

**THE INFLUENCE OF PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT, DISCIPLINE  
AND CHOICE OF VALUES ON THE SCHOLASTIC  
ACHIEVEMENT OF SECONDARY SCHOOL PUPILS,  
WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO  
THE ROLE OF THE FATHER**

by

**CECELIA MARY ROSA**

submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for  
the degree of

**MASTER OF EDUCATION**

in the subject

**PSYCHOLOGY OF EDUCATION**

at the

**UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH AFRICA**

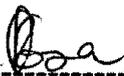
**SUPERVISOR : PROF H.C. PETRICK**

NOVEMBER 1994

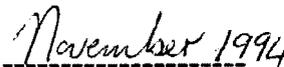
---

Student Number : 435-695-0

I declare that THE INFLUENCE OF PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT, DISCIPLINE AND CHOICE OF VALUES ON THE SCHOLASTIC ACHIEVEMENT OF SECONDARY SCHOOL PUPILS, WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO THE ROLE OF THE FATHER is my own work and that all the sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.



-----  
SIGNATURE  
(Mrs C.M. Rosa)



-----  
DATE

---

## DEDICATION

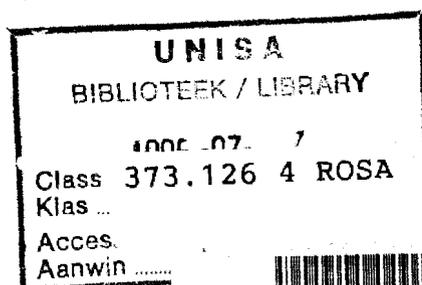
This dissertation is dedicated to **Almighty God** who inspired and guided me, and who provided the people most suited to assisting me in this project.

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I wish to express my sincere appreciation and gratitude to all who have assisted me in the completion of this study.

I am particularly indebted to:

- **Prof Petrick** for his guidance, encouragement and patience in spite of the thousands of kilometres which often made communication very difficult
- **Prof Bester** for readily taking time from a very busy schedule to assist me with the computer processing of data
- **José**, my husband, who spent many hours patiently assisting me with the computer and word processing, and whose encouragement motivated me to complete this work
- **Mrs Fatima Rocha** who, putting aside own commitments, at the eleventh hour expertly retyped this entire work.



01583119

# **THE INFLUENCE OF PARENTAL DISCIPLINE, VALUES AND INVOLVEMENT ON THE SCHOLASTIC ACHIEVEMENT OF SECONDARY SCHOOL PUPILS WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO THE ROLE OF THE FATHER**

**By C.M. Rosa**

**Degree : Master of Education**  
**Department : Psychology of Education**  
**University : University of South Africa**  
**Supervisor : Prof. H.C. Petrick**

## **SUMMARY**

The aim of this investigation was to determine whether values, the style of discipline and father involvement, influence achievement motivation in secondary school pupils.

A survey of existing literature on this subject reveals that style of discipline does influence academic achievement. Baumrind's research is a major source of information in this regard.

Research also indicates a positive correlation between academic achievement and the father's ability to assume the leadership role in the family.

A positive correlation between the choice of values, for example religious, social, etcetera, and academic achievement is indicated in past research on academic achievement.

An investigation done in a large rural town in South Africa, however, reveals no significant correlation between the above mentioned factors and academic achievement. However, a negative correlation between achievement and popularity as an important value, suggests that under-achievement is found more frequently among pupils whose parents value popularity highly.

## **KEY TERMS :**

Under-achievement ; Academic Performance; Values; Disciplines; Involvement; Father Absence; Secondary School Pupil; Leadership.

# DIE INVLOED VAN OUERLIKE DISSIPLINE, WAARDES EN BETROKKENHEID OP AKADEMIESE PRESTASIE VAN SEKONDERE LEERLINGE MET SPESIALE VERWYSING NA DIE ROL VAN DIE VADER.

Deur C.M. Rosa

**Graad** : **Magister Educationis**  
**Departement** : **Sielkundige Opvoedkunde**  
**Universiteit** : **Universiteit van Suid-Afrika**  
**Studieleier** : **Prof. H.C. Petrick**

## OPSOMMING

Die doel van hierdie ondersoek was om te bepaal of waardes, die dissiplineringsstyl en vaderbetrokkenheid, die kind se akademiese prestasie beïnvloed.

'n Ondersoek van bestaande literatuur op hierdie gebied, wys daarop dat die dissiplineringsstyl, akademiese prestasie beïnvloed. Baumrind se studie is 'n belangrike bron van inligting in die verband.

Navorsing dui op 'n positiewe korrelasie tussen akademiese prestasie en die vader se vermoë om die leierskapsposisie in die gesin te handhaaf.

Bestaande literatuur oor die onderwerp dui ook daarop dat die keuse van waardes, byvoorbeeld godsdienstige-, sosiale-, ensovoorts, positief korreleer met akademiese prestasie.

'n Ondersoek in 'n groot plattelandse dorp in Suid-Afrika, wys geen beduidende korrelasie tussen die bogenoemde aspekte en akademiese prestasie nie.

'n Negatiewe korrelasie tussen akademiese prestasie en **gewildheid** as waarde, word wel aangedui, wat suggereer dat leerlinge dikwels onderpresteer wanneer hulle ouers op gewildheid gesteld is.

## CONTENTS

	<b>Page</b>
<i>Dedication and Acknowledgements</i>	iii
<i>English Summary</i>	iv
<i>Afrikaans Summary</i>	v

## CHAPTER 1

### **INTRODUCTORY ORIENTATION, STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM, EXPLANATION OF TERMS AND PROGRAMME OF THIS INVESTIGATION.**

	<b>Page</b>
<b>1.1 Introduction</b>	<b>1</b>
1.1.1 Possible areas of investigation	1
<b>1.2 Analysis of the problem</b>	<b>3</b>
1.2.1 Value system in the home	4
1.2.2 Discipline in the home	4
1.2.2.1 Inconsistent discipline	4
1.2.2.2 Over-indulged children	5
1.2.3 The father's role in the family	5
1.2.3.1 Physically/emotionally absent/present father	5
1.2.3.2 Mother as dominant authority figure	6
1.2.3.3 Incompatibility between the values and attitude of discipline of the mother and father	6
• 1.2.4 Parental involvement in the child's school-related activities	7
1.2.5 Community cohesiveness	7
1.2.6 Syllabi and curricula relevant to the child's world	8
1.2.7 Communication between parents and adolescents in the home	9
1.2.8 Nature of self esteem of the adolescent	9
1.2.9 Parent/teacher pressure and expectations	10

	<b>Page</b>
<b>1.3 Priorities for this investigation</b>	10
1.3.1 Values systems	10
1.3.2 Discipline in the home ✓	10
1.3.3 The influence of paternal involvement on scholastic achievement	11
<b>1.4 Statement of the problem</b>	11
<b>1.5 Aims of the investigation</b>	11
<b>1.6 Explanation of terms</b>	11
1.6.1 Secondary school pupils	11
1.6.2 Underactualisation	12
1.6.3 Authority	13
1.6.4 Discipline	13
1.6.4.1 Authoritarian	14
1.6.4.2 Permissive	14
1.6.4.3 Democratic	14
1.6.5 Values	14
1.6.5.1 Religious	14
1.6.5.2 Social	15
1.6.5.3 Moral	15
1.6.6 Value Vacuum	15
1.6.7 Norms	16
● 1.6.8 The Role of the Father in the Family	16
● 1.6.9 Paternal Involvement	17
1.6.10 Academic Achievement	17
1.6.11 Motivation	18
<b>1.7 Programme of Investigation</b>	18

## **CHAPTER TWO**

### **THE INFLUENCE OF FAMILY VALUES ON THE ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION OF SECONDARY SCHOOL PUPILS**

	<b>Page</b>
<b>2.1 Introduction</b>	<b>21</b>
<b>2.2 Types of Values</b>	<b>22</b>
2.2.1 Spranger's Classification of Values	23
2.2.2 Kohn's Classification of Values	24
✓ <b>2.3 Changes in Value Systems</b>	<b>25</b>
2.3.1 Socio-demographic factors	25
2.3.2 Shift of orientation	28
2.3.3 Value Vacuum	28
2.3.4 Parent Modernity	29
<b>2.4 Parent's Role in the Acquisition of Values</b>	<b>29</b>
2.4.1 Socio Class determines Values	29
2.4.1.1 Father's Occupation	30
2.4.1.2 Value Conformity vs Self-direction	32
2.4.1.3 The influence of Parental Values on Cognitive Development and Achievement Motivation	34
2.4.2 Socialisation of the child	42
2.4.2.1 Parental response	43
2.4.2.2 Diverse cultures	44
2.4.3 Influence of birth order and family size on the acquisition of values	45
2.4.4 Relationship between parents' and child's values	46
2.4.5 Factors which influence value transmission	49

	<b>Page</b>
<b>2.5 Values which inculcate a sense of responsibility</b>	51
2.5.1 Moral values and cognitive development	51
2.5.1.1 Cognitive-development Theory	52
2.5.1.2 Psychoanalytic Theory	55
2.5.1.3 Social Learning Theory	57
2.5.1.4 The Father's role in moral development	58
2.5.2 Religious values	59
2.5.3 Social values	60
<b>2.6 The influences of adolescent values on achievement motivation</b>	61
2.6.1 Characteristics of achieving high school pupils	62
2.6.2 Values and attitudes towards higher education	63
<b>2.7 The Differences in the achievement process of black and white secondary school pupils</b>	64
<b>2.8 Problems inherent in the study of value transmission</b>	66
<b>2.9 Conclusion</b>	68

## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **THE INFLUENCE OF PARENTAL DISCIPLINE ON THE SCHOLASTIC ACHIEVEMENT OF SECONDARY SCHOOL PUPILS**

	<b>Page</b>
<b>3.1 Introduction</b>	<b>69</b>
<b>3.2 Discipline Defined</b>	<b>70</b>
3.2.1 Psychoanalytic View	71
3.2.2 Piagetian View	72
3.2.3 Rational-Emotive View	73
3.2.4 Behavioural View	73
3.2.5 The Discipline Encounter	75
3.2.5.1 Child's influence on parents	75
3.2.5.2 Parental influence on the child	75
3.2.5.3 Control	76
<b>3.3 Purpose of Discipline</b>	<b>77</b>
<b>3.4 Styles of Discipline</b>	<b>79</b>
3.4.1 Authoritarian	79
3.4.2 Permissive	81
3.4.3 Authoritative	82
3.4.4 Methods of Discipline	84
3.4.5 Basic Requirements of Effective Discipline	87
3.4.5.1 Love	88
3.4.5.2 Respect and Trust	88
3.4.5.3 Freedom	88
3.4.5.4 Relation of Dialogue	89
3.4.5.5 Being-a-friend of the Child	89
3.4.5.6 Strictness, firmness, tact, wisdom	89
3.4.5.7 Clear and consistent policy together with exemplary Living	91

	<b>Page</b>
<b>3.5 Effects of Family Structure on Discipline</b>	91
3.5.1 Age of child	92
3.5.2 Sex of child	92
3.5.3 Family size/family dynamics	93
3.5.4 Socio-economic status/cultural differences	94
<b>3.6 Discipline and Cognitive Development</b>	96
3.6.1 Instrumental Competence	97
<b>3.7 Discipline and Affective Development</b>	98
3.7.1 Aggressiveness vs Assertiveness	99
3.7.2 Self-esteem	100
<b>3.8 Discipline and Moral Development</b>	101
<b>3.9 Conclusion</b>	103

## **CHAPTER FOUR**

### **A REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE CONCERNING THE INFLUENCE OF PATERNAL INVOLVEMENT ON THE SCHOLASTIC ACHIEVEMENT OF SECONDARY SCHOOL PUPILS.**

	<b>Page</b>
<b>4.1 Introduction</b>	104
4.1.1 The modern Western nuclear family	104
4.1.2 The responsibility of the family	105
<b>4.2 The Historical Context of Fatherhood</b>	106
4.2.1 Pre-modern	106
4.2.2 Modern period	108
<b>4.3 Divergent Cultures in South Africa</b>	109
4.3.1 White Community	110
✓ 4.3.2 The Black Family	111
4.3.3 The Cape Coloured	113
4.3.4 The Indian Family	114
<b>4.4 Contemporary Observations about the image of the father</b>	115
✓ 4.5 <b>The Actively Involved Father</b>	117
● 4.5.1 Instrumental role of the father	117
4.5.2 Expressive role of the mother	119
● 4.5.3 Role Confusion	119
4.5.4 Common Family Goals	120
● 4.5.5 The Effects of Active Father Involvement	120
● 4.5.5.1 The effect on boys	121
● 4.5.5.2 Paternal nurturance	121
● 4.5.5.3 Identification with the father	123
● 4.5.5.4 Influence on school achievement	123
● 4.5.5.5 The effect on girls	124
<b>4.6 Problems inherent in the study of the effect of father absence on children</b>	126

	<b>Page</b>
✓ 4.7 <b>The Absent Father</b>	129
4.7.1 Physical	129
4.7.1.1 Age of child	131
4.7.1.2 Intellectual abilities	131
4.7.1.3 Death	134
4.7.1.4 Divorce	135
4.7.1.5 Job-related	137
4.7.1.6 Stepfather	139
• 4.7.2 Psychological absence	139
✓ 4.8 <b>Conflict in Parenting roles of father and mother</b>	141
4.8.1 Roles	141
4.8.2 Authority	142
4.8.3 Power	142
4.8.4 Power distribution	143
4.8.5 Mother-dominant families	144
4.8.5.1 Slavery	144
4.8.5.2 Abandonment of traditional way of life	145
4.8.5.3 Increase in women's power	146
4.9 <b>Conclusion</b>	147

## **CHAPTER 5**

### **DESIGN OF INVESTIGATION**

	<b>Page</b>
<b>5.1 Introduction</b>	149
5.1.1 Discipline	149
5.1.2 Father Involvement	149
5.1.3 Choice of Values	149
5.1.4 Hypotheses to be tested	150
<b>5.2 Methods of Acquiring Information</b>	150
5.2.1 Sample	150
5.2.2 Questionnaire	151
5.2.2.1 Section A	151
5.2.2.2 Section B	153
<b>5.3 Conclusion</b>	155

## **CHAPTER 6**

### **RESULTS OF THE INVESTIGATION**

	<b>Page</b>
6.1 <b>Introduction</b>	156
6.2 <b>Section A - Background</b>	156
6.2.1 Language	156
6.2.2 Age of Pupil	156
6.2.3 Number of Parents who responded	157
6.2.4 Marital status of parents	157
6.2.5 Educational level of parents	158
6.3 <b>Independent Variables</b>	159
6.4 <b>Item analysis and reliability of the questionnaire completed by pupils</b>	159
6.4.1 Item analysis of father involvement	160
6.4.2 Father leadership	161
6.4.3 Father discipline	161
6.4.4 Mother involvement	162
6.4.5 Mother leadership	163
6.4.6 Mother discipline	164
6.5 <b>Item analysis and reliability of questionnaire completed by parents</b>	165
6.5.1 Item analysis of parent involvement	166
6.5.2 Parent leadership	167
6.5.3 Parent discipline	167
6.6 <b>Interrelation matrix showing the variances in the relationship between the influence of the father and academic achievement</b>	169
6.7 <b>Intercorrelation matrix showing the relationship between the influence of the mother and academic achievement</b>	170
6.8 <b>The relationship between choice of values and academic achievement</b>	171

	<b>Page</b>
<b>6.9 The variance in academic achievement explained by pupils' values</b>	172
6.9.1 Summary of regression analysis of the relationship between choice of values and academic achievement	172
<b>6.10 Proportion of the variance in academic achievement explained by certain predictor variables - parent questionnaire.</b>	173
<b>6.11 The relationship between parental choice of values and academic achievement</b>	174
<b>6.12 Regression analysis indicating the relationship between parent values and academic achievement</b>	176
6.12.1 Summary of regression analysis of the relationship between choice of parental values and academic achievement	176
6.12.2 Summary of regression analysis of how all variables collectively might influence academic achievement	177
<b>6.13 Conclusion</b>	179

## **CHAPTER SEVEN**

### **SYNOPSIS OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

	<b>Page</b>
<b>7.1 Introduction</b>	181
<b>7.2 Synopsis of findings</b>	181
7.2.1 Findings from the Literature Investigation	181
7.2.1.1 Discipline	181
7.2.1.2 Father Involvement	181
7.2.1.3 Choice of Values	182
7.2.2 Findings from the empirical investigation	182
<b>7.3 Conclusions</b>	182
<b>7.4 Limitations of this study</b>	183
<b>7.5 Recommendations</b>	183
<b>7.6 Final Remarks</b>	184

### **APPENDICES**

<i>Appendix 1 English Questionnaire</i>	185
<i>Appendix 2 Afrikaans Questionnaire</i>	202
<i>Appendix 3 Tswana Questionnaire</i>	219
<i>Appendix 4 List of Tables</i>	235

## CHAPTER ONE

### THE INFLUENCE OF PARENTAL DISCIPLINE ON THE SCHOLASTIC ACHIEVEMENT OF SECONDARY SCHOOL PUPILS WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO THE ROLE OF THE FATHER

#### **INTRODUCTORY ORIENTATION, STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM, EXPLANATION OF TERMS AND PROGRAMME OF THIS INVESTIGATION.**

##### **1.1 INTRODUCTION**

The question frequently raised by teachers and parents alike, is why some children, despite obvious educational and other advantages, continue to demonstrate an apathy towards academic activities.

