

DIFFERENCES IN PARENTING BETWEEN FATHER AND MOTHER, PARENTING STRESS, AND RISK FACTORS OF PARENTING TOWARD SCHOOL-AGED CHILDREN IN JAKARTA COASTAL AREA

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Abstract

Parenting is a fundamental aspect that plays a crucial role in a child's development, but in practice, various factors influence the quality of parenting. Accordingly, the objective of this study was to analyze the factors that affect parenting practice and parenting stress between father and mother. This study employed a quantitative method utilizing a cross-sectional research design. There were 99 pairs of parents (99 fathers and 99 mothers) with children aged 9-12 years involved who had been selected using convenient sampling method. The respondents were guided to fill-in questionnaire using a structured instrument. The data were analyzed with different t-test and correlation test. The findings revealed that half of fathers and mothers have applied parenting practice properly and majority of them experienced very low level of parenting stress. There were no significant differences in parenting practices between father and mother. However mother tend to practice asih better, while father practice asah and asuh more higher than mother. Different result was reported for pleasure dimension in parenting stress. Correlation test discovered that higher mother education will increase parenting quality of mother. Meanwhile, working mother and mother with higher income were associated with decreasing level of stress dimension.

Keywords: coastal area, parenting, parenting stress, risk factors, school aged children

Perbedaan Pola Asuh Ayah dan Ibu, Stres Pengasuhan, dan Faktor Risiko Pola Asuh terhadap Anak Usia Sekolah di Wilayah Pesisir Jakarta

Abstrak

Pengasuhan adalah aspek fundamental yang memainkan peran penting dalam perkembangan anak, namun dalam praktiknya, berbagai faktor memengaruhi kualitas pengasuhan. Dengan demikian, tujuan dari penelitian ini adalah untuk menganalisis faktor-faktor yang memengaruhi praktik pengasuhan dan stres pengasuhan. Desain *cross-sectional* dengan pendekatan kuantitatif digunakan dalam penelitian ini. Studi ini melibatkan 99 pasang orang tua (99 ayah dan 99 ibu) dengan anak-anak berusia 9-12 tahun, dipilih menggunakan *convenient sampling*. Analisis data menggunakan uji beda T dan uji korelasi. Temuan penelitian mengungkapkan bahwa setengah dari ayah dan ibu telah menerapkan praktik pengasuhan dengan benar dan mayoritas dari mereka mengalami tingkat stres pengasuhan yang sangat rendah. Tidak ada perbedaan yang signifikan dalam praktik pengasuhan antara ayah dan ibu. Hasil yang berbeda dilaporkan untuk dimensi kesenangan pada variabel stres pengasuhan. Uji korelasi menemukan bahwa pendidikan ibu yang lebih tinggi akan meningkatkan kualitas pengasuhan ibu. Sementara itu, ibu yang bekerja dan ibu dengan pendapatan yang lebih tinggi dikaitkan dengan penurunan tingkat dimensi stres.

Kata kunci: anak usia sekolah, faktor risiko, pengasuhan anak, stres pengasuhan, wilayah pesisir

INTRODUCTION

The United Nations (UN) Convention outlines the basic rights of children that should be achieved, they are the right of life, protection, growth, development, and participation (Convention on the Rights of the Child, 1989). Parents who ideally are the primary caregivers

for children, become the most responsible for these basic right's fulfillment. Therefore, the caring process occupies an important position in fulfilling children's basic rights, particularly the rights of to have proper life, growth, and development. Hastuti (2024) emphasizes the scope of parenting in terms of meeting children's basic needs which included nutritious foods and

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drinks, a safe and healthy home, appropriate clothing, age-based education, and affection.

However, as mentioned in the data collected by The Ministry of Women's Empowerment and Child Protection, (2025) that parents take the third place as perpetrators in cases of violence. In addition, nowadays parents are faced with increasingly complex parenting challenges caused by various factors that can trigger parenting stress. Uncontrolled parenting stress may cause parents to lose patience in dealing with children's behavior which may lead parents to behave aggressively and using violence to their children (Crouch & Behl, 2001). These actions are driven by various motives, including the intention to discipline children. As a result, some parents justify the use of physical or psychological punishment. However, numerous studies have demonstrated the harmful effects of physical punishment on children's development and well-being. Physical punishment was known to triggers negative mental responses in children, namely sadness, fear, anger, shame and guilt (World Health Organization, 2021). Furthermore, research by (Wang et al., 2018) and Wang et al. (2021) revealed that children who often receive physical punishment are at risk of having poor emotional regulation, committing antisocial behaviors, exhibited mental health difficulties, such as depressive symptoms and anxiety and demonstrated lower levels of academic performance (Carter-Davies & Bristow, 2018; Cuartas, 2022).

