not likely to get adequate monitoring and supervision	184 (37.9)	203 (41.8)	73 (15.0)	26 (6.3)	3.121
2 Children are likely to be indisciplined	142 (29.2)	238 (49.0)	82 (16.9)	24 (4.9)	3.025
3 Children may be deprived of maternal love, attention and care	188 (38.7)	199 (40.9)	74 (15.2)	25 (5.1)	3.132
4 I am likely to spend little time with my children	125 (25.7)	264 (54.3)	77 (15.8)	20 (4.1)	3.016
5 My children are likely to be confused about their gender roles in the family	32 (6.6)	229 (47.1)	189 (38.9)	36 (7.4)	2.529
6 I meet the needs of my children and solve their problems	204 (42.0)	237 (48.8)	37 (7.6)	8 (1.6)	3.311
7 My absence from the home has helped my children to be self reliant	36 (7.4)	248 (51.0)	147 (30.2)	55 (11.3)	2.545
8 I love to be at work more than to be at home with my children	19 (3.9)	36 (7.4)	239 (49.2)	192 (39.5)	1.757
Social vices:					
9 Drunkenness	176 (36.2)	221 (45.5)	67 (13.8)	22 (4.5)	3.134
10 Drug abuse	159 (32.7)	243 (50.0)	56 (11.5)	28 (5.8)	3.097
11 Sexual immorality/Teenage pregnancy	190 (39.1)	221 (45.5)	50 (10.3)	25 (5.1)	3.185
12 Occultism	151 (31.1)	237 (48.8)	61 (12.6)	37 (7.6)	3.033
13 Disrespect for elders and laws of the society	125 (25.7)	251 (51.6)	75 (15.4)	35 (7.2)	2.959
14 Juvenile delinquencies	151 (31.1)	237 (48.8)	67 (13.8)	31 (6.4)	3.045
15 Fighting/stealing	161 (33.1)	241 (49.6)	56 (11.5)	28 (5.8)	3.101
16 Truancy/school drop out	187 (38.5)	205 (42.2)	61 (12.6)	33 (6.8)	3.123
Aggregate mean score of the Table					2.945

**Frequency scores of the respondents on traditional child
Upbringing practices**

Traditional child upbringing practices	SA	A	D	SD	Mean
Take care of their children and maintain their homes	242 (49.8)	205 (42.2)	33 (6.8)	6 (1.2)	3.405
Help their husbands in breadwinning	181 (37.2)	253 (52.1)	47 (9.7)	5 (1.0)	3.255
Breastfeed their children without any restriction	199 (40.9)	247 (50.8)	36 (7.4)	4 (0.8)	3.319
Wean their children at the age of 2 or 3 years when they can eat adult food	172 (35.4)	268 (55.1)	38 (7.8)	8 (1.6)	3.243
Use cane to discipline their children	129 (26.5)	290 (59.7)	53 (10.9)	14 (2.9)	3.099
Train their children for toileting from months after birth	67 (13.8)	275 (56.6)	120 (24.7)	24 (4.9)	2.792
Sleep on the bed with their younger children	116 (23.9)	287 (59.1)	61 (12.6)	22 (4.5)	3.023
Train their children to respect elders and the laws of the society	201 (41.4)	267 (54.9)	9 (1.9)	9 (1.9)	3.358
Train their children to participate in all household work	224 (46.1)	230 (47.3)	23 (4.7)	9 (1.9)	3.377
Spend most of their time with their children at home	196 (40.3)	207 (42.6)	64 (13.2)	19 (3.9)	3.193
Aggregate mean score of the Table					3.206

Frequency scores of the respondents on mother-child relationship

Relationship	SA	A	D	SD	Mean
My children are my close friends	226 (46.5)	224 (46.1)	25 (9.1)	11 (2.3)	3.368
I try to satisfy my children's needs	205 (42.2)	267 (54.9)	10 (3.1)	4 (0.8)	3.385
I spend much time with my children during working hours	28 (5.8)	44 (9.1)	295 (60.7)	119 (24.5)	1.961
I am never harsh with my children	36 (7.4)	197 (40.5)	225 (46.3)	28 (5.8)	2.496
I correct my children when they make mistakes	297 (61.1)	174 (35.8)	7 (1.4)	8 (1.6)	3.564
I watch television programmes and play indoor games with my children	116 (23.9)	318 (65.4)	42 (8.6)	10 (2.1)	3.111
I take my children out for a walk or recreation	67 (13.8)	324 (66.7)	83 (17.1)	12 (2.5)	2.918
I eat with my children	129 (26.5)	300 (61.7)	49 (10.1)	8 (1.6)	3.132
Aggregate mean score of the Table					2.992

Frequency scores of the respondents on traditional child upbringing practices

Traditional child upbringing practices	SA	A	D	SD	Mean
Take care of their children and maintain their homes	242 (49.8)	205 (42.2)	33 (6.8)	6 (1.2)	3.405
Help their husbands in breadwinning	181 (37.2)	253 (52.1)	47 (9.7)	5 (1.0)	3.255
Breastfeed their children without any restriction	199 (40.9)	247 (50.8)	36 (7.4)	4 (0.8)	3.319
Wean their children at the age of 2 or 3 years when they can eat adult food	172 (35.4)	268 (55.1)	38 (7.8)	8 (1.6)	3.243
Use cane to discipline their children	129 (26.5)	290 (59.7)	53 (10.9)	14 (2.9)	3.099
Train their children for toileting from months after birth	67 (13.8)	275 (56.6)	120 (24.7)	24 (4.9)	2.792
Sleep on the bed with their younger children	116 (23.9)	287 (59.1)	61 (12.6)	22 (4.5)	3.023
Train their children to respect elders and the laws of the society	201 (41.4)	267 (54.9)	9 (1.9)	9 (1.9)	3.358
Train their children to participate in all household work	224 (46.1)	230 (47.3)	23 (4.7)	9 (1.9)	3.377
Spend most of their time with their children at home	196 (40.3)	207 (42.6)	64 (13.2)	19 (3.9)	3.193
Aggregate mean score of the Table					3.206