The researcher's concern with the lack of commitment towards and involvement in school-related activities, led to an investigation into the reasons for the apathy and under actualisation manifested by some secondary school pupils.

The lack of commitment and motivation to school-related activities include academic, cultural and sport activities. Many pupils seem hardly to care about achieving anything more than just enough to pass the standard. Consequently many pupils, who have average to above average potential, under actualise their potential.

The complaints often expressed by parents, are that their adolescent children show no ambition and no interest in school-related activities. Their concern also includes a powerlessness to motivate an interest in academic activities in their children.

##### **1.1.1 Possible areas of investigation**

What will have to be established is how apathy to academic activities develops.

A brief synopsis of the issues which in the opinion of the researcher, need to be addressed, follows.

There seems to be a trend in the 1990s, materialistically-speaking, to over-indulge children. These children frequently display behaviours which reveals insecurity and apathy towards their environment. Many have no obvious goals and live each day aimlessly doing nothing in particular.

### 1.1.1/.....

Parents have, perhaps in many instances unwittingly, encouraged acquisitiveness in their children.

Parents readily give to their children that which their children want. These children's desires are frequently dictated by that which their peers have. Parents want what is 'best' for their children, so give in to their children's demands. Gradually and subtly the child begins to believe that he has a right to demand things from his parents and parents are subtly conditioned into believing that it is their parental duty to ensure that their children have everything.

On the other hand, many children are living in anxiety-provoking circumstances as their parents are unable or unwilling to provide them with a stable home. There may be conflict, as parents fail to resolve their differences. Marriages and families disintegrate, leaving the children without the support system they need.

Children of the 1990's are unlike their 19th century counterparts, a liability, not contributing to the continuing survival of the kinship group.

Many children are not expected to be responsible for doing a share of those tasks which make for the smooth running of the household.

Many parents have been deluded into believing that their sole purpose is to cater to the needs of their children until the children become self-supporting. The child's every basic, physical need and more is fulfilled without the parent expecting anything in return.

A second aspect to be considered is perhaps the apparent inability of the parent to exercise authoritative control. They feel powerless to exercise discipline and to define and adhere to their rules and goals. The inability to exercise authoritative control is of great concern to parents.

Discipline is frequently not exercised consistently. Many parents avoid confrontation by relenting or giving in to keep the peace.

The importance of defining and adhering to clear rules and goals, is stressed by Hanson and Ginsburg (1988:336) who state that a sense of responsibility and obedience to authority leads to a positive attitude to academic achievement.

A third possible aspect to consider, is the extent to which the father is in control of his position as head of his family.

### 1.1.1/....

It is interesting to note that when parents approach the school about a problem being experienced, the mother frequently makes the visit alone, or it is the mother who conducts the greater part of the interview while the father may make a few tentative comments.

Fathers are often seen to take a peripheral position in the family. They become ineffectual and this may influence the child's, especially the son's, attitude to life. Lam (1976:19) found that boys were more assertive, active, independent and competent when their fathers played an active role in their lives.

It is also interesting to note that where the father diligently attends parents' evenings, and is obviously involved in the child's school activities, the child is, more often than not, an academic achiever.

A fourth aspect worth investigating, is the system of values, specifically the religious values, which are upheld in the family.

Children from a home where religious values feature strongly, seem to show a great motivation in the definition and achievement of goals.

The researcher's interest in the role and influence of the father as authority figure and disciplinarian as well as the perpetuator of moral values in the adolescent's life and how it influences the child's scholastic achievement, led to an investigation in this regard.

Although a great number of variables exist in the home environment which need to be examined to establish whether and how they influence the adolescent, secondary school pupil's academic achievement, this study will focus on the influence of home values, authority structures and role of the father, on the secondary school pupil's academic motivation and achievement.

## 1.2 **ANALYSIS OF THE PROBLEM**

The factors which influence the self-actualisation of the adolescent, may include a number of factors. The emphasis is on the role of the father in each of these factors.

1.2.1/.....

### 1.2.1 **Value system in the home**

It is suggested that the choice of values play a role in achievement and school behaviours. This includes the values of the parents, specifically the father, and also that of the child as well as how readily the child identifies with the values of the parents.

It has also been established that it is in the home where the foundation for value acquisition is laid.

According to the role-modelling theory, children adopt behaviours which they observe in significant others. During the early years of life, the parents usually constitute the significant others.

It will be attempted (chapter 2) through a review of existing literature on the subject, to show how and to what extent a system of values influences secondary school pupils' attitudes and motivation to academic achievement.

Hanson and Ginsburg (1981:335) have established that the achieving adolescent is the individual who has defined a set of values which enable him to resist negative external influences.

### 1.2.2 **Discipline in the home**

#### 1.2.2.1 **Inconsistent discipline**

Inconsistent discipline is seen in the home where the parents allow a particular kind of behaviour one day and not the next. Frequently in such a home, the parents are not in agreement about the discipline to be exercised. Children are sensitive to the lack of consensus between the parents about discipline and may manipulate parents into acceding to their requests.

The child eventually becomes confused and experiences insecurity about what is expected of him or her.

### **1.2.2.2 Over-indulged children**

Characteristic of the modern Western family since the Second World War, have been children who have been indulged and very little responsibility has been expected of them. They are expected to achieve that which will be of benefit to them, but not that which will be beneficial to the group to which they belong.

They are not expected to contribute to the household and are encouraged, perhaps unwillingly, to be acquisitive. Over-indulged children often have parents who practise authoritarian or permissive parenting styles.

It has been found that children from such homes are often immature and are unable to show initiative. They do not have clearly defined, long-term goals and are intent on immediate gratification of material and physical needs.

A review of past research of the methods of discipline will be discussed in chapter 3.

### **1.2.3 The father's role in the family**

#### **1.2.3.1 Physically/emotionally absent/present father**

Throughout history, the father has commanded respect and has been regarded as the head of the home. However, during the course of history, his function as the head of the home, has not always been the same (Steyn 1987:249).

The father's powers as undisputed patriarch within the family, has diminished gradually during the course of democratisation. He is no longer the formidable unapproachable head of the home he often was during past eras. The latter part of the 20th century has seen the father become more involved with the everyday domestic tasks and duties of the household. This has become necessary as increasing numbers of married women enter the labour market.

The role, in the family, of the latter-20th century father involves teaching values, norms and exercising discipline.

### 1.2.3.1/...

There is increasing evidence that the role of the father is vital to the development of a healthy family life and a positive attitude to academic achievement.

Several researchers (see chapter 4) have found that underachieving children are frequently exposed to inadequate fathering.

### 1.2.3.2 **Mother as the dominant authority figure**

It seems that there is an increased tendency among modern South African mothers to make major child-rearing and discipline decisions without consulting or discussing these decisions with the father.

Frequently this leads to conflict in the home or the father taking a peripheral stance in the functioning of the home and this may influence the child's psychological and emotional development. It would perhaps be necessary to investigate the effect of a mother-dominated household as another factor influencing the child's academic achievement.

Another feature of modern South African society, is the increasing number of single parents, i.e. families where the father or the mother is completely absent from the home. The single-parent is then compelled to exercise discipline but may not be able to do so effectively. There is indications that ineffective discipline may influence academic motivation negatively.

### 1.2.3.3 **Incompatibility between the values and attitude to discipline of the mother and father**

Several studies, among them, the study done by Block, Block & Morrison (1981:965), indicate that the quality of the relationship between parents, significantly affects the child's social and emotional development and the child's psychological functioning.

Their study indicates that where parents are in agreement about values, boys show resourcefulness, verbal facility and acceptance of responsibility for their actions and feelings.

1.2.3.3/....

These boys also show task orientation and intellectual functioning. This is not necessarily the case for girls, however it seems, therefore, that boys are more vulnerable to conflict between parents, than are girls.

1.2.4 **Parental involvement in the child's school - related activities**

Lamb (1976:19) cites several studies which indicate that active father involvement leads to increased intellectual development in boys.

These studies showed that boys with a high scholastic aptitude, usually had a warm relationship with their fathers. Several other researchers who confirm the positive relationship between paternal interest and achievement motivation, include Shinn (1978), Lambert and Hart (1976) and Forehand et al. (1986)

Teahan (1963) quoted in Lamb (1976:246), found that high-achieving girls had fathers who were not dominating.

Parent values and discipline play a major role in the development of self-image which in turn influences that child's attitude to his life. Warm, nurturing and democratic parents, tend to have children who are more mature.

1.2.5 **Community cohesiveness**

Some communities, for example mining communities, frequently have highly transient populations because more mine employees are transferred from one area to another.

Speare et al (1976) quoted in Shumaker and Stokols (1982:11), found that separated or divorced people were more likely than widowed individuals to move from one area to another in search of a more favourable environment.

Rossi & Shlay (1982) quoted in Shumaker and Stokols (1982:11) found that home ownership provided social and psychological security.

Shumaker and Stokols (1982:2) have found in their reviews of the consequences of high population mobility, that early research indicated that frequent relocation often caused the disruption of family life.

1.2.5/...

Research into the area of how community cohesiveness may influence the academic motivation of pupils, is an area which requires further investigation, especially since a large segment of South African society is involved in mining which requires a relatively high transient mode of existence.

The community provides a measure of security for the family, that is, it creates a feeling of belonging. Community relationships are built up over a relatively long period of time.

Families are frequently unable to build up such relationships if they are constantly moving from one area to another. They may experience isolation and a lack of affinity to a community. This may lead to a feeling of insecurity and anxiety.

#### 1.2.6 **Syllabi and curricula relevant to the child's world**

According to Gunter (1983:201) "the school has a very important function to perform in the social education of every rising generation to become good citizens of the community and the State, i.e. the goal of social adulthood."

It is the task of the school to educate the child according to the norms and standards of the community to which he belongs (Gunter 1983:202).

Stenhouse (1987:10) claims that the school's function is to distribute rather than manufacture knowledge. He also states that this knowledge is taken from cultures outside the school and which then determine the school subjects.

It is also very important for parents and teachers to co-operate (Gunter 1983:208) as the school should be an extension of the values and norms in the home and the broader community.

Syllabi and curricula should therefore reflect those fundamental realities contained in the life world of the community. Du Plooy et al (1987:177) assert that "the contents of learning play a very important part in the child's successful access to the adult world. For that reason a great deal of fundamental thinking will have to be done concerning the **nature**, the **choice** and **quantity** of learning contents as well as the **arrangement** of these contents."

1.2.6/...

Vrey (1987:232) states that "a person cannot take an interest in things if he knows nothing about them." Vrey (1987:232) quotes studies done by Jersild and Tasch (1949) and Sawrey and Telford (1968) which have established a significant correlation between interest in school subjects and achievement in those subjects.

According to Jerome Bruner, quoted in Stenhouse (1987:15), an effective way to create interest in a subject is to show that it is worth knowing. He adds that a subject is worth knowing if the knowledge gained, can be used in situations other than those in which the learning has occurred.

### 1.2.7 **Communication between parents and adolescents in the home.**

"Communication is a sharing, verbally and non-verbally of experiences, happenings, knowledge opinions, ideas and it is effectively coloured" (Van den Aardweg and Van den Aardweg 1988:45).

Steyn et al. (1987:339) states that all children experience problems at one time or another when their needs are not met. This may be so because they may not have mastered certain developmental tasks with the result that the child develops negative attitudes towards the developmental task.

Steyn et al (1987:341) states also that is at this time that the child needs to communicate with parents.

The parent who demonstrates that he or she understands that the child has a problem, is the parent who creates a secure climate within which the child feels free to experience new situations.

### 1.2.8 **Nature of self esteem of the adolescent**

"Self-esteem is the degree of positive or negative feeling that one has on the assessment or evaluation of oneself. It is what we feel about ourselves and such feelings are brought about as we compare ourselves with others" (Van den Aardweg & Van den Aardweg 1988:206).

The adolescent develops self esteem according to how he perceives and evaluates himself (Van den Aardweg, Van den Aardweg and le Roux 1985:141).

1.2.8/...

Studies done by Purkey (1970) quoted in Vrey (1987:115), reveal a significant drop in self-esteem among under-achievers. Self-esteem tends to increase with each success experience by the pupil and vice versa.

### 1.2.9 **Parent/teacher pressure and expectations**

According to Van den Aardweg and Van den Aardweg (1988:193), the parent/teacher/adolescent relationship is both cognitive and affective.

Parents with unrealistically high academic expectations, may create anxiety and resentment in their children. Anxiety has been shown to influence achievement motivation negatively.

## 1.3 **PRIORITIES FOR THIS INVESTIGATION**

With regard to the above, the investigator has decided to focus the investigation on the following aspects :

### 1.3.1 **Value Systems**

"A value is that to which a society, cultural group or individual attaches worth, value or significance" (Van den Aardweg and Van den Aardweg 1988:238)

It is intended that this study should investigate whether values influence academic achievement motivation.

### 1.3.2 **Discipline in the home**

The Oxford English Dictionary defines 'discipline' as "system of rules"; "behaviour according to established rules"; "bring under control".

Baumrind (1978) identified 3 major approaches to discipline, namely authoritarian, authoritative and permissive, which parents use. Several researchers have found a significant correlation between the approach to discipline and academic achievement.

### 1.3.3 **The influence of paternal involvement on scholastic achievement**

The presence or absence of the father has consequences for the secondary school child's achievement motivation.

Research indicates a significant correlation between the presence of an actively involved father and positive academic performance.

Steyn (1987:264) states "Gloabaal gesien, dui navorsing dus daarop dat vaderteenwoordigheid van belang is met betrekking tot die algemene ontwikkeling van die kind."

## 1.4 **STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM**

1.4.1 Which values are conducive to academic achievement?

1.4.2 Does the family's perception of the father as authority figure influence academic achievement?

1.4.3 Is the method of discipline in the home conducive to academic achievement?

1.4.4 Does the extent of father involvement in the child's school-related activities influence academic achievement?

## 1.5 **AIMS OF THE INVESTIGATION**

1.5.1 To establish value systems of parents, specifically of fathers of actualising and nonactualising pupils.

1.5.2 To establish the differences in styles of discipline and the differences in attitude to discipline of parents of actualising and nonactualising secondary school pupils.