Family and environment are interacted and affect each other. According to Bronfenbrenner's ecological theory, a child's development emerges from the dynamic interplay between biological factors and environmental contexts. This environment is called an ecological environment which is a structured arrangement of layered structural circles, including microsystems, mesosystems, ecosystems, macrosystems and chronosystems (Bronfenrenner, 1979). In this case, family occupies a position as a microsystem, namely an environmental system that directly influences and has the greatest effect on child development. Moreover, family is also influenced by other environmental systems. One of them is macrosystem. The macrosystem is explained as a broad cultural environment that influences children indirectly through the microsystem. This environmental system includes religion, culture, ideology, socio-economic conditions, mass media, and social policies.

The socio-economic conditions and parenting practices of families residing in coastal regions are deeply shaped by their environmental and livelihood contexts. In Indonesia, where a significant proportion of the population inhabits coastal zones, impoverished fishing communities are prevalent across various provinces, including Sulawesi, Java, Kalimantan, and Sumatera (Cahaya, 2015; McWilliam et al., 2021; Mustikasari et al., 2024; Subair et al., 2023; Suryoko & Prabawani, 2018). These communities often face multidimensional poverty, limited access to education, and intergenerational transmission of cultural norms that influence caregiving behaviors. The concept of parenting practices in Indonesia is deeply rooted in culture, the concept of Asah, Asih, Asuh is introduced by Ki Hajar Dewantara for education and parenting practices (Wahyuningsih et al., 2019). In coastal area, the concept even implemented in community level in order to attain well-being (Hambali, 2020).

A qualitative investigation conducted by Mustikasari et al. (2024) indicated that parenting behaviors in low-income coastal communities in Makassar predominantly display authoritarian characteristics. These practices are largely attributed to structural constraints such as economic hardship, parental educational deficits, and the perpetuation of traditional child-rearing norms. Furthermore, nutritional challenges are evident in these settings. Widiyanto et al. (2025) documented cases of childhood stunting among coastal families, which were linked to suboptimal breastfeeding and complementary feeding practices, underscoring the intersection between socio-economic vulnerability and early childhood health outcomes.

Berns (2010) explains that income, type of work, and family education level are a number of socio-economic aspects that determine parenting. According to her, this happens because family interaction patterns tend to adapt to the pressures experienced. Families with low socioeconomic conditions are at greater risk of experiencing stress and depression, which affects parental well-being, parent-child relationship, parenting practices, and emotional distress in raising children (Abidin et al., 2022; Conger & Dogan, 2007; Ho et al., 2022). Sarifudin et al. (2020) also stated that mother parenting stress level could affect emotional and behavioral disorder.

Belsky's parenting model also explains several factors that determine parenting practices. These include domain derived from characteristics of parents (developmental history,

personality), characteristics of child, and characteristics of family social context (marital relationships, work, social networks). Of these factors, some act as both sources of support and stress for parents in raising children. According to Belsky (1984), parents' employment status can be a contributing factor for the declining of parenting performance. The results of previous study revealed that unemployed fathers increase the risk of committing sexual violence as well as neglecting and maltreating their children (Judd et al., 2023). Meanwhile, research data from the Indonesia Central Statistics Bureau (2024) also found that a higher percentage of children of working mothers received inadequate parenting than those of unemployed mothers. Also, parents with informal job has higher stress sources than parents who have formal job (Fala et al., 2020). However, Kalil (2009) emphasized that the father's employment status had a greater impact on family conditions than mother. These conditions underscore the urgency of implementing policies aimed at enhancing families' economic stability to promote effective parenting and mitigate stress among both fathers and mothers.

Referring to the theory of family ecology and model of parenting determinant, we hypothesized that:

H1: There are significant differences of parenting practices and parenting stress between father and mother

H2: Father's sociodemographic correlate with parenting practices

H3: Father's sociodemographic correlate with parenting stress

H4: Mother's sociodemographic correlate with parenting practices

H5: Mother's sociodemographic correlate with parenting stress

H6: Family income correlates with parenting practices and parenting stress

To date, the majority of parenting studies have predominantly focused on mothers as primary respondents, thereby overlooking the integral role of fathers in child-rearing. This gap is particularly critical given that parenting is a shared responsibility, and paternal involvement has been shown to significantly contribute to optimal child development outcomes. Addressing this limitation, the present study

introduces a novel approach by examining the parenting roles of both fathers and mothers within a unified framework. Specifically, it investigates how socio-demographic factors shape parenting practices and contribute to parenting stress across genders. Grounded in this rationale, the objectives of the study are threefold: (1) to describe the socio-demographic profiles, parenting practices, and parenting stress among fathers and mothers; (2) to analyze the correlations between socio-demographic variables and parenting practices as well as parenting stress; and (3) to examine gender-based disparities in parenting approaches and stress levels between fathers and mothers.

METHODS

Research Design, Location, and Time

It was a quantitative study and conducted at a certain time. Therefore, the design used for this research was cross-sectional study. The research location was selected purposively. Then, Special Capital Region (DKI) of Jakarta Province, especially in the Muara Angke Subdistrict was selected with consideration that it is a coastal area on the north coast of Jakarta. The selection of the DKI Jakarta Province was determined by considering that the percentage of violence against children in this area is one of the highest in Indonesia. The data were collected from 1st September to 15th October 2024.

Population and Sampling Techniques

The target population of this study comprised families residing in the coastal region of DKI Jakarta Province, specifically within the Muara Angke District, who had children aged 9 to 12 years enrolled in elementary school and consented to participate as respondents. This period, according to Hurlock (2008), identified as middle childhood whose characterized by changes in cognitive skills, social relationships, and parent-child interaction patterns that may affect child rearing and parenting related stress because the nature of parenting demands and child needs changes as children enter school and gain independence. Further sampling was carried out by convenient sampling from the sample framework in two elementary schools in Muara Angke District. From those selected elementary schools, children in grades 4-5 and their parents were appointed. Total number of participant were 131 mothers and 106 fathers. However, 29 mothers and 5 fathers were not included in data analysis because they are were

not come with their spouse. Then 3 mothers and 2 fathers were also excluded because they were not biological parents of their child. In results, there were 99 pairs of parents consisting of 99 mothers and 99 fathers who meet the criteria and included in data analysis process. Prior to data collection, participants were required to sign an informed consent form indicating their voluntary agreement to take part in the study.

Procedures for Data Collection

Primary data were gathered for this research. It was obtained directly through interviews with parents of school-aged children by using a structured questionnaire. Before data collection, an ethical review of the instrument was carried out with the number 1518/IT3.KEPMSM-IPB/SK/2024 and a trial was also carried out before the study.

Measurement and Assessment of Variables

Parenting practices were assessed based on questionnaire developed by (Hastuti, 2006), the variable of parenting practices defined as parents' knowledge and practices on stimulating the children aspects of development. However, the parenting practices investigated in this study was only related to emotional aspect. There are three dimensions measured for parenting practice, the first one is *Asah* which defined as how parents fulfilling children's emotional needs by asking some of these questiones : "knowing the sign when children are sad", "knowing when children are scared and comforting them". The second one is *Asih* which described as how parents providing warmth trough specific actions, like "kissing children" and "hugging children". The third one is *Asuh*, explaining about how parents providing affection towards children emotionally, by "expressing love directly by words" and "saying thanks to children because of their helps". It was measured based on parental perceptions regarding *Asah* (10 question items), *Asih* (8 question items), and *Asuh* (5 question items), with the answer in Likert scale: (0) never, (1) rarely, (2) sometimes, (3) often, and (4) always. The reliability and validity values for parenting practices was 0.704.