1.5.3 To establish the family's attitude to the father as authority figure and head of the home in families with actualising and nonactualising pupils.

1.5.4 To establish the extent of active involvement of fathers of actualising and nonactualising pupils.

## 1.6 **EXPLANATION OF TERMS**

### 1.6.1 **Secondary School Pupil**

The term 'secondary school pupil', is meant to include all those pupils who are in standards five to ten, that is from the seventh year of formal schooling to the twelfth and final year of formal schooling. These children are between the ages of twelve and eighteen and are in development stage commonly referred to as 'adolescence'.

1.6.1/...

The secondary phase is divided into the junior (std 5 - 7 ) and senior (std 8 - 10) secondary phases. Children who attend the junior secondary phase include all those between the ages of twelve and fourteen years of age.

The first year (std 5) of the secondary level is completed at primary school. Children who attend the senior secondary phase are normally between fifteen and eighteen years of age.

The secondary school or adolescent pupil is at the formal operational level of reasoning, that is, they reason deductively and think abstractly. The child's thinking is more general and less fused with immediate experience. He is able to formulate hypotheses about situations and examine possible solutions and select the most appropriate solution. He is able to evaluate the consequences of that solution (Vrey, 1987:178 & 179).

It is also during this stage that the child is striving towards developing a healthy self-identity. He/she therefore needs competent role models which to emulate.

A poor self-identity will lead to poor self-esteem and a feeling of powerlessness with resultant under-actualisation.

### 1.6.2 **Underactualisation**

Underactualisation refers to inadequate realisation of given potential (Petrick in Jacobs et al 1985:47).

Characteristics of underactualisation include :

1.6.2.1 Failure to attribute realistic significance to tasks.

1.6.2.3 Unfavourable experiences which lead to an unwillingness to become involved in meaningful action (Petrick in Jacobs et al. 1985:47).

Although a great many factors can contribute to under achievement, Kallaghan (1977:754) refers to numerous studies which confirm the theory which claims that "measures of home are more closely related to measures of scholastic attainment - particularly in the basic school subjects than to measures of intelligence."

Watson, Brown and Swick (1983) in their own study and with reference to various other studies, on the relationship of parents' support to children's school achievement, found a significant relationship between active parental achievement and scholastic actualisation.

### 1.6.3 **Authority**

According to v.d. Aardweg and v.d. Aardweg (1988:26) "authority is the power one has to enforce obedience, to command and to make the ultimate decisions."

It is the responsibility of parents, teachers and educators to assist the child to accept and realise the values and norms of society and for that, they need to be in a position of authority.

"The education of the child for adulthood and thus for commitment to a realisation of values, together with acceptance of and compliance with moral imperatives and norms, implies authority: the authority of values and norms" (Gunter C.F.G. 1983:37).

The home and the school are the two institutions in which the child is constantly presented with the standards and demands of life (v.d. Aardweg & v.d. Aardweg 1988:227).

The adult is responsible for guiding the non-adult to become what he ought to become in accordance with the norms and values of society.

"The educator is the child's substitutional conscience. He chooses and acts on behalf of the child by taking up responsibility, also for the child" (du Plooy et al. 1987:181).

A relationship of authority implies interaction between an adult and a non-adult. Without authority there cannot be an education situation, for education implies an authority relationship (v.d. Aardweg & v.d. Aardweg 1988:27). Ready acceptance by the educand of the authority of the educator necessitates a relationship between the adult and non-adult of trust and understanding and pedagogic love.

The adolescent needs the authoritative guidance of an adult to arrive at meaningful adulthood.

### 1.6.4 **Discipline**

"Discipline is the pedagogic exercise of authority by the educator in the interest and to the advantage of the educand" (Gunter 1983:144)..

Various styles of discipline are evident in any given society.

Three major styles of discipline are :

- 1.6.4.1 **Authoritarian** discipline implies that the educator has total control. Unquestioning obedience is expected by parents who use this style of discipline. Children subject to this style of authority little independence and social responsibility as they are apt to be dependent because norms and values have not been intrinsically established (v.d. Aardweg & v.d. Aardweg 1988:26).
- 1.6.4.2 At the other end of the scale the **permissive** parent believes that the decisions should be left to the child. These parents are non-controlling and discipline is inconsistent and unconvincing. These parents play a passive role. Children who are exposed to this style of discipline are often found to have a negative work attitude.
- 1.6.4.3 A third style of discipline, the **democratic or authoritative** style allows the child to make decisions. The parent sympathetically, yet authoritatively, guides the adolescent in his decision-making. The parent is, however, firm in his convictions about obedience to appropriate behaviour and the parent also maintains a significant measure of control. This style of authority develops a more friendly and co-operative disposition in boys and increases self-reliance and achievement orientation in girls.

#### 1.6.5 Values

A value is an enduring belief in that a specific mode of conduct end state of existence is personally or socially preferable to an opposite or converse mode of conduct or end-state of existence (Rockeach 1973:5).

The Alport Vernon Lindzey test of values has categorised values into, among others, religious, social and moral values.

- 1.6.5.1 **Religious** values focus on the individual's questions about the universe and the meaning of life. Personal religion means a faith and hope to which an adolescent can cling during the uncertainties and vicissitudes of his development (Vrey 1987:182).

1.6.5.2 **Social** values focus on the importance attached by the individual to other people. Successful self-actualisation always calls for integration between individuation and socialisation (Vrey 1987:191).

Individuation is a Jungian concept that explains the process whereby a psychological separation from the parents takes place. This is a gradual process which passes through a number of stages, namely: at the end of infancy, the end of the pre-school years and in adolescence (van den Aardweg and van den Aardweg 1988:115).

Socialisation is the learning process related to growth of social relationships and social behaviours which encourages the acceptable assimilation of the individual into society. Rules, customs, attitudes and other details of the culture are learned (v.d. Aardweg & v.d. Aardweg 1988:217).

1.6.5.3 **Moral** values include that which the individual believes to be right or wrong, good or bad. Jersild, quoted in Vrey (1987:182) claims that adolescents are likely to support the ideas of right and wrong held by the adults in their society.

1.6.6 **Value Vacuum** (Lack of a value system)

Since the Second World War various principles of Liberalism have been advocated by society.

Liberalism focuses on the rights of the individual. The individual has the right to freedom of speech. The individual is also entitled to demand that society be responsible for advancing the individual's happiness (Landman et al. 1982:422).

The adverse effect of the liberalistic life-view is that the adolescent experiences confusion and uncertainty.

The confusion and uncertainty experienced by the adolescent is partly the result of permissiveness in the application of discipline. The educand is left to make decisions and to solve problems without the assistance of an educator. The authoritative guidance of the adult is consequently, not trusted and accepted by the adolescent.

#### 1.6.6/...

This point of view propagates freedom of the individual even at the expense of community needs. The distancing of the individual from the vital security and support of the community., results in confusion, insecurity and an aimless existence. A youth cannot evaluate his own worth, dignity, vigour and vitality if what he is matching himself against is a vacuum or a social order that yields too easily and is therefore less mature than the youth (Vrey 1987:191). A value vacuum results in the individual need for immediate gratification of self as well as a lack of long term goals and a total lack of consideration for the needs of others.

#### 1.6.7 **Norms**

Each society has a set of behaviours which is transmitted from one generation to the next. They are culturally determined (v.d. Aardweg & v.d. Aardweg, 1988:156). Thibaut and Kelley quoted in Wegner (1975:19) define norms as "a rule of behaviour which is observed at least to some degree by both members".

#### 1.6.8 **The Role of the Father in the Family**

A significant volume of research exists to dispel the myth that the role of the father in the child's development is an insignificant one. An authoritative father figure is an important variable in determining the optimal development of the secondary school pupil.

It is expected of the father to be a link between the nuclear family and the broader society. The father's role is therefore largely instrumental in nature. He determines the family's adaptation to the broader system.

The father-absent child will be unable to bridge the gap between himself and the society and may feel alienated from the society of which he is a part.

The father is responsible for the standard of living of the nucleus family. The father represents the norms which determine adulthood in the broader society. Norms are standardised ways of acting and are culturally determined (v.d. Aardweg & v.d. Aardweg 1988:156).

1.6.8/....

Steyn et a. (1987:258) quotes (Biller 1974:1) who says that "Paternal deprivation can lead to conflicts and rigidities in the individual's sex role adjustment, which in turn are often related to deficits in emotional, cognitive, and interpersonal functioning."

#### 1.6.9 **Paternal Involvement**

Paternal involvement is indicated in the father who provides the child with frequent opportunities to observe, and in the case of boys, to imitate him (Branchard 1971:301).

With reference to Martin's (1985) study, Le Roux (1990:5) states that it is not enough for the father merely to be present.

Radin quoted in Lamb (1976:268 & 9), states that the **amount** of father involvement must be borne in mind. According to Radin, skills related to mathematics are influenced by the amount of father involvement to which the child is exposed.

With regard to girls, Hetherington and Deur (1971:237) claim that the more "a father participates in constructive interplay with his daughter and the more this interaction involves access for her to learn specific activities defining her feminine role, the more adequate will be her identity."

Lam (1976:133) quotes Biller's (1971) claim that "when a father plays an active and competent masculine role in the family, his daughter is likely to imitate his non-sextyped positive attributes and develop a broad, adaptive cognitive and interpersonal behavioural repertoire."

Biller (1971) quoted in Lam (1976:107) cites Block's (1971) study which found that "males who achieved a successful emotional and interpersonal adjustment in adulthood had both fathers and mothers who were highly involved and responsible in their upbringing."

#### 1.6.10 **Academic achievement**

By academic achievement is meant that the pupil reaches a level of scholarly competence which is approved by the society of which the pupil is a member.

"Achievement is usually associated with mental success but it is also possible on physical and social levels" (Van den Aardweg and Van den Aardweg 1988:8).

1.6.10/...

"The need for achievement calls for increasing involvement in tasks and with the objects he encounters" (Vrey 1987:77).

According to Barret (1957) and Brookover (1965) quoted in Vrey (1987:115) there is a definite correlation between achievement and self-concept. Vrey (1987:112) defines self-concept as "an integrated structure of perceptions, ideas and attitudes which the individual has formed about himself." Whether the child accepts himself in a positive or negative light depends on whether he is accepted by his parents, friends and teachers (Coopersmith 1967 quoted in Vrey 1987:92).

#### 1.6.11 **Motivation**

Motivation is that desire within the individual to achieve a goal which the individual has set for himself.

"Motivation grows from a need to be competent (White); from a need for self-actualisation (Maslow); from a need to become functional (Rogers); from a need for personal adequacy (Combs & Snygg); from a need for some satisfactory level of self-realisation - a need to be somebody (Hamachek)" (Van den Aardweg and Van den Aardweg 1988:138).

According to Vrey (1987:229) "every motivational state requires that the person (whether child or adult) should engage in perception and significance attribution, and that he should be totally involved in these activities.

### 1.7 **PROGRAMME OF INVESTIGATION**

In order to establish the role of the father in the academic life of the child, it will perhaps be necessary to investigate the values, attitude to discipline and extent of paternal involvement in the home of achieving and under-achieving secondary school children. This investigation will proceed from a literature study of the above aspects.

In **chapter two** the investigation will include a literature review of the following aspects:

- The changes in value systems since World War Two.
- Types of values, for example, religious, social, and whether they lead to goal achievement in secondary school pupils.

1.7/...

- The manifestations of a "value vacuum", that is, the influence on modern youth, of a lack of values.

In the following chapter (**chapter three**), the investigation will focus on the following aspects:

- Parental attitudes to authority
- The influence of discipline on moral development.
  - The consequences of the liberalistic approach.
  - Manifestations of ineffectual discipline
  - The effect of various styles of discipline, for example, authoritarian.

The main focus of this research project centres on the influence of father involvement, values and discipline on the adolescent's academic achievement.

**Chapter four** deals with a literature study on the following aspects :

- The actively involved father
- The absent father
  - physical
  - psychological
- The influence on the absent father on the child's scholastic achievement.
- The father as main authority figure and mother in a supportive role during the adolescent stage.
- Father and mother in conflicting roles - the influence on the adolescent.

**Chapter five** will comprise the design of the empirical investigation.

The study will involve an investigation into the academic achievement of secondary school pupils in a large rural town in the Transvaal, South Africa.

The population of the town is composed of a strong mining community which implies a very fluid population because of the frequent transfers from one mining town to another. The town also consists of a strong business-orientated community where small businesses are frequently established, but which do not on average continue to operate for any significant period of time. Data will be drawn from English, Afrikaans, Indian English speaking and Tswana-speaking citizens.

Subjects will be drawn from the following groups within the community:

- Parents of secondary school pupils
- Secondary school pupils - standard 8.

1.7/...

Data to be collected will include :

- Difference between actualising and nonactualising secondary school pupils in respect of :
  - Styles of discipline used in the home.
  - Extent of paternal involvement in the life of the adolescent.
  - Hierarchy of values in the home.
  - Values of actualising and nonactualising secondary school pupils.
  - Goals of actualising and nonactualising secondary school pupils.
  - Influence of the father's involvement on the scholastic achievement of secondary school pupils.

**Chapter six** will consist of the results of the empirical investigation.

The **final** chapter will include :

- Findings from the literature study.

## CHAPTER TWO

### THE INFLUENCE OF FAMILY VALUES ON THE ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION OF SECONDARY SCHOOL PUPILS

#### 2.1 INTRODUCTION

A number of definitions of the concept **value** have been suggested. The most comprehensive definition is that of Rokeach (1973) quoted in Whitbeck and Getas (1988:830), who stated that “a value is an enduring belief that a specific mode of conduct or end-state of existence preferable to an opposite or converse mode of conduct or endstate of existence.”

Van den Aardweg and Van den Aardweg (1988:238) define **values** as “that to which a society, cultural group or individual attaches worth, value or significance.”

**Values** are defined by Collier (1984) quoted in Collier (1989:60) as “those objects or conditions of life on which people set a value, and do so, not simply at a conscious level, of explicit intention, but at the deeper level of the driving purposes or aspirations of their lives.”

Every society functions according to beliefs and values “which underlie its norms and prescribe patterns of behaviour” (Gerdes 1988:188).

Traub and Dodder (1988:977) distinguish between values and norms by quoting Kluckhohn’s (1961) and Williams’s (1961) definitions of values as a “general statement concerning standards of preference or goals, and by quoting Davis’s (1966) definition of norms as that which “specify the rules to be followed if a corresponding value is to be actualised.”

Van Rensburg and Landman (1984:421) see values as those aspects of reality that are worth striving for, and state that a “value is the specific significance that something has for man.”

From the number of definitions of values quoted above, it is clear that there is consensus about the fact that societies all have ideal behaviour patterns towards which they strive.

The question posed by Alschuler and Irons (1973:325), is why some children have a “restless, driving energy aimed at doing things better, faster, more efficiently, getting ahead, improving on past records, beating competitors or finding unique solutions to difficult problems?”, while others display only apathy.

Various researchers, among them, Stehbens & Carr (1970:72), Barnett (1981:838), Schaefer (1991:240), and many others point out that the family structure with its value system plays a very significant role in the development of achievement motivation in secondary school pupils. Others, among them, Whitbeck and Gecas (1988:829), Parsons, Adler & Kaczala (1982:310) and Schaefer (1987:373) believe that **parental values** are significantly correlated with **academic achievement motivation**.

However, other studies, among them, (Munns 1972:524), Line & Golombek (1974:158) Bengston (1975) quoted in Whitbeck & Gecas (1988:829) and McBroom et al., (1985:160) suggest that adolescents acquire values only partially in the home environment and more significantly outside the home, for example, through peer influences.