Parenting stress is the scale of psychological and emotional pressure experienced by parents in carrying out parenting practies. It refers to two dimenstions which are in this study was assessed based on two dimensions. First is pleasure which define as positive psychological responses from parents who tend to feel joyful in conducting parent's duties. Then second is stress which describes as negative

psychological responses by parents due to the demands of raising children. The instrument used to measure parenting stress was modified by researcher based on parenting stress scale developed by Berry and Jones (1995) in the form of 8 question items for pleasure and 7 question items stress. The answer scale used is (1) strongly disagree, (2) disagree, (3) neutral, (4) agree, (5) strongly agree. The reliability and validity values for parenting stress instrument was 0.764. Higher score of parenting stress indicates the more psychological and emotional pressure felt by parents.

Belsky (1984) described several factors that affect parenting applied by parents. The risk factors in this study were identify as the aspect which may decrease the quality of parenting and increase the risk of parenting stress while protective factors take the role to increase parenting performances and decrease the occurence of parenting stress. It was examined from family sociodemographic characteristics using the questionnaire developed by the researcher in order to identify father and mother's age and income, family income, level of education, and employment status. Parental age and income data were provided in ratio with years unit for age and rupiahs for income. The data of parental education level and employment status were acquired in ordinal scale. For parents education level were 1=Unschoolled, 2=Primary school, 3=Lower secondary school, 4=Upper secondary school, 5=Diploma degree, 6=Undergraduate degree. Meanwhile, parents employment status were 1=Homemaker (for mothers) or unemployed (for fathers) and 2=Worked.

Data Analysis

This study used Microsoft Office Excell and Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) 25.0 for data analysis. Data that had been collected by questionnaires and assessment guides were checked for completeness and processed through several stages included. Those are editing, cleaning, coding, and scoring which were carried out based on the code book and the scoring procedure for each variable. Then, the scores obtained on each variable were converted into an index. This study employed descriptive and inferential statistics for data analysis. Descriptive analysis was used to identify and describe the variables studied including parental characteristics, parenting practices (*Asah*, *Asih*, *Asuh*), and parenting stress. The inferential statistical analysis undertake in this study was the different t-test on parenting practices and parenting stress

Table 1 *Difference t-test results of parenting practices and parenting stress between fathers and mothers*

Variables	Min-Max	Mean±SD		P-value
		Father (n=99)	Mother (n=99)	
Parenting practices	31.5-96.7	66.0±12.6	67.7±10.4	0.326
Asah	34.8-100.0	64.8±13.1	65.9±12.7	0.525
Asih	30.0-100.0	71.9±16.4	75.0±14.4	0.156
Asuh	22.5-95.0	64.1±15.0	65.4±11.6	0.526
Parenting stress	0.0-50.0	19.3±10.1	17.4±9.1	0.169
Pleasure	0.0-50.0	18.8±12.6	14.5±10.1	0.009**
Stress	0.0-60.7	19.9±14.5	20.7±13.4	0.676

Note : **p-value* < 0.05; ** *p-value* < 0.01

between fathers and mothers. Furthermore, a Pearson correlation analysis was performed to assess its association with sociodemographic factors (parents' age, parents' education level, employment status, parents' income, and total family income) with parenting practices and stress.

RESULTS

Characteristics of Parents

The results of the study showed that there are 198 respondents participated in this study including 99 of fathers and 99 mothers. The average age of the fathers participating in this research was 42.3 years, while mothers were comparatively younger at 39.2 years. The average income earned by fathers was IDR 4,255,414 while mothers was IDR 853,374 which means it was lower than fathers. Regarding family income, the nominal was reported up to IDR 5,108,787. More than half of parents, both fathers (60.6%) and mothers (60.6%) in this study had education up to high school/equivalent. However, the results revealed that there were still a number of fathers (3.0%) and mothers (1.0%) who did not receive formal education. The types of father's employment were quite varied, but almost half of them (48.5%) were known to work as private employees. Meanwhile, most mothers (72.7%) in this study chose to be homemakers.

Differences in Parenting practice and parenting Stress in Fathers and Mothers

As revealed in Table 1, Findings indicated no significant statistical differences in parenting practices, as evidenced by a *p-value* of 0.326, which exceeds the 0.05 threshold. Similar

results were also obtained for each dimension of Asah (*p-value* = 0.525; >0.05), Asih (*p-value* = 0.156; >0.05), and Asuh (*p-value* = 0.526; >0.05). It revealed that in both fathers and mothers have nearly identic quality of parenting practices even though the overall score acquired by mothers (*M* = 67.7) was slightly higher than fathers (*M* = 66.0). It also constant for the score of *Asah*, *Asih*, and *Asuh* dimension. This study (Table 1) also discovered no significant differences in total average score of parenting stress experienced by fathers and mothers (*p-value* = 0.169; >0.05) which means that in general, both parents experienced the same level of parenting stress, regardless somewhat higher levels of fathers (*M* = 19.3) compared to mothers (*M* = 17.1). The analysis was conducted on the pleasure dimension which described that there were significant differences between fathers and mothers (*p-value* = 0.009; <0.05), with the average of pleasure score for father (*M* = 18.8) was higher than mother (*M* = 14.5). Different results were presented by stress dimension which did not find any significant difference (*p-value* = 0.676; >0.05). Based on this finding, the first hypothesis (H1) is rejected.

The Correlation of Sociodemographic Characteristics with Parenting Practices and Parenting Stress in Fathers and Mothers

The correlation test in Table 2 did not find any significant relationship between father sociodemographic characteristics with parenting practices. Similar results were also reported for parenting stress in fathers. These findings suggest that paternal parenting quality and stress levels are not significantly influenced by sociodemographic factors. Therefore, second (H2) and third (H3) hypothesis of this study is rejected.

Table 2 *The correlation of father's sociodemographic characteristics with father's parenting practices and stress (n=99)*

Variables	1	2	3	4	5
Father's parenting practice	-0.149	0.084	-0.099	0.035	0.047
<i>Asah</i>	-0.039	0.095	-0.147	-0.015	0.016
<i>Asih</i>	-0.155	0.042	-0.100	0.073	0.066
<i>Asuh</i>	-0.175	0.071	-0.020	0.038	0.043
Father parenting stress	0.089	-0.068	-0.022	-0.115	-0.144
Pleasure	0.006	0.014	0.044	-0.030	-0.066
Stress	0.129	-0.117	-0.077	-0.143	-0.155

Note:

1. Father's age (years)
2. Father's education (1=unschooled, 2=primary school, 3=lower secondary school, 4=upper secondary school, 5=diploma degree, 6=undergraduate degree)
3. Father's employment status (1=unemployed, 2=worked)
4. Father's income (IDR per month)
5. Family income (IDR per month)

Different conditions were revealed in the correlation test of maternal characteristics with parenting practices and parenting stress by mothers (Table 3). Yet, there is no significant relation between mother sociodemographic with each dimension of parenting practices. A positive and statistically significant correlation was observed between parenting quality and maternal educational attainment ($r = 0.203$; $p < 0.05$). Therefore, the quality of maternal parenting will increase if mother has access to better education. This study also uncovered a

negative and significant relationship between employment status of mother ($r=-0.260$; <0.05) and her income ($r=-0.201$; <0.05) with stress dimension. This means that working mothers and higher maternal income can reduce mother's emotional stress in parenting. The findings confirmed the acceptance of both the fourth (H4) and fifth (H5) hypotheses. However, this study cannot accept the sixth hypothesis (H6) as there is no significant relation with family income with both parenting practices and parenting stress through mother and father.

Table 3 *The correlation of mother's sociodemographic characteristics with mother's parenting practices and stress (n=99)*

Variables	1	2	3	4	5
Mother's parenting practice	0.037	0.203*	-0.041	0.084	0.108
<i>Asah</i>	-0.073	0.131	-0.033	0.014	0.055
<i>Asih</i>	0.055	0.188	0.006	0.050	0.165
<i>Asuh</i>	0.107	0.189	-0.055	0.130	0.072
Maternal parenting stress	-0.137	-0.036	-0.174	-0.139	-0.043
Pleasure	-0.180	0.080	0.006	-0.004	0.051
Stress	-0.046	-0.121	-0.260**	-0.201*	-0.107

Note:

1. Mother's age (years)
2. Mother's education (1=unschooled, 2=primary school, 3=lower secondary school, 4=upper secondary school, 5=diploma degree, 6=undergraduate degree)
3. Mother's employment status (1=homemaker, 2=worked)
4. Mother's income (IDR per month)
5. Family income (IDR per month)