Ginsburg (1988:334) and a number of researchers and educators agree that when students, their parents, and their peers value responsibility, pupils have a better chance of achieving success in high school.

A review by Hanson and Ginsburg (1988:338) of research on values and school success, found that values and achievement are significantly correlated, but the nature and direction of the correlation has not been established with any great certainty.

Although it has been indubitably established that values influence achievement motivation, studies have been conducted especially since 1920, to establish **how** values and **which** values influence achievement motivation.

It seems that values significantly determine how the family copes and interacts with the broader society, with concomitant effects on the academic achievement motivation of the adolescent.

It would seem that the type of value would also influence the family's interaction with society.

## 2.2 **TYPES OF VALUES**

Several researchers have attempted to classify values. Among these are Rokeach's classification (1973), Spranger's classification and Kohn's (1969) classification.

Rokeach (1973) has identified two types of values; **terminal and instrumental values**. He describes **terminal** values as those which refer to end-states of existence, for example, world peace or freedom.

2.2/.....

**Instrumental** values are those which refer to modes of conduct, for example, honesty and responsibility.

### 2.2.1 **Spranger's Classification of Values**

Spranger developed a classification of values which originate, according to him, from six basic interests in personality (Allport, 1970:3). Spranger's values have been classified as follows, Allport (1970:4 & 5) and Jordaan & Jordaan (1989:668) :

1. **The Theoretical** values involve the discovery of truth. The striving after the truth necessarily involves a cognitive attitude, which seeks to establish a link between the concrete and the abstract. The individual who subscribes to theoretical values, needs to systematise and order his knowledge.
2. **The Economic** values include an interest in what can be put to use and what is practical. The person with economic values, is impatient with unapplied knowledge.  
According to Spranger, the value of utility can come into conflict with the aesthetic values. Everything must be useful according to this value orientation. The economic man is more concerned with wealth (accumulation of tangible assets), than with people.
3. **The Aesthetic** man believes that "to make a thing charming is a million times more important than to make it true" (Mencken quoted in Allport, 1970:4). In each experience, form and harmony are of greater value to the aesthetic man than the accuracy thereof. This value orientation strives for active involvement in musical and artistic activities.

2.2.1/...

4. **The Social** values include a love of people. The person who prizes highly, social values is kind, sympathetic and unselfish. Other people are not seen as a means to an end, but are important in themselves.
5. **The Political** values concern mainly power. Leaders in any sphere of society tend to have high power value. This value orientation includes a need to be well-known and a need to acquire influence.
6. **The Religious** man strives after unity with creation. In 'Types of Men' (1928), Spranger explains that man does not belong exclusively to one or another of the above mentioned values, but that within one individual a mixture of values exist.

Allport (1970:3) has identified a weakness in Spranger's typology namely, that he neglects sensuous values.

#### 2.2.2 **Kohn's Classification of Values**

Kohn perceives values as preferred standards of behaviour which parents would most like to see in their children.

He devised a rank order of parental values (self-direction vs conformity) for children, which is frequently used by researchers in revised form in research on parental beliefs and attitudes regarding child-rearing practices.

Kohn (1969) has identified several variables which may influence parental values. An important variable is that of **social class**. In his study of the relationship between low social status and working conditions, Kohn concluded that low socio-economic status was significantly correlated to a high valuation of conformity (Sigel 1985:101).

According to Kohn (1985:101) strong social prescriptions, even among high socio-economic status groups, affect how well people function at more perspectivistic levels. He also identifies a lack of knowledge, specifically about human development, as influencing perspectivistic thinking, that is, the way parents interpret the behaviour of their children.

## 2.3 CHANGES IN VALUE SYSTEM

Several longitudinal studies have indicated shifts in value orientation during the second half of his century.

Alwin's (1984) study involved changes in parental socialisation values in the Detroit metropolitan area during a 25 year period, from 1958 to 1983.

The most significant shift is the emphasis on self-direction and autonomy as opposed to conformity which was prevalent before the second world war. In the past the emphasis was on **obedience**, but changes in parental values have shifted the emphasis to **independence**. Lowenthal (1984) identified the basic value of modern western civilisation as "a belief in the autonomy of reason as a key to the understanding of an ordered universe; a belief in the uniqueness of the individual born with inalienable rights; a belief in the need to draw a borderline between individual will and communal needs by legal institute; and a valuation of work ... as giving meaning of life and not just a necessary evil" (Collier 1988:22).

### 2.3.1 Socio-demographic factors

As each new generation emerges, social changes occur which influence what parents regard as possible and desirable for their children (Alwin 1990:348).

Studies done by Yankelovich (1979) indicated a greater valuation of "postmaterial values" such as leisure and self-expression" (Manheim 1988:270).

Gerdes (1989:188) suggests that the modern emphasis on individual freedom rather than subservience to the family may be a contributing factor towards marital instability. Chilman (1979) quoted in Gerdes (1989:188) believes that the excessive concern with the self may make it difficult for the individual to understand the needs of other members of the family.

Several studies focusing on changes in value systems, indicate that the emphasis has shifted from stress on excellence of achievement to striving towards being successful (Rokeach, 1979:25). However, Williams in Rokeach (1979:35) interprets available literature on the subject as a shift in emphasis on values and claims that achievement remains an important value.

### 2.3.1/...

Barnett (1981:845) suggests that parental child-rearing values are influenced by **changing attitudes towards sex roles**, but raises the question about whether new values will be strong enough to negate the influence of traditional values when life choices need to be made.

Alwin (1984) quoted in Schaefer (1991:240) states that increases in levels of **education** during this century brought about changes in parent values for children (parental modernity).

Kohn (1969) refers to Blauner, (1966) who claims that increased levels of education is partly due to industrialisation which increased the general level of occupational self-direction. Education increasingly influences automation, creating thinking tasks and providing more opportunities for occupational self-direction.

Alwin (1984:361) indicates that more research needs to be done on changes in child-rearing practices over periods of times and also on how changes in socio-economic factors have influenced parental values. Other socio-demographic factors influencing parent child-rearing values are: the increasing number of **women in the labour market** which in turn delays childbearing and reduces the size of families; **better-educated mothers** are more concerned with spending quality time with their children; the increasing number of **single-parent families**.

Macke & Morgan (1978:188) also identified several other socio-demographic factors which influence child-rearing values.

In the American context, black mothers, more so than white mothers, are likely to **work away from home** while their children are young. The South African situation is similar, but perhaps for different reasons. Most black mothers in South Africa are compelled financially to work. According to Macke and Morgan (1978:188) several researchers have drawn the conclusion that the high rate of maternal employment is partially the reason for the perpetuation of instability and low incomes of black families.

In the American context there is no stigma attached to black working mothers and they are not as concerned about controlled supervision of their young children. In South Africa, black mothers are frequently ignorant about the necessity of, or unable to provide for controlled supervision of their young children.

Although Alwin (1984:379) refers to several studies which reveal that black parents are less likely than white parents to prefer autonomy in children and are more likely to prefer obedience, he also mentions more recent research which indicates that the child-rearing practices of the black parent in America are becoming more similar to that of their white counterparts over time.

Religious values also seem to influence parents' choice of values. Alwin (1984:379) found in his Detroit study that there were indications that **Catholic** ethnic groups of European descent were moving away from the values of conformity and obedience, to the encouragement of an increasing autonomy in their children. He found that "education significantly influenced change in values among religio-ethnic groups."

Alwin's (1984, 1986) studies indicated a significant shift in values among Catholics, from obedience to autonomy as the Catholic Church loses its influence over its members, and as families accept more personal autonomy in decision-making (Alwin, 1990:353).

Herberg (1964) states that **Protestant** values, including "duty, discipline, character, diligence and achievement" have been replaced with values which stress "pleasure, happiness and instant gratification of needs or desires" (Gerdes, 1989:189).

Changes in value systems are taking place so rapidly in the twentieth century, that conflicts of values are on the increase. Television and rapid technological and transport advancement have brought contrasts of customs and beliefs within the reach of ordinary people. The interpenetration of cultural values may cause conflicts and clashes of values (Collier 1989:60).

Alwin (1990:347) also identified a number of reasons for the rapid changes in the nature of values in the twentieth century. Among these were, the increasing number of working women who have small children, the increased rate of divorce and single-parent households and with it the changing attitudes towards marriage and family life.

Spade (1991:344) has observed that changes in the role of women in the home and the work place have led to social structure changes which have had an effect on women's values as well as the relationships in the home.

### 2.3.1/...

Alwin (1984:379) suggests that a fruitful area for research would be to establish the relationship between influence of education and occupational factors and value orientations.

### 2.3.2 Shift in orientation

Sebald's (1986:5) study of the changes that have occurred in the orientation of young people toward parents and peers over a period of two decades, revealed that whereas girls were highly parent-oriented and boys highly peer-oriented in the 1960's, a more balanced picture emerged in the 1980's.

The findings of Sebald's (1985:11) study determined the existence of dual reference groups (parents and peers) in the adolescent's life.

Sebald (1986:11) quoted Montemayor, (1982) who claims that "adolescents spend equal amounts of time with parents and peers but engage in very different types of activities - work and task activities with parents, play and recreation with peers" and that this dualistic orientation need not lead to a hostile confrontation between parents and teenagers.

Studies done by Morris and Small (1971) showed that the most marked changes in value systems of adolescents, in the 20 years between 1950 and 1971, was in valuing tradition less (Gerdes 1989:293).

### 2.3.3 Value Vacuum

Lowenthal (1984) claims that the dynamic nature of Western society together with man's inability to continually reinterpret the basic Western society values, as identified by him, in order to adjust to changing conditions of existence, results in a **value vacuum** (Collier, 1988:23). Individuals who live in a value vacuum are only concerned with immediate self-gratification and seldom think of the consequences of their actions.

Collier (1988:23) also points to the modern tendency to emphasise reason or knowledge at the expense of values.

Johnson (1983) observed that the collapse of religious values in the West left a value vacuum which has been filled by the "will to power." This has been specifically evident in the twentieth century with the rise of many a tyrant. These people impose order without feeling any obligation to ethics (Thompson 1991:119).

2.3.3/...

Laney in Thompson (1991:128) confirms the idea of society's over-emphasis on intellectualism at the expense of values. This emphasis is perpetuated by institutions of higher learning. "This professionalization of the curriculum fosters a manipulative cynicism among our students, an emphasis on the quick payoff and the bottom line" (Thompson 1991:128).

Maslow once commented that man needed values almost as much as he needed sunlight.

Without a system of values, man cannot function and interact with others successfully.

#### 2.3.4 **Parent Modernity**

Parental modernity in child-rearing is significantly related to child competence. Modern parents provide models for child educational and occupational achievement and provide experiences and resources to promote academic competence.

Sparling and Lowman (1983) found that progressive values increased and traditional values decreased with the mother's education and family income.

Modern persons are influenced by modern society which is information-oriented, and prepare their children for participation in such a society. People who live in an urban, multifaceted environment, see themselves as autonomous and intolerant of external controls (Sigel 1985:312).

Schaefer (1987:386) states that although modernity is positively correlated with educational and occupational achievement, it is not significantly correlated with social and emotional adjustment.

### 2.4 **PARENTS' ROLE IN THE ACQUISITION OF VALUES**

#### 2.4.1 **Social class determines values**

**Social class** according to Van den Aardweg and Van den Aardweg (1988:218) is "based on family level of education, occupation and income."

As stated earlier, research has proved that values and achievement motivation are inextricably linked. Research has also established the vital role played by parents in children's acquisition of values.

#### 2.4.1/...

Within any given society values will differ widely from family to family. Several studies, among them Kohn's study of the relation between values and parenting behaviour (Luster et al. 1989:139), have shown that these differences were positively correlated with social class.

Kohn, Schooler and colleagues in their research (1988), found socio-economic status to be the most powerful social structural predictors of parental values" (Spade 1991:344).

Kohn stated in his (1963) study that the values important to parents, would influence the way they would respond to their children. Parental behaviour would include emphasis on either conformity to external rules or developing self-directedness. Kohn, Schooler and colleagues (1988) confirmed Kohn's earlier study (1963) that self-direction is more highly valued by parents from higher social classes and those with higher occupational self-direction than parents from lower social classes and with lower occupational self-direction, who value conformity to external authority (Spade 1991:345).

Kohn (1969:21) has established that middle-class mothers emphasise values which reflect internal dynamics (self-direction), that is, the child's concern for himself and for other people, while working-class mothers emphasise values which reflect behavioural conformity to externally imposed rules, for example, obedience and neatness.

##### 2.4.1.1 **Father's occupation**

Many studies measure socio-economic status by the father's occupation. Burns, Homel & Goodnow (1984:219) discuss Kohn's studies (1969, 1977), which suggest that the link between socio-economic status and parental values stems from the nature of the father's occupation. The degree of self-direction or conformity required by the father's job decides the qualities that parents will value for their children.

Fathers in higher status jobs value opportunities for the utilisation of initiative, independent thought and judgement in their work. Higher status jobs require a greater degree of self-direction, while lower status jobs preclude or limit opportunities for self-directive activities (Kohn, 1969:141).

#### 2.4.1.1/...

Kohn (1969:151) concludes that “men who work under occupational conditions that facilitate the exercise of self-direction are likely to value self-direction for their children; men who work under occupational conditions that inhibit or preclude the exercise of self-direction are likely to value conformity.” Kohn (1969:190) claims that the conformist values held by lower classes may be a result of limited education and constricting job conditions.

However, Spade (1991:353) also found that women scored higher on parental values of self-directedness, even though they may have lower occupational self-direction and education than do men. She suggests that this may be due to the fact that women’s family responsibilities require a high level of organisation and self-direction or that women as chief child-rearers may encourage independence in children, giving mothers more time for themselves, but suggests that this aspect of research needs further investigation.

In 1969 Kohn and colleagues conducted a study to establish whether the relationship of class to values is universal. Their study included parents from Washington, United States of America and Turin, Italy, two vastly different areas with regard to history, culture and material conditions of life. Their study revealed that the relationship of social class to parental values follows much the same pattern in both countries.

In order to answer the question: “what is the specific effect of the home environment on selected attitudes and in what way are these attitudes related to performance in school?”, the theoretical framework of Harrison’s (1968) study was developed out of the model of social behaviour of Getzels (1963, 1966). Included in the study were the relationships among cultural values, institutional expectations and individual motives for different classes of people within the culture (Harrison 1968:323). Harrison (1968) suggests that achievement may be the result of congruence between the expectations and values of the child and that of the institutions with which he is involved.

#### 2.4.1.2 Value Conformity vs Self-direction

**Conformity** to external rules includes obedience, displaying good manners and politeness. **Self-direction** entails encouraging a child's curiosity about how and why things happen, self control and responsibility (Luster et al. 1989:139).

Kohn (1969:189) explains **self-direction** as "acting on the basis of one's own judgement, attending to internal dynamics as well as to external consequences, being open-minded, being trustful of others, holding personally responsible moral standards. **Conformity** implies absolute obedience to authority, focusing on external consequences to the exclusion of internal processes."

The difference between how conformity and self-direction evolves, is the amount of freedom of action allowed by actual conditions of life, and the extent to which the individual considers himself to be in control of his destiny.

Schaefer (1991:239), as have so many researchers before him, believes that child competence is positively related to the parent's self-directing or conforming values and to democratic or authoritarian discipline styles.

In his (1979) study Kohn proposed that "because their values are different, middle- and working-class parents evaluate differently the relative importance of support and constraint in child rearing" (Luster et al. 1989:140). He agrees that the values to which parents ascribe, will influence their child-rearing styles.

Rosen (1964:67) states that lower class parents are more likely to scold or spank, whereas middle and higher class parents are more likely to resort to a kiss or hug as evidence of support and approval. Bronfenbrenner (1958) quoted in Kohn (1969:91) refers to several studies which suggest that "working-class parents are consistently more likely to employ physical punishment while middle-class families rely more on reasoning, isolation, appeals to guilt and other methods involving the threat of loss of love."