*p-value < 0.05; **p-value < 0.01

DISCUSSION

This study found that mother's average age was younger than fathers, while for father's income was known to be higher than mother's. This condition described the role of father as the main breadwinner for the family. In terms of education, majority of fathers and mothers have completed their education up to high school. However, there were still a number of parents who did not attend formal education. This illustrated the diversity of educational backgrounds of parents in this study. For employment types, a half percentage of fathers were known to work as private employees, while most mothers tend to focus more on their domestic roles as homemakers. This condition indirectly suggests that mothers allocate more time to child-rearing than fathers, indicating a greater likelihood of maternal involvement in parenting practices. Teng et al. (2018) also discovered that quantitatively, a housewife mothers were perceived as more involved in daily parenting practices.

Based on difference test, this study discovered that first hypothesis is rejected or no significant differences in carried out parenting practices by both fathers and mothers. However, the total parenting practices scores and each parenting dimension (*Asah, Asih, Asuh*) explained that mothers were quite emotionally involved, provide warmth, and affection to children compared to fathers. These results were also discovered in previous studies that parenting applied by both parents tend to show similar patterns in affection, responsiveness, encouragement, and teaching, with mothers typically scoring slightly higher in these domains (Okorn et al., 2021; Rivero et al., 2022). This happens because the changing trends that fathers are increasingly involved, and the gap in parenting practices is narrowing, reflecting a shift toward more equal parenting roles (Majdandžić et al., 2016). These findings indicates an improvement in the role of fathers because the study by Islamiah et al. (2023) provides empirical evidence of a significant effect of paternal involvement on children's emotional regulation. The more father involved in emotional coaching, the more exquisite children emotional regulation is. Several studies also discovered similar findings related to the influence of father positive parenting on children's physical, cognitive, emotional, and pro-social behavioral development (McWayne et al., 2013; Yue et al., 2024). Moreover, the results also verified that parenting stress experienced by fathers and mother was not significantly different. This result provides an

information that both fathers and mothers shared the same psychological tension as parents. Based on the culture in Indonesia, father and mother takes a different role dialing with parenting practices with mother are more focus on nurturing while father being responsible as the main breadwinner of the family. This cultural context, according to Lo et al. (2023) and Nomaguchi and Johnson (2016) can shape the stress experienced by each parent. Other studies unveiled that both mothers and fathers share many sources of psychological tension, including feelings of inadequacy, relationship strain, and the challenges of balancing work and family life (De Maat et al., 2021; Fang et al., 2024). Specifically, mother's stress is known to be more correlated with role restriction due to their role in parenting (Marie et al., 2023). While for fathers, as stated by Ghaleiha et al. (2022), often meet a challenge to try as a caring father and family main provider in the same time. Nonetheless, analyzed based on the parenting stress dimensions, fathers tend to enjoy their role as parents more, as indicated by in pleasure dimension which is significantly higher than mother. It is partly explained by the types of parenting tasks each parents typically undertakes. Mothers spend more time on routine, demanding, and managerial childcare tasks, which are associated with less enjoyment, while fathers are more involved in recreational and leisure activities with children, which are linked to greater pleasure (McDonnell et al., 2019).

Based on the results of correlation test, second and third hypothesis are rejected implying that sociodemographic characteristics of parents are not significantly related to parenting practices and stress in fathers. In contrast to Fofonoff (2018) and Wang et al. (2022) which stated that sociodemographic or socioeconomic conditions of fathers predict parenting stress and their parenting practices towards children. However, some studies highlight that most sociodemographic variables, such as, age, income, and marital status show no or inconsistent associations with fathers' parenting practices and parenting stress, while other factors like social support or personal mental health found to be more influential (Ayoub & Bachir, 2023; Fang et al., 2020; Hogan et al., 2025). Kachi et al. (2022) and Lo et al. (2023) found that factors like family structure, educational status, and children characteristics are associated with higher stress, but these effects are generally modest.

Different results were shown by mothers which leads to the acceptance of fourth hypothesis, referring that there is a significant relationship

between sociodemographic characteristics of mothers, particularly education level with maternal parenting practices. This study found that high maternal education would improve the quality of maternal parenting practices in general. Similar results were also revealed in other studies that well-educated mothers have adequate parenting such as in providing stimulation, tend to be more responsive, and using less of violence against children (Cloutier et al., 2016; Cuartas, 2022). Meanwhile, mothers with low education tend to be more authoritarian (Weis et al., 2023). This condition is related to education as one of the factors that determines a individual's way of thinking (Hastuti, 2024). This evidence highlights the pivotal role of women's education in fostering empowerment. Consistent with this, Le and Nguyen (2021) demonstrated that increased educational attainment is significantly associated with greater decision-making authority among women in household contexts, including both financial and non-financial spheres.

In terms of parenting stress, correlation test discovered a significant relationship between mother's employment type and income with decreasing level of parenting stress. This condition can be interpreted that mothers who work and financially independent are at lower risk to experience parenting stress. This is also supported by Okelo et al. (2024) study in Kenya and Zambia, that high socioeconomic status in mothers becomes a buffer from stress in parenting. Working mothers will have their own income which will make it easier for them in allocating the expense used to meet children's needs (Qian et al., 2021). Parents characterized by lower monthly income, unemployment, residence in rural areas, or the burden of caring for multiple children were found to exhibit elevated levels of parenting-related stress. These conditions were also associated with a greater tendency to employ harsh and authoritarian parenting practices. (Hadjicharambolous & Demetriou, 2021). In addition to a supportive socioeconomic background, Leahy-Warren et al. (2012) and Qi et al. (2022) emphasized the importance of social support from family and friends, especially for newly mothers. As found in a number of studies, social support provided for family will improve their coping strategies, reduce stress and the risk of depression which in result it will optimize the role of parenting (Drogomyretska et al., 2020; Gouin et al., 2016; Hetherington et al., 2018). This condition reflects the interplay between empowerment and emotional well-being. Economically active mothers may possess better access to information,

confidence in decision-making, and coping mechanisms which enabling them to manage stress. These findings highlight the need to view parenting within a broader ecological framework, where access to employment indirectly influence family functioning.

There were still several limitations in this study. The first one is dialing with measured parenting variable which only involved three aspects, namely emotional coaching (*Asah*), providing warmth (*Asih*), and giving affection (*Asuh*). The predictor variable which only include sociodemographic factor is the second limitation of this study. Sociodemographic characteristics are visible and external variable which do not account for internal, psychological, or contextual influences that can significantly shape parenting practices and outcomes. It also often heterogeneous and can be perceived differently by individuals, leading to variability in how they relate to parenting (Chandran et al., 2021). The third one is about the absence of significant stress among the majority of participants should be interpreted cautiously. It is because the instrument used in parenting stress measurement was a closed questionnaire. Therefore, it is necessary to include the whole aspect in parenting practices, parental internal variables, and the importance of using mixed-method approaches in future studies, by integrating qualitative data to explore lived experiences and uncover hidden vulnerabilities experienced by parents in caregiving. In order to capture and get holistic understanding about the risk and protective factors contribute to parenting practices and parenting stress.

CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTIONS

In summary, these findings highlight the significance of considering sociodemographic factors in efforts to enhance parenting quality and mitigate parenting stress among both fathers and mothers. Parental education, particularly maternal education, emerges as a potential protective factor in promoting positive parenting outcomes. Conversely, maternal employment status and income function as protective factors that reduce the likelihood of experiencing parenting stress. This is the basis for the importance of focusing on parenting stress in parents and conducting educational, supportive and family-based interventions.

Therefore, this suggests for the stakeholders to incorporate future parenting programs that emphasizes emotional responsiveness, stress management, and consultation service as an effort to support optimal parenting practices that

are responsive to children's needs and minimize parenting stress in parents. Moreover, culture-based approaches that address gender norms and encourage father participation are essential. Regarding with the pivotal effect of father involvement in parenting. Community-based support systems through schools, healthcare centres, or local organization should also be strengthened to provide accessible networks of assistance. These collaborative efforts can help parents build resilience and create nurturing environments that support children's growth holistically, particularly in socioeconomically vulnerable settings such as coastal urban areas.

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