Disciplinary practices will be discussed more fully in chapter three.

#### 2.4.1.2/...

According to Spade (1991:344) research done by Kohn and his colleagues (1988) supports the claim that “social structural conditions that encourage or discourage an individual’s self-directed behaviour are related to their orientations toward children, more specifically to whether they believe self-direction is valuable for children.”

Kohn’s study also found that parents who valued conformity, tended to restrain and discipline more frequently, while parents who valued self-direction encouraged exploration and responded more frequently to their children in a warm, nurturant manner.

Values regarded as important by parents who strive for self-direction in their children include, a good sense and sound judgement, responsibility and curiosity about their environment. Parents who value conformity to external rules, strive for neatness and cleanliness, good manners, obedience to parents and sex-appropriate behaviour (Spade 1991:345).

“What a parent believes is appropriate parenting behaviour, depends upon the outcomes he or she values most and his or her understanding of how parenting behaviour influences the developing child” (Luster et al. 1989:145). Kohn’s study (1974), confirmed by many other studies, has therefore established that child-rearing practices are influenced by parental values which are in turn related to social class (Luster et al. 1989:146).

Kohn, Hess and Shipman have shown that parents from a higher socio-economic level are more likely to encourage interest in books, independence, originality and managerial skills as well as developing skills to find one’s own information than are lower socio-economic parents (Raven 1987:27). Rosen (1964:67) stated that higher social class parents tend to encourage mastery skills very early in the child’s life. Raven (1987:29) further suggested that it is almost solely the parents who promote the “development of independence, capacity to observe, the capacity to organise one’s life and confidence in dealing with adults.”

#### 2.4.1.2/...

The question then arises as to how these values, as determined by social class and other factors, influence cognitive development as well as academic achievement.

#### 2.4.1.3 The Influence of Parental Values on Cognitive Development and Achievement Motivation

In 1964, Katkovsky, Preston & Crandall found that parents encourage the same attitude to achievement in their children as they have (Heckhausen, 1968:153).

Schaefer (1987) found that child-rearing beliefs, values for children and parent behaviours during infancy and the pre-school years were positively related to child academic ability and achievement motivation.

Raven (1987:21) found in his evaluation of a pre-school home-visiting program, that many parents, especially among low socio-economic status groups, did not value cognitive development as might always have been assumed by educationists in the past. These parents generally devalued curiosity, inquisitiveness, an interest in ideas and bookishness. They felt threatened by the possibility that their children may become more knowledgeable than they were and perhaps challenge the status quo and their authority.

Spade's (1991:349) study of the relationship between men's and women's occupational experiences and the values that they hold for children, revealed that **parents' educational backgrounds** are strongly correlated with their parental values.

Schaefer & Edgerton (1985) found that "both parental beliefs and values are significantly correlated with parent education and with child intelligence test scores and teacher ratings of child competence" (Schaefer 1991:240).

Several researchers have established a positive relationship between achievement motivation in children and the level of parents' education, especially that of the father (Heckhausen 1968:160).

#### 2.4.1.3/...

Hanson and Ginsburg (1988:337) claim that parental values can affect their children's achievement in a number of ways, for example by the emphasis they place on education and hard work and they are also able to exercise control over their children's behaviours relating to school activities.

Education influences values, for example self-direction requires intellectual flexibility, tolerance of nonconformity and a degree of analytic ability that is difficult to achieve without formal education and is therefore not highly sought after by those who have not had opportunities to develop these skills.

Several studies have shown that lower levels of parental education was positively correlated with parental authoritarianism and lower child competence (Schaefer 1991:240). Parental authoritarianism includes the attitude that all children should receive uniform treatment, that children learn passively and that the aim of education is to instil information. This attitude influences the parental child-rearing behaviour with the result that the child achieves at a lower level. Progressive democratic parental child-rearing practices include "encouraging children's verbalisation of ideas, imagination and playfulness, children learn actively and the aim of education is learning how to learn" (Schaefer 1991:241).

**High socio-economic status** parents unlike **low-socio-economic status** parents believe that parents are responsible for earning the respect of their children and their actions are influenced by this. Children whose parents treat them with respect, would be accorded the opportunity to practise complex cognitive activities when they are able to practise the cognitive processes, mentioned previously, which they see in their parents.

Higher status parents are more likely to discuss their actions, reasons and probable long-term consequences of actions and decisions with their children (Raven 1987:31). They are more likely to encourage distancing in their children.

#### 2.4.1.3/...

McGillicuddy-Delisi quoted in Sigel (1985:10 & 11) explains the term “distancing” as “parental behaviours that encourage the child to anticipate possible future actions or outcomes, reconstruct past events, employ imagination in dealing with objects, events and people, and attend to the transformation of phenomena”.

Johnson and Martin’s investigation into how parental beliefs relate to aspects of the home as learning environment and how it influences a kindergarten child’s level of cognitive abilities, discussed in Sigel, (1985:39) indicates that distancing techniques in child-rearing, are more highly valued by parents from middle-class homes than parents from lower socio-economic levels, perhaps because middle-class parents have more education and therefore are more aware of how child-rearing practices influence cognitive development in their children. Middle-class parents may thus encourage independence, activity, intellectuality and achievement to a greater extent than do lower-class parents.

Research done by Sewell et al. (1969); Sewell & Hauser (1972); Ekstrom (1985) and Rock et al. (1985) as quoted by Hanson and Ginsburg (1988:337), found “parents’ educational expectations and aspirations to be critical factors in predicting educational attainment and achievement” (Hanson & Ginsburg (1988:337).

Gerber (1976:91 & 92) found in her study that **parental conflict** on value-related issues, resulted in children who underachieve or overachieve.

It was discovered that a significant correlation exists between conflict between parents over theoretical values, and learning problems. This is so because theoretical values are most directly related to achievement in school. Theoretical values involve valuing intellectual interests, the discovery of truth and the acquisition of knowledge. Learning disabilities may result in further polarisation of the parents, where one parent is accepting of the child, while the other rejects the child’s disability.

#### 2.4.1.3/...

Parsons, Adler & Kaczala (1982:311) explain the **role-modelling theory** which states that children adopt behaviours which they observe in significant others, using the following example: “girls show different achievement choices and have lower expectancies than boys because mothers show different achievement behaviours and have lower achievement expectancies than fathers.”

Parsons, Adler & Kaczala (1982:311) found in their review of the literature on the role of parents as expectancy socialisers, that parents and teachers have higher educational expectancies for boys than for girls, although this becomes more evident as the child becomes older. Parsons, Adler & Kaczala (1982) quoted Hoffman’s (1972) study which claims that parents encourage independence in their sons more than in their daughters and they acknowledge their sons’ abilities more than their daughters.

Kalinowski & Sloane’s (1981:86) study has also identified variables in the home which influence school achievement. These are: “the parental press for achievement; the quality of language used by the parents; the availability and quality of help provided by the home; the intellectual interests and activities of the family; the encouragement to explore and the structure and routine in home management” Kalinowski & Sloane (1981:86).

The results of their study showed that the home has its greatest influence on the **child’s language development**. All these variables seem to exert their influence by means of parental attitudes and values, for example a high prestige occupation will allow a father to provide a complex and stimulating home environment with many opportunities for cognitive development (Kalinowski & Sloan 1981:89).

Niehaus, Myburgh & Ferreira (1989:803), however, point out that although parents may be able to create a positive educational climate within the family structure, the demands of modern society may cause neglect in the education of the child, for example, the parents may be “psychologically absent.”

#### 2.4.1.3/....

In other words, they may not be actively involved, or communicate meaningfully with the child, thinking it sufficient to provide educational aids.

In their (1959) study, Mussen & Distler set out to prove their hypothesis that educational achievement is not influenced as much by types of parental control measures as by the degree of **parental involvement** in the child's life.

They found that "students of lesser mental ability have parents who employ more anxiety producing, inconsistent, hostile behaviour patterns in their dealings with their children than do parents who have children of greater intellectual ability" (Heckhausen 1968:157). This was confirmed by Morrow and Wilson's (1961) study which indicated that children who are successful at school, had parents who were more approving, trusting and affectionate, encouraged achievement but did not exert pressure. They were also more likely to share in their children's activities (Heckhausen 1968:156).

Heckhausen (1968:157) identified the **home environmental characteristics** of the parents of the high achiever as: high aspirational levels for their children; parents showed more appreciation and warmth, harmonious person relations, mother encouraged achievement competence by positive and negative sanctions, father encouraged his son's autonomy by a sympathetic attitude towards self-reliance.

A study comparing families of academic achievers and under-achievers, revealed that parents of under-achieving children were less nurturant, lacked interest in their children's activities and had lower levels of aspirations than parents of achievers.

#### 2.4.1.3/...

Morrow & Wilson's (1961) comparison of two groups of high school boys of superior intelligence who varied in educational achievement, revealed that high-achieving boys had parents who were more **actively involved** in their sons' activities and ideas, more readily showed warm approval and trust, were more affectionate and encouraging of achievement, were less restrictive and severe and their ideas were more readily acknowledged by their sons (Stehbens & Carr 1985:67).

Walberg's (1984) analysis of factors that influence high school learning, established that parental concern and encouragement were far more likely to affect achievement than was the family's socio-economic status (Hanson & Ginsburg 1988:334).

In their study of the relation of expectancy messages to sex differences in children's expectancies and achievement self-concepts, Parsons, Adler & Kaczala (1982:311) used the domain of mathematics. They established that parental beliefs about their children's abilities and plans are sex-related.

Their study also revealed that children's self-concepts and task concepts were influenced more by parents' beliefs than own past performance or their sex.

Research has established, incontrovertibly that verbal intelligence is the best predictor of academic and occupational competence. It has also been established that academic achievement is significantly influenced by motivation. It is therefore very important to educate parents about those parent characteristics that contribute to competence and to enlighten them as to the importance of motivation of both parents and pupils.

(Schaefer 1991:249) & Ginsburg's (1988:338) review of the literature brought to light that those students who are successful at school had parents who monitored their schoolwork and always knew where they adolescent children were. Stehbens & Carr (1985:72) agree that a certain degree of appropriate **parental guidance and control of adolescent behaviour** is necessary for academic success.

#### 2.4.1.3/...

Appropriate parental control is that which can be described as meaningful and helpful parent-child interaction, whereas negative parental behaviour is that which leads to increased physical and psychological distance between parent and child.

However, research done by Hipple (1977:158) revealed that the incongruent achiever does exist. He found, in his study of grade 13 students, whose achievement and educational plans were not congruous with their general background, that despite the fact that these students were from disadvantaged backgrounds they all possessed well formed and well-defined achievement values and goals.

Hippler (1974) suggests that parental values were either positively or negatively responsible and that each of the students could identify someone **outside** the nuclear family who had encouraged a positive attitude towards higher education.

Dr Ophelia Jatta who visited South Africa from the United States of America in 1993, is an example. She was influenced by a teacher in primary school who encouraged achievement in her pupil. Dr. Jatta achieved academic success despite the fact that she is from a fatherless home and that her mother has very little education. According to Truter (1989:166) there are many factors in modern society which may have a detrimental effect on family life. This in turn may have a disturbing influence on the child's scholastic achievement ability.

Christopher (1967:921) cites research done by Frankiel (1969) and Sears (1958) which suggest that a "primary source of achievement motivation may well be a kind of relationship that has been established between a child and his parents and the influences that stem from this relationship."

#### 2.4.1.3/...

Heckhausen (1968:159) believes that broken homes or **troubled family relationships** hinder the development of high achievement motivation. In Truter (1989:166), Pistorius claims that parents may feel **inadequate** in their child-rearing activities and may either do too little or become autocratic and this may lead to deviant or problem behaviour in the child. Kotze (1972) quoted in Truter (1989:166) affirms that many of the behavioural problems exhibited by children in the school environment, stem from the home environment and is an indication of the **powerlessness** felt by the parents to deal effectively with these behavioural problems.

Maniacci and Maniacci (1989:510) ascribe this to the increasing complexity of technology and the increased mobility of today's families, leading to the breakdown of extended families and the family traditions and values.

Parents, especially the father who is away from home for the greater part of each day, have a very limited amount of time to spend on the socialisation of his children. McClelland (1961), Mischel (1961) and Nuttall (1964) found in their respective studies, that **fatherless** societies tended to produce children with low motivation.

It was also shown by Strodbeck (1958) that too much **achievement related pressure** by the father often resulted in a son becoming dependent and developing low achievement motivation (Heckhausen, 1968:159). As discussed in the previous section, parents who value conformity to external rules are less likely to foster a questioning attitude in their children. Parents who value self-direction will encourage their children to foster an enquiring mind. Parents who fostered self-direction more readily encouraged verbal interaction with their children. Schaefer and Edgerton (1985) found that children of parents who valued self-direction, scored higher than children of parents who valued conformity, on language and math scales of the test of Basic Experience (Luster et al. 1989:146).

#### 2.4.1.3/...

Dreikurs & Stoltz (1964) emphasises the importance of encouragement in child-rearing practices and Maniacci & Maniacci (1989:510) adds that this encouragement should also extend to encouraging parents in their child-rearing activities. According to them it is becoming clear that parents are increasingly experiencing a lack of confidence in their parenting skills.

Kalinowski and Sloane (1981:93) conclude from their study of the literature on parental influences on academic achievement, that programmes which train parents to engage in more educationally relevant activities with their children and encourage parents to support their children's academic activities, can positively influence the child's achievement motivation.

Schaefer (1991:239) confirms the theory that parents who have a good knowledge of the importance of their roles as parents, influence the school academic achievement of their children positively. It is therefore important to teach parents about those skills and behaviours which would contribute to educational and occupational achievement (Schaefer 1991:244).

Sameroff and Fiel (1985) quoted in Schaefer (1991:241) concluded that there exists a significant correlation between parents' democratic and authoritarian beliefs and parental self-directing and conforming values and these in turn show a relationship to parents' education and the child's academic competence.

#### 2.4.2 **Socialisation of the Child**

It cannot be emphasised enough that the home environment is vitally important as it is there that socialisation of the child first takes place.

Rosen (1964:59) states that socialisation is initiated by the structure of the family which develops out of the specific roles assigned to each family member. The family structure is influenced by demographic factors which determine the "patterns of affection and authority, the degrees of parental involvement and the expectations parents have of the child" (Rosen 1964:59).

Truter (1989:165) states that the education of the child is essentially the family's rather than the school's responsibility. He quotes Cilliers (1975) who claims that "the family is the most powerful agent in the development of character, because in the family there are agencies at work that are largely, if not entirely, absent from school." It is in the context of the family that the child learns about the adult world as the parents interpret and teach him about the difficult-to-comprehend aspects of adult life. It is here that he develops a sense of security and self-confidence and the courage to explore his world. He learns about values, norms and customs which will later influence his decision-making (Truter 1989:165).

McGillicuddy-De Lisi quoted in Sigel (1985:8) suggests several reasons for the relationship between parental beliefs and child development. Among these are that although parents may not convey their beliefs in any obvious way, it is reflected in the home environment through their actions.

#### **2.4.2.1 Parental responses**

Skinner, discussed in Sigel (1985:52 & 53) claims that, how parents respond, that is, whether they are responsive and sensitive, effects at least two classes of child outcomes. These are **attachment** and **beliefs about control**. Parental sensitivity and responsive behaviour is linked to the contingency and attachment theories.

Seligman (1975) explains that environmental contingencies can influence a child's attitude about whether he is in control of his environment. "How early, how many, and how intense the experiences of helplessness and mastery" are, will determine the child's attitude to his ability to control his environment (Sigel, 1985:53). A contingent mother is identified as one who responds quickly and consistently and appropriately to unexpected circumstances.

Several studies as reviewed by Lamb and Easterbrooks (1981) reveal a relationship between maternal sensitivity and a securely attached and competent child (Sigel, 1985:56).

#### 2.4.2.1/...

This relationship involves the following aspects: problem-solving, greater enthusiasm, persistence and utilisation of maternal assistance, greater competence with peers, more curiosity and ego resilience (ability to respond flexibly and persistently, especially in problem-solving situations.)

X Skinner and other researchers, claim that parents who believe that the child should play an active role in his or her own development, will show a greater degree of sensitivity and be more responsive to the child's needs (Sigel, 1985:62).

Bandura & Walters (1963) and Maccoby & Jacklin (1974) quoted in Parsons, Adler & Kaczala (1982:310 & 311) have suggested that children imitate and adopt behaviours which they observe in models such as their parents. "Role models may also influence children's achievement behaviours through the messages they provide regarding their beliefs about their own abilities."

Barnett (1981:844) found in his study of the relationship between parental sex-role attitudes and parent child-rearing values of independence granting and pressure for achievement, that assertive mothers expect their daughters to show independence at a very early age.

Parental values

#### 2.4.2.2 Cultural differences

**Child-rearing styles** are significantly influenced by the diverse value systems of different cultures, for example, in the **Asian-American culture** children had higher grades when the parenting style was predominantly authoritarian in nature.

However, in European-American families, authoritarian parenting styles were associated with low grades. Rosen (1962) quoted in Heckhausen (1968:155) found that child-rearing practices in Brazil resulted in child-outcomes of inflated self-esteem, self-deceptiveness and avoidance tendencies rather than a motivated readiness to achieve.

This lower level of achievement motivation among **Brazilian** children as opposed to **North American** children may be ascribed to the fact that Brazilian parents expect self-reliance and achievement at a later age and that the educational environment is characterised by the authoritarian, patriarchal family structure.

Kohn states that **black fathers** value conformity to external standards more than do white fathers of similar class position. However, the relationship of self-direction or conformity to social class is very similar for blacks and whites (Kohn 1969:59). Kohn (1969:60) also found that religious background influenced parental values, for example, **Catholic** parents valued obedience more highly than did **Protestants** or **Jews**.

Several studies reveal that Catholic parents are more restrictive in their child-rearing practices and therefore do not encourage self-reliant value attitudes. Although there has been an indication that more outstanding achievements in business, the arts and science in the United States and Germany have been produced by Protestants and fewer Catholics in relation to their numbers in the total population, it has not been proved conclusively that Protestants show more pronounced achievement motivation than Catholics (Heckhausen, 1968:161).

From a study done by Dornbusch et al. (1987), Pang (1991:3) concluded that it was very important to consider cultural values when assessing the parent-child socialisation process.

From the abundant research done on children's value socialisation, it is clear that the family, including the parents' education, socio-economic status and cultural ties, is an extremely important socialising agent in the child's life.

#### 2.4.3 **The Influence of Birth Order on the Acquisition of Values**

Substantial research has shown that birth-order of the children in a family influences parental socialisation practices.

### 2.4.3/...

Hoge, Petrillo & Smith (1982:578) note that birth-order research has revealed a greater measure of value conformity among first-born than among later-born children. Rosen (1964:69) states that parents are often over-strict at times and at other times are excessively nurturant towards oldest or only children.

Helson (1969:590) claims that studies have revealed that high-achievers and creative persons are frequently the first-born of the family. According to Atkinson & Miller (1956), first-born American children show the greatest tendency towards high achievement. However, in other cultures such as India and Japan, it is more frequently the younger or youngest child who is the most highly motivated (Heckhausen, 1968:158).

Rosen (1964:70) quotes McArthur (1956) as stating that the first-born child is "adult-oriented, conscientious and fond of doing things for his parents." Rosen (1964:71) suggests that the eldest or only child often has similar values to those of his mother while younger children have values which are sometimes quite different.

Youngest children are often over-indulged and such a child may not internalise the expectations of his parents. The youngest child may also identify with models of, and adopt values of older siblings. The oldest child often uses intellectual or physical skills to compete with younger siblings who are able to elicit attention or cuddling from parents solely through behaviour. Fathers value responsibility, being a good student, honest and sound judgement in older children. Fathers value highly, self-control in youngest and oldest children.

Birth order of children may also be considered in studies concerned with the influence of values on academic achievements.

### 2.4.4 **Relationship between Parents' and Child's Values**

Numerous studies have attempted to establish whether there is a relationship between parent and child values and if so, how and where children acquire their values.

McBroom et al. (1985:150) note that research has found only a very modest relationship between parent and child attitudes and values.

Mannheim (1988:270) and many other researchers suggest that children will internalise values which are similar to those of their parents.

Munns's (1972) concern about where people obtain their system of values led to a study to determine whether adolescents differ from their parents with regard to six personality variables and whether their value systems were in fact more similar to their peers. The conclusions drawn from her study were, that children were more accepting of their peer group values than their parental values. They perceived their values as being more similar to those of their friends than their parents. The adolescent subjects of the study did, however, see themselves similar to their fathers with respect to their theoretical, social, political and religious values.

Mannheim (1988:271) also cites various other studies which indicate that the younger generation develop other values because of generational and historical changes, but suggests that there is very limited support for this theory concerning work and political values.

Traub & Dodder (1988:977) in their study on the "generation gap" found various conflicting theories explaining this phenomenon. They discuss Mead's (1970) study which suggested that conflict arises between age groups in society as a result of the changes, which are especially evident after the Second World War, in values and norms in society. Traub & Dodder (1988) dispute this theory and their criticism includes that it does not explain **why** values or norms of the youth diverge from those of adults.

Traub & Dodder (1988:977) also examine the social scientists theories which affirm that the values of youth do not differ significantly from those of adults. These social scientists, among them Adelson (1970), Lubell (1968), Lipset (1968) and Reiss (1968) believe that conflict arises out of the **means** employed to actualise similar values held by both adults and children.

Flacks (1967), Keniston (1965, 1967) and many others agree that "different behaviour patterns have the potential of being an expression of similarly accepted values" (Traub & Dodder, 1988:977).

#### 2.4.4/...

Gelles's (1988:838) study established that the values of parents and children were not positively correlated. However, he found that although parents' values are not related to their children's values, children believe that their values are similar to those their parents prefer for them and parents transmit their socialisation values to their children. The manner in which parents interact with their children will influence how children perceive these values.

Traub & Dodder's own study (1988:981) which deals with whether youth and adults will accept similar cultural values also supported the perspective that adults and youth generally agree with the values measured in the study. The difference arises from the degree to which they are accepted.

According to Gecas & Schwalbe (1986) quoted in Gelles (1988:839) there is a significant discrepancy between the perceptions of values held by parents and children respectively.

Gelles (1988:839) therefore suggests that further research is needed to address value transmission in families, how parents and children manifest their values to each other, which strategies are used by parents to instil values in their children, and to what extent children's values develop as unintended consequences of parental behaviour.

Hoge, Petrillo & Smith (1982:569) quote several studies that support the socialisation theory which stresses that the family is the most significant transmitter of values, although the influence of age-peers, school and socio-historical events are also recognised.

Various studies indicate that, whether a child adopts his parents' values, will depend on the quality of the family relationships (Mannheim 1988:271). Maniacci & Maniacci (1989:511) quote Grunewald & McAbee (1985) who pointed out that the respect the parents have for and confidence they have in their abilities as parents will affect the degree of respect accorded to them by their children. A parent who lacks clear goals and does not clearly define limits to behaviour, contributes to children's misbehaviour. Dreikurs and Soltz (1964) state that "well-defined restrictions give a sense of security and a certainty of function within the social structure" (Maniacci & Maniacci, 1989:511).

#### 2.4.4/...

In some families, intergenerational values (those between parents and children), are very similar, but in other families they are markedly different. Numerous reasons have been put forward to explain why values of parents and children are similar in one family while they differ in another.

Rosen (1964:59) postulates a number of reasons why in some families, parent-child values are similar while in other families, parent-child values are markedly different. He suggests that children may acquire values from other sources, for example, teachers or peers.

The question about which factors influence value transmission must therefore be addressed.

#### 2.4.5 Factors which influence Value Transmission

\* Rosen (1964:59) believes that values are transmitted from parents to their children in a number of ways, for example, through **instruction and selective reinforcement** of appropriate responses and through their own behaviour in specific situations.

A powerful motivating factor for the child to internalise parental values, is the child's need for **parental warmth and approval**.

Several **family characteristics** have been established as significantly influencing value transmission from parent to child. Among those that do, are: the age of the parent, that is, the younger the parents, the better value transmission occurs from them to their sons; for girls, value transmission is most successful when mothers and fathers are in strong agreement about values, and very supportive of religious beliefs; for girls but not for boys frequency of communication between parents and child is positively correlated with value transmission; and disagreement with parents on a number of topics is negatively associated with value transmission (Hoge, Petrillo & Smith 1982:575, 576). McBroom et al. 1985:151) supports the view expounded by Hoge, Petrillo & Smith, which states that research has not been able to establish whether parents and children of stable families are in agreement about those values which they support.

There is no consensus among researchers as to the significance of relationships between parents' education and children's goals and the relationship between parental occupational status and children's goals (Mannheim 1988:271).

Gelles (1988:831) believes that the child will internalise the parent's values if he identifies with the parent. This **identification** involves the child's perception of the parent's power and prestige, as well as the quality of parental behaviour toward the child which involves parental control, support and participation.

Gelles (1988:830) also quotes other studies, conducted by several researchers, among them Adcock & Bengtson (1980) and Furstenberg (1974) which revealed that value transmission would be influenced by the **child's perception** of the parents' values.

Combs & Snygg (1954) quoted in Stehbens & Carr (1970:67) state that people do not behave according to the facts as others see them. They behave according to the facts as they see them. What governs behaviour from the point of view of the individual himself are his unique perceptions of himself and the world in which he lives, the meanings things have for him. Stehbens & Carr's (1970:67) explication of this formulation is that a child's behaviour seems to be influenced by how he perceives his parents' attitude.

Anderson (1980) and others suggest that the child will more readily identify with the values of the like-sexed than the opposite-sexed parent. They also suggest that there are socialising factors that "lead girls towards emphasising intrinsic work values, while boys are more concerned about extrinsic values" (Mannheim 1988:288).

Hoge, Petrillo & Smith (1982) note that studies of religious value transmission are few and far between. Those that do exist indicate that the older the child and the higher the family's socio-economic status, the weaker the agreement between parent and child religious values.

Rosen (1964:60) suggests another reason why why influence the internalisation by the child of the values of their parent. **Older mothers** tend to be indulgent and attentive and are less likely to elicit anxiety-provoking child-rearing practices which in turn are more likely to motivate the internalisation of values in the child.

#### 2.4.5/...

Rosen's (1964:63) study of mother-son value similarity revealed that where the child is "trained early in independent mastery, the value similarity score between parent and child is almost twice as likely to be high as it is in cases where the child is trained late."

He concludes that early training by mothers rather than late training led to boys having similar values to their mothers (Rosen 1964:67). It has also been found that great emphasis is placed on early mastery among middle class groups.

Gelles (1988:830) points to other research done by Bandura (1977); Kohlberg (1981); Piaget (1965); and Weiner & Peter (1973) which indicates that the **age of the child** also plays an important role in value socialisation.

Rokeach (1973) claims that **cognitive development** provides an indication of when categories of values may be best socialised at different development levels. Research indicates that the belief system becomes more stable as the child matures. (Gelles, 1988:830).

Elder (1963) suggests that **frequent explanation and justification of rules** is more likely than the power approach taken by parents, to be adopted by children (McBroom et al., 1985:150).

Despite the factors influencing value transmission, mentioned above, research has consistently found that parent and child values only show a weak relationship.

Hoge, Petrillo and Smith (1982:578) also drew the conclusion that children acquire values as much from factors outside the family as they do from their parents. They found that the family had an impact on only one type of value and that was creedal assent.

## 2.5 **VALUES WHICH INCULCATE A SENSE OF RESPONSIBILITY**

### 2.5.1 **Moral Values and Cognitive Development**

The question arises as to why some children develop a sense of responsibility, while others do not, and which values develop a sense of responsibility.

## 2.5.1/...

It is perhaps necessary to establish what initiates the development of a sense of responsibility and whether children who are strongly influenced by moral and/or religious values, develop a sense of responsibility more readily than do others.

According to Kohlberg & Turiel (1973) moral development is an ongoing process of maturation and learning. This process of maturation and learning involves the ability to judge behaviours, and to develop a preference for certain behaviours regarded as the means to a mature response to a situation (Englund 1980:8).

Moral values are those aspects of life which are important to people, which they readily uphold through appropriate behaviour. Moral development occurs when a person internalises values and acts upon them in a particular way.

Piaget and Kohlberg both believed that stages of moral judgement coincide with cognitive developmental changes. An indication of this is that highly educated people reason at a higher stage of moral thought than those who have little or no education, probably because education broadens a person's perspective and provides opportunities for verbalisation of abstract thought (Mussen et al. 1984:327).

Various theories about how moral development takes place, have seen the light. Three major perspectives have been emphasised.

### 2.5.1.1 **The Cognitive-development Theory**

This theory does not support the claim that moral development comes about as a result of variations in parental child-rearing practices and differences in personality (Weiner & Peter, 1973:290).

The cognitive-developmental theory emphasises moral reasoning and moral judgement rather than moral behaviour or emotions (Lamb 1976:222).

### 2.5.1.1/...

Piaget who developed the cognitive view described moral development in two major stages. These are the **heteronomous or moral realism stage** during which time children (aged between 5 and about 12) believe implicitly in rules and display complete respect for authority; and the **autonomous reasoning or moral relativism stage** during which time the child (at about 11 years of age), begins to realise that rules are manmade and are subject to change. Children in the autonomous morality stage become concerned with the motive behind an action. Mussen et al. (1984:324) state that during the stage of moral realism, children judge actions "more by their consequences than by intentions."

Piaget believed that because parents as authority figures tend to keep children in the first stage of moral development, children should be granted experiences away from parents or other adults in order to mature. According to Mussen et al. (1984:37) adults tend to encourage moral realism and it is only during peer interactions, that children learn to negotiate about aspects which perhaps are important to them but which may not be as important to others.

Kohlberg's cognitive theory of moral development based on Piaget's two stages, was expanded by him to include six stages of moral development. They are as follows :

**Stage 1** Preconventional stage - oriented towards punishment and obedience.

This stage involves judging the positiveness or negativeness of the action by the physical consequences thereof.

**Stage 2** Oriented towards instrumental relativism

A particular behaviour is regarded as good if it satisfies one's own needs and occasionally the needs of others.

**Stage 3** Conventional stage - oriented to inter-personal concordance.

Behaviour is regarded as good if it pleases or helps others and is approved by them.

### 2.5.1.1/...

**Stage 4** Oriented towards authority and social order.

Behaviour is regarded as acceptable if it involves “doing one’s duty, showing respect for authority and maintaining the given social order for its own sake” (Wegner, 1975:14).

**Stage 5** Postconventional state - oriented towards social contact.

Behaviour is judged in terms of general individual rights and standards which have been agreed upon by the whole society.

**Stage 6** Oriented towards individual principles.

Behaviour is judged in terms of the decision of conscience which is determined by self-chosen ethical principles related to the logical, comprehensiveness, universality and consistency (Wegner 1975:14).

Kohlberg states that children should be shown how to judge the rightness or wrongness of moral action based upon “universal, consistent, objective, impersonal, ideal grounds” (Van den Aardweg, and Le Roux, 1985:100).

Wegner (1975:14 & 15) cites a number of theories which attempt to explain why an individual moves on through each stage of moral development.

Kohlberg and others established that, as the child interacts with new conflict situations, the child moves to the next highest stage.

Turiel’s (1969) study provided a further explanation of this question, that is, “children adopt levels of moral thought most easily when that level is near their own, and that they tend to incorporate thinking that is just above their own level more than they do thinking that is just below” (Wegner, 1975:15).

Yet another explanation comes from Hoffman and Salzstein (1967) which suggests that parental discipline involving induction, that is, the parent explains the consequences of inappropriate behaviour, encourages the child to adopt more mature modes of reasoning.

### 2.5.1.1/...

Kohlberg (1964) pointed out that an individual could become fixed at a stage in his moral development and go no further, either because he is not intellectually capable of further growth or because his environment has not provided him with experience that encourages growth.

Kohlberg, as Piaget before him, did not regard the family an essential factor in moral development (Lamb 1976:222).

Santrock (1975:753), however, concluded in his study of father-absence on the male child's moral development, that the role of the father as transmitter of morality to his son cannot be over-emphasised.

Mouton et al., (1966) quoted in Lamb, (1976:109) states that moral development and interpersonal sensitivity progressed most successfully in the home where the father was warm, nurturant and could set limits firmly.

Several studies done by Hoffman (1971), as well as studies done by Hoffman & Saltzstein (1967) have indicated that boys internalise morality similar to that of their fathers, when they perceive positive child-rearing practices and when they identify with their fathers (Lamb 1976:18) Weisbroth (1970) also found that moral judgement in boys was the result of identification with both parents, while in females it was related to identification with fathers (Lamb 1976:18). The influence of the father on scholastic achievement motivation, will be dealt with in chapter four.

### 2.5.1.2 **Psychoanalytic view**

A second major view is that of the psychoanalytical theory of which Freud is the major proponent.

This view emphasises the internal aspects of moral development. It is concerned with how the **superego** emerges from the **id** and **ego** and how certain impulses are singled out as unacceptable.

### 2.5.1.2/...

The **ego** as defined by Van den Aardweg and Van den Aardweg (1988:73) is that which “negotiates the conflicts between the id and the superego so as to accomplish the individual’s goals through socially acceptable and appropriate means.”

The **id**, according to Van den Aardweg and Van den Aardweg (1988:112) is the “innate drives with which we are born. It is the source of all instinctual drives and the seat of the unconscious.” The **superego** determines what is right and wrong and good or bad.

Freud proffered a theory as to how moral development takes place. According to him, as the child passes through stages of intellectual development, he also passes through stages of moral development (Wegner, 1875:11).

He believed that children are motivated by fear of loss of love, to avoid unacceptable behaviour. Feelings of guilt only develop when the child is caught. The mature individual is controlled by the superego to refrain from negative behaviour.

The superego can only develop when the child identifies with significant others, that is, when he internalises the moral attitudes and feelings of the significant others, (usually parents) in his life.

Freud suggested that sexual and aggressive impulses were the main aspects of moral development. “Sexual impulses include all needs for pleasure and aggressive impulses are needs to avoid displeasure” (Wegner, 1975:1).

He believed that moral development occurs during the early years of life and that the parents are the major influence. Development during the first few years of life (3 or 4 years), is similar for both boys and girls. Differences in development begin to emerge during the phallic stage at around 3 or 4 years of age. Freud believes that the boy experiences incestuous desires for his mother. He regards his father as a rival and wants to be rid of him (the oedipal complex). The boy eventually identifies with his father in order to deal with anxiety stemming from fear of retaliation by the father. He assumes his father’s characteristics and internalises the standards and values his father represents.

### 2.5.1.2/...

This results in the formation of the superego, the “resolution of the oedipal complex which is a crucial part of development, for the boy has not only acquired the appropriate sex-role characteristics but has also internalised the moral rules and values his father represents” and finally, Freud also states that “boys without fathers would have weaker superegos and would be less moral than boys with fathers” (Lamb 1976:221 & 222). Freud claimed that strength of conscience depends on how effectively the child identifies with the parent, rather than discipline practices used by the parent which do not influence conscience development significantly (Wegner 1975:3).

Research done by Whiting (1959) confirmed Freud’s theory that children in families with no father should display the least guilt.

Whiting (1959) hypothesised and subsequently confirmed his hypothesis that “family situations with maximal rivalry between father and child produced the strongest internalization of moral values in terms of the readiness to accept blame” (Wegner, 1975:2).

### 2.5.1.3 **Social Learning Theory**

A third major theory, the Social Learning Theory, is concerned with overt behaviours such as lying and cheating rather than with emotions or moral judgements.

This theory emphasises the reinforcement aspects of learning (reward and punishment) and modelling, that is, behaviour is learned by imitation.

They believe that if a child is rewarded for a particular behaviour he or she will internalise this behaviour.

Wegner (1975:5) distinguishes between primary reinforcers and secondary reinforcers. Primary reinforcers are stimuli that “‘naturally’ change the probability of response such as food, water...”. Secondary responses are those responses which frequently appear simultaneously with primary reinforcers, for example, a mother’s smile which occurs while the child is nursing.

### 2.5.1.3/...

Children also acquire behaviours by watching them performed by others. In social learning theory, the father does not play an essential role in moral development. Children are likely to imitate any warm, nurturant model (Lamb 1976:224).

Bandura and McDonald (1963) compared learning by direct reward with learning by imitation. The experiment included reward alone, reward plus model and reward plus model being rewarded. They found that "observation of adults, whether they were rewarded or not, produced much more change than did direct reward".

The implication of this study is that modelling adds new behaviours to the child's repertoire which may then become subject to reinforcement (Wegner 1975:5).

#### 2.5.1.4 **The Father's role in Moral Development**

Sears et al., (1965) found in their study of child-rearing antecedents of human development, that there was a strong correlation between children's resistance to temptation and father's child-rearing practices, for example, boys who were high on resistance to temptation had fathers who showed both affectionate and hostile attitudes towards their sons, while fathers of honest girls frequently showed dissatisfaction with their daughters and often ridiculed them.

McCord & McCord (1957) quoted in Lamb (1976:227) found in their study of the effects of parental role models, that paternal rejection and a deviant paternal model often resulted in problem behaviour in boys, but that a warm mother could mitigate the effects of a negative role model and reduce the likelihood of deviant behaviour in her son.

Bronfenbrenner's (1961) study concluded that responsibility in boys was facilitated with paternal authority, but impeded in girls because strong discipline from fathers was associated with irresponsibility in girls.

#### 2.5.1.4/...

Glueck and Glueck's (1950) study of the differences between delinquents and nondelinquents revealed that delinquents received erratic discipline from their fathers, which included a great deal of physical punishment and very little use of reasoning or praise (Lamb 1976:229). Hoffman and his colleagues were concerned with the affective aspects of moral development.

Hoffman (1971) found a significant correlation between certain aspects of moral development, which included guilt, confession, internal moral judgement and rule conformity (Lamb 1976:229). In another study, Hoffman (1971) found that father-absent boys received lower scores on measures for internal moral judgement and were more aggressive than father-present boys. Lamb (1976:30) concluded that father presence is more important for the moral development of boys than for that of girls.

Hoffman and Saltzstein (1967) established that although there is no significant relationship between fathers' discipline techniques and children's moral development, when the father does not provide an adequate role model, children are negatively affected. Bandura and Walters (1959) found that aggressive boys had difficult relationships with their fathers and found identification with their fathers difficult which frequently resulted in a failure to internalise parental values (Lamb 1976:230).

Haan, Smith and Bick's (1968) study confirmed Bandura and Walter's conclusion that high levels of conflict with the father was associated with the lowest moral development level, but they found further that a moderate conflict level was associated with the highest moral development level (Lamb 1976:232).

#### 2.5.2 **Religious Values**

Moral and religious values seem to be inextricably linked as the majority of moral values stem from religious beliefs held by communities.

Hoge, Petrillo & Smith (1982:569) believe that religious values are important to personal and family identity and together with social values, are central to cultural stability.

## 2.5.2/...

According to Hanson & Ginsburg (1988:336) “strong religious values should promote a sense of responsibility and obedience to authority on the part of youth that would in turn lead to higher school achievement.”

They also state, however, that religious values may be the cause of the lack of achievement if the adolescent believes that fate more than individual effort determines one’s future.

There is therefore no consensus among researchers as to the relationship between religiosity and achievement. Enswistle & Brennan’s (1971) study suggests a curvilinear relationship between religiosity and achievement (Hanson & Ginsburg 1988:336).

Smit (1984:125) believes that religious and moral values cannot be separated. He quotes Habermas who says that a “devout life has two sides to it: the religious and the moral.” He refers to a believer’s relationship with God as piety and devout relations among humans as morality.

Smit (1984:125) claims that a child cannot be guided to self-reliance without religious support as it provides the child with “stability, absolute peace and utter certainty.”

Vrey (1987:182 & 183) believes that it is important for an educator to support the adolescent’s religious development. The educator should have the knowledge to do so and demonstrate religious norms practically.

A discrepancy between norms accepted by society and the way in which the educator deals with it will give rise, to a refusal by the child, to accept instruction and a refusal to internalise the religious norms and values of the society.

Once again the importance of the educator (parent and teacher) is highlighted. An effective role-model is an all important factor in the transmission of values to the children of a society.

### 2.5.3 **Social Values**

Values are **culturally** determined, for example, the Asian-American community places great importance on respect for parents, and individual discipline and effort.

### 2.5.3/...

Research on Asian-American children showed that they sometimes develop unhealthy levels of test anxiety which may be a result of the very strong emphasis of the Asian community on education and academic achievement. These children are encouraged to achieve in order to contribute to the family status and honour (Pang 1991:1).

Johnston (1987:79) quotes The American Heritage Dictionary definition of culture as “the totality of socially transmitted behavior patterns, arts, beliefs, institutions and all other products of human work and thought characteristic of a community or population.”

Marvin Bower’s amusing simplified definition as quoted by Johnston (1987:80) explains culture as “the way we do things around here.”

American culture values liberty over the welfare of the state and this is reflected in the approach to the education of the children. According to Collier (1988:22) the basic values of Western society is in the “belief in the autonomy of **reason**; a belief in the **uniqueness** of the individual born with inalienable rights ... not just a necessary evil.”

## 2.6 THE INFLUENCE OF ADOLESCENT VALUES ON ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION

“Achievement motivation is a process of planning and striving for excellence” (Alschuler & Irons, 1973:326) Heckhausen, (1968:4) defines it as “the striving to increase, or keep as high as possible, one’s own capability in all activities in which a standard of excellence is thought to apply and where the execution of such activities can, therefore, either succeed or fail.”

Achievement motivation may include a success-oriented or failure-oriented disposition. Success-oriented persons need not necessarily have higher levels of aspirations. Failure-oriented persons may hold unrealistically high levels of aspirations which they never realise (Heckhausen, 1968:24 & 92).

Achievement motivation is goal-directed. Jucknat, (1937), quoted in Heckhausen (1968:92) states that successful pupils set realistic, moderate goals, while unsuccessful pupils set unrealistically high or overcautiously low goals. Mahone (1960) also found that failure-oriented adolescents more frequently made unrealistic career choices than did success-oriented adolescents.

Coleman et al., (1966) quoted in Alschuler & Irons (1973:330) concluded that student attitudes were significantly influenced by self-concept and by how strongly they believed that they could control their lives according to how much effort they put into it.

### 2.6.1 **Characteristics of achieving high school students**

Joyce (1970:1623) in his study of the personality characteristics of achieving high school students also maintained the existence of “high self-concepts of ability, lack of a need for aggression, positive self-concepts and a tendency to perceive a high press for achievement in their particular school” in these children.

Hanson & Ginsburg (1981:335 & 336) identify the achieving adolescent as one who is responsible, and who has long-term goals that place a great deal of importance on hard work and education. These adolescents also have a set of values that make them able to resist the pressures placed on them.

Hanson & Ginsburg agree that “belief in hard work and the effectiveness of one’s actions should lead to factors such as, adolescents who possessed a feeling of control over their environment and those with a positive self-concept, had more influence than did family background or other school variables on learning and success in school (Hanson & Ginsburg 1988:336). Hippler’s (1974:159) study drew attention to the fact that despite a disadvantaged background, some students are achievement motivated. These students possess the internal values such as that “status is important, hard work is necessary, mental work is valuable and achievement is important.”

Christopher’s (1967) study of the relationship between **parent-child interaction** and achievement motivation, revealed that in the adolescent age group, the child no longer sees the family as the referent for achievement motivation. Christopher, however, also suggests that evidence exists of a relationship between the degree to which parents and children value achievement motivation.

Pang (1991:2), found bright, success-oriented children are motivated by a need to comply with parental standards. In many of these children a high level of achievement anxiety develops. Through academic achievement they avoid confrontation and criticism from parents.

Children who cannot cope with their anxiety under-actualise their potential both academically and socially. Pang (1991:2) quotes Sarason's (1960) and Hill's (1972, 1980) studies, which confirm that anxieties develop already during the pre-school years when parents are overly critical with unrealistically high standards.

Pang (1991:2) claims that children can be motivated to achieve scholastically for two reasons, firstly, the need to elicit praise and obtain success and, secondly, to avoid criticism and failure. Children who feel pressured to achieve and who cannot cope with the pressure, may develop a poor self-concept and become greatly dependent upon approval from their parents and teachers.

Although adolescence may bring a troubled relationship between parent and child, the male adolescent will continue to acknowledge parental values. The study by Christopher (1967:924) also indicates that females continue to use the family as a point of reference for achievement behaviour. The study done by Christopher (1967:924) proves that male and female achievement orientations differ.

#### 2.6.2 **Values and Attitudes towards Higher Education**

Rokeach (1973) quoted in Mitchell (1986:93) states that attitudes towards higher education will be related to life values. Gerdes (1989:371) claims that the child's level of commitment will be determined by his values.

Rokeach's (1973) study identified several kinds of life values which most significantly influence attitudes to higher education (Mitchell 1985:103).

The message that may be emanating from institutions of higher learning, may be that striving for freedom is a desirable goal, which in turn produces the perception that "wanting some kind of success if it doesn't come too hard" is to be valued (Mitchell 1985:103). Hanson & Ginsburg (1988:349) claim that the amount of time spent doing homework, watching television and reading will be determined by the adolescent's values.

Rokeach suggests that the modern emphasis on freedom and an exciting life contrasts strongly with the "love of learning, freedom with responsibility and tolerance of other cultures" (Mitchell 1985:103)

Weiner & Peter (1973:291) quote several studies which identify those characteristics which distinguish motivated children from unmotivated children. Those who show achievement motivation have “forward-looking time perspectives, realistic yet positive expectations of success and a unique pattern of causal ascriptions for success and failure. Thus achievement motivation is associated with a particular pattern of cognitive functioning”

According to Weiner & Peter (1973:291) the relationship between causal ascription and achievement is very important because it determines an individual’s judgement of a situation and how he will respond to it.

Weiner and Peter (1973:291) state that “there appear to be moral components in achievement striving.”

## 2.7 THE DIFFERENCE IN THE ACHIEVEMENT PROCESS OF BLACK AND WHITE SECONDARY SCHOOL PUPILS

According to Hanson & Ginsburg (1988:342) the achievement process has been shown to be different for blacks and whites.

While family and individual characteristics, students’, parents’, and peers’ values and student out-of-school behaviour affect high school outcomes of **white** pupils, the school achievement of **black** pupils are also significantly influenced by the importance attached to work.

Their study showed that math and reading scores of blacks increased with increasing value attached to work, while the values of the importance of work decreased the math and reading scores of whites.

Hanson & Ginsburg (1988:357) therefore conclude that values influence school success of both white and black students significantly more so than does family background.

Math and reading scores of white pupils are significantly affected by pupil and parental educational expectations, by peer values and when the pupil feels in control of the academic situation.

Taking this idea further, Jones (1984:1212) says that because career opportunities are largely free of restrictions placed on prospective black employees in the past, many black students have gained in average achievement levels having recognised that many career options require educational achievement.

He suggests that there is evidence that the gap between achievement levels of white and black students is narrowing.

Pupil "out-of-school behaviour significantly affects the relationship between values and changes in achievement" (Hanson & Ginsburg 1988:360).

The study found fewer family background, values and out-of-school behaviour variables affect the school outcomes of blacks. However, the above mentioned values, except for the effect of religion, correlate with those values which significantly influence the academic achievement of white pupils. Academic achievement of black pupils is positively influenced by strong religious values, which is manifested in increases in math scores and a greater feeling of control was also associated with increases in reading scores.

Other researchers, among them Comer (1988) believed that home factors do influence the academic achievement of black pupils. He explains that the "contrast between the home and school experiences influences the child's psychosocial development which in turn shapes academic achievement" (Comer 1988:25).

Comer (1988:27) points out that generally blacks have developed poor self-images as a result of more powerful cultural groups suppressing black culture and devaluing it. The culture of the more powerful cultural group is forced on the black group who find it difficult to assimilate it into their world. Comer (1988:26) suggests that sociocultural misalignment may be the reason for poor academic performance among black pupils.

Several projects have attempted to establish whether desegregating schools would increase the levels of achievement among black students. Crain & Mahard's (1978:47) review of research on the effect of desegregation on black achievement, revealed inconclusive results. They found that research indicated that in some cases desegregation worked, while in other cases it did not. They therefore suggest that raising black student achievement motivation, would entail both desegregating schools, as well as improving the quality of education in segregated schools.

## 2.8 PROBLEMS INHERENT IN THE STUDY OF VALUES

Research into the relationship between family environment, values and the development of cognitive abilities in children, has been plagued by invalid measurements of family characteristics and abilities; many and varied factors in the home, school, community and peer groups which confound research results; and the expense of large-scale longitudinal studies of families in mobile societies (Walberg 1976:527).

Among the variables influencing research on the relationship between values and academic achievement, as identified by Stehbens & Carr (1970:69) are, sex of child, sex of parent, intellectual ability of child, age of the child, socio-economic level of the family, number of children in the family, age of the parents which influence the varied parental attitudes which in turn have varied effects on the child's behaviour.

Relationships established for one group may not be valid or relevant for other periods in time, other social classes, ethnic groups or countries.

Another problem facing research on values is the choice of values to be measured in the study (Hanson & Ginsburg 1988:361).

Hoge, Petrillo & Smith (1982:570) found in their review on literature dealing with the transmission of intergenerational values, that studies which gather information from only one generation reveals a greater impact of parents on children than may actually be the case. They suggest that this may be so because of inaccurate perceptions or perceived agreement of either group. They refer to Bengtson's (1975) suggestion that assessment of parent-child value similarity, should use measures of absolute agreement. McBroom et al. (1985:151) believe that simple agreement as a measure of value transmission has limitations in that it overlooks the qualitative nature or **direction** of the agreement, for example common agreement between parent and child about a specific value as well as agreement as to whether it is wrong or not. According to them, measuring the direction of agreement of a value, may "increase the prediction of agreement as well as help to specify the causes of qualitatively different kinds of agreement."

McBroom et al., (1985:160) suggest that research on intergenerational transmission as measured by the degree to which agreement exists between parental and child values, can establish whether value transmission has been successful.

From their review of research methods used to establish home environmental factors which influence school achievement, Kalinowski & Sloane (1981:93 & 94) conclude that **static variables**, need not be the only or best means of measuring family background. **Process** variables could be used in conjunction with static variables to obtain a complete picture of the home environment and its influence.

They identify shortcomings in research as arising from the continued emphasis on classification and prediction. The use of structured survey interviews or questionnaires do not achieve the goal of knowing and understanding. Kalinowski & Slaone (1981:94) suggest that measures of home educational processes which are trait specific and developmentally appropriate, should be developed. Those measures which examine teaching and modelling behaviour in the home will facilitate our understanding of how children learn.

Since the child's learning prior to school entrance and during the school years are of crucial importance, research on values should strive to identify those characteristics of parents that contribute to the development of child competence.

Furthermore, knowledge which is acquired through research should be shared with parents and future parents (Schaefer 1991).

Whitbeck & Gecas (1988:839) suggest that future research on value transmission in families, should focus on how parents and children manifest their values to each other, identify which strategies parents use to instil values in their children, to establish which strategies are effective under which circumstances and to determine to what extent children's values develop as unintended consequences of parental behaviour.

## 2.9 **CONCLUSION**

From the afore-mentioned discussion, we may draw the conclusion that although research has been inconclusive about how values are internalised, why current values are accepted, why some values are changed or rejected, how and why values are transmitted, it has been established with absolute certainty, that a value system, including moral, religious and social values is vital to the development of academic achievement motivation.

The rejection of religious values with the concomitant loss of morality, has been evidenced in directionless, goalless youth who experience insecurity and a value vacuum, as well as powerless, ineffectual parental practices, resulting in a failure of the youth to achieve their potential.

In chapter three the researcher will discuss past research and how values influence the disciplinary methods used by parents in their child-rearing practices. Attention will also focus on how disciplinary practices influence achievement motivation of school children.

## CHAPTER THREE

### THE INFLUENCE OF PARENTAL DISCIPLINE ON THE SCHOLASTIC ACHIEVEMENT OF SECONDARY SCHOOL PUPILS

#### 3.1 INTRODUCTION

Much has been written and said about discipline in recent years. The lack and rejection of discipline is becoming the major concern of parents and teachers the world over as the youth increasingly rejects the authority of both parents and educators. It is also becoming increasingly evident that parents and teachers are experiencing a feeling of powerlessness to stop the destructiveness of an undisciplined generation of young people, which could ultimately lead to anarchy.

As stated in the previous chapter, disciplinary practices are clearly influenced by the value systems prevalent in society and in the home. Parents have a responsibility towards the socialisation of their children through which children acquire the values, beliefs and standards of behaviour expected from them in their culture.

Since the Second World War, more and more of our youth, are experiencing a value vacuum as their parents neglect to carry across the values which hold society together, or children refuse to acknowledge these values.

Children have far more freedom than they had in the past and they continue to demand more and more freedom. However, this freedom is not accompanied by a sense of responsibility. Madsen and Madsen (1975:11) state that changing a child's behaviour best takes place in the home. They add, "Yet many parents abdicate responsibility for changing the child's behaviour by seeking out more and more so-called explanations for why it happened."

Perhaps the blame can be partially laid at the feet of psychologists and educationists, who frequently produce theories and hypotheses which propagate against discipline and forward the idea that children should be allowed to grow up in an atmosphere of freedom.

An example of this is cited in Dreikurs and Grey (1968:16) who discuss the theories of Freud and Rousseau. Freud and Rousseau propagated the idea that the child should be brought up in an atmosphere of freedom. Freud believed that parents could damage the ego of the child, cause the child to experience humiliation and rejection and develop guilt feelings if that child was punished. Parents were too afraid to stand up to their children.

Freudian followers advocated permissiveness, indulgence and the attitude that the child's needs come first at the expense of the welfare of the group.

"The sad truth of the matter is that for too many years parents have been bamboozled by 'experts' who have sopped up half-baked theories in 'how-to' books, instead of using the brains God gave them and reacting to their natural instincts when their kids pushed them too far in an attempt to test limits" Dobson (1987:177).

It has been claimed that love is enough to rear children. Dobson (1981:7) quotes a speaker at a congress of psychologists who states that "Die grootste sosiale ramp van hierdie eeu is die geloof dat oorvloedige liefde dissipline oorbodig maak."

During the forties and fifties, the attitude revolving around child-rearing, was "unlimited tolerance of the child's need for gratification and a relatively limited emphasis on preparing the child to face the realities of the external world" (Dorr, Zax & Bonner 1983:3).

Parents neglect to discipline their children who then do not learn to take other people or their possessions into account.

The numerous theories and books on advice to parents about how to rear children, have left parents confused and questioning their abilities to be effective parents.

It is intended, in this chapter, to examine existing literature on the influence of discipline on the developing not-yet-adult.

### 3.2 **DISCIPLINE DEFINED**

Gunter (1983:145) explains that the word "discipline" is derived from Latin: **disco** which means "to learn" and **disciplina** which means "instruction, learning, knowledge" and **discipulus** which refers to a pupil.

What does being well-disciplined really mean? According to Wilson (1981:40), being well-disciplined does not mean that one obeys rules because one admires the person in authority, or because there is a sword at one's back. Rather, being well-disciplined implies that the individual obeys rules as reasons for action.

Wilson (1981:45) distinguishes between discipline and being controlled. He questions the connection between power and good discipline. He cites examples of nineteenth-century public school punishment, which was extremely harsh but which did not lead to good discipline.

Therefore "power is not a **sufficient** condition for discipline (since per se it does not generate the correct motivating thought)." However, it is a necessary condition.

Parents the world over cherish ideals of what they would like their children to be. Parents use a variety of strategies in an attempt to mould their children into the kind of people they would like them to be.

The adult strives through external discipline, to guide the child towards self-discipline. Gunter (1983:145) defines **self-discipline** as " accepting and fulfilling by oneself of responsibility for all one's judgements, choices, decisions and deeds; **self-rule, self-control, self-limitation, self-compulsion and self-determination.**"

A disciplined child, as defined by Madsen & Madsen (1975:6), is a child who "has learned to behave socially in appropriate ways, and who evidences proper patterns of responses to his work."

Each culture and society has its own ideas and belief about what constitutes the ideal adult and child. Chandler (1983:47) concludes that it is difficult to define discipline succinctly because such a diversity of opinions exist which attempts to explain this multifaceted issue.

This review is focused on what is acceptable in a western cultural context.

Mussen et al. (1984:382) identify several behaviours which are of value to western society. These include, "academic achievement, independence, control of aggression and skill in social relationships with peers."

The following discussion consists mainly of a summary of Dorr's et al. (1983) overview of several theories which have been developed, to explain the nature and influence of discipline on the developing child.

### 3.2.1 **Psychoanalytic View**

This view was particularly popular during the 1940's and 1950's and advocated the unrestricted gratification of needs in order to promote secure and healthy adult personalities (Baumrind 1978:250). Psychoanalysts hold the view that the development of the child's personality depends on the way in which needs are given expression or frustrated (Dorr et al. 1983:16).

The child's development takes place in stages, progress to the next stage contingent on the previous stage, for example, the development of conscience is dependent on an increase in cognitive skills.

### 3.2.1/...

Psychoanalysts emphasise the importance of the parents in the internalisation of rules and inhibitions and of guilt in the process of internalisation.

According to Freud, the development of conscience is a gradual and painful one. External forces, in the form of restrictions placed by the parents on the child, battle against the child's own urges, with the result that the child gives up his own wishes. "The child takes on the characteristics of the parent, becomes like the parent and, in the process, takes on the authority role toward his own behavior" (Dorr, et al. 1983:20).

Hoffman (1970:91) in his discussion of Freud's theory of conscience development, hypothesises that the child represses his hostility towards the parent who frustrates his desires, because he fears loss of love and abandonment by the parent. The child acts according to parental wishes in order to avoid feelings of guilt.

For the psychoanalyst, understanding what is going on in the child's mind is very important, so that discipline may be suited to developmental stages.

When no attempt to understand the child's way of thinking is made, the result of the discipline could be ineffectual or even destructive (Dorr et al. 1983:23).

In order to understand the child, it is required of the adult to be able to listen and hear what the child is trying to say through his behaviour.

Dorr in (Dorr et al. 1983:218), in his overview of several approaches to discipline sums up the psycho-analytical view as a developmental theory that sees understanding and emotional control as a process in which an adult deals with discipline problems according to the stages of a child's cognitive and emotional development.

### 3.2.2 **Piagetian View**

The Piagetian viewpoint does not support the theory that behaviour is the result of a conflict between needs and impulses on the one hand, and the anticipation of guilt or punishment on the other (Chandler in Dorr, Zax & Bonner 1983:48).

### 3.2.2/...

In order for discipline to be effective, according to Piaget, the disciplinarian will have to be constantly monitoring the child's developmental level of **moral maturity**.

In Dorr's overview (Dorr et al. 1983:219) of the Piagetian approach to discipline, he notes that Piagetians see child development "as resulting from a long evolutionary history influenced by both biological and social factors; in the individual, thus, certain inherent and inevitable developmental trends are influenced to some degree by society."

### 3.2.3 **Rational-Emotive View**

This point of view sees discipline as an ongoing process which has as its aim to help children think independently and to learn to control their own behaviours.

The Rational-Emotive theory supports the idea that it is an individual's attitude rather than the environment which determines how he is going to respond. Waters (Dorr et al. 1983:67) cites an example of children who are given identical punishments, but who react differently to the punishment, one being pleased to be sent to his room while the other is very dissatisfied. In this example, although the children receive a similar punishment, being in his room is a pleasurable experience for one child, while the other child may not regard spending time in his room, as pleasant.

"RET views discipline as an ongoing process involving cognitive and behavioural-skill acquisition and emotional growth, rather than as a series of single interventions whose only goal is the termination of obnoxious behaviour" (Dorr et al. 1983:78).

(Dorr et al. 1983:220) states that the Rational-Emotional theory aims to foster "self-interest, self-direction, tolerance, acceptance of uncertainty, and flexibility."

### 3.2.4 **Behavioural view**

"Behavior modification involves the application of available knowledge regarding learning and behavioral theory to promote the betterment of the human condition" (Madsen & Stephens in Dorr. et al 1983:185).

This school of thought supports the theory that all behaviour is governed by basic rules and principles of learning. In order to eradicate undesirable behaviour, parents need sometimes to ignore it. During this period, the tendency is for the undesirable behaviour to increase in intensity and frequency for a while before it actually begins to decrease.

Another instance of basic rules and principles is the need to be aware of milestones.

Madsen and Stephens (Dorr et al. 1983:186) cite an example of a parent who expects a child of 4 years of age to tie his shoes, and who is disappointed when he fails at this task. The parent needs to realise that the child may not yet have acquired the maturity to achieve this task.

Behaviourists believe that it is possible to modify behaviour without having to take the past events in a person's life into consideration. However, it is necessary to take the child's experiences of his environment into consideration. Behaviourists suggest that there are several ways to modify behaviour: approval; withholding approval; disapproval; threat of disapproval and ignoring the behaviour. Madsen and Stephen explain these aspects in the following way: approval is associated with, for example a compliment; withholding approval includes a promise of a positive reaction when a particular behaviour is improved; disapproval is shown in an expression of displeasure, loss of privilege; threat of disapproval which entails the use of fear.

According Madsen and Stephen, children who are disciplined with threats, become negatively motivated adults; ignoring will entail taking no notice of the undesirable behaviour. These theorists strongly support the technique of accentuating the positive. From the above perspectives, it is clear that although they do not necessarily agree on the approach to discipline, discipline, in all cases, involves a relationship between an adult and a not-yet-adult.

### 3.2.5 **The Discipline Encounter**

#### 3.2.5.1 **The Child's influence on the Parent**

"Children's development is a product of the interaction between their own characteristics and those of the people who socialize them" (Mussen et al. 1984:143)

This is referred to as bidirectionality, which means that parents influence their children's behaviours and children influence their parents' behaviours.

Mussen et al. (1984:381) cite examples of studies to prove this principle. They discuss parental behaviour and hyperactive children as an example of bidirectionality. It was found that parents of hyperactive children, were more directive and negative than were parents of non-hyperactive children. Parental reaction to hyperactivity in their children in turn influenced the child's behaviour.

A parent's reaction to the child's initial behaviour also influences the child's response to the punishment, for example, the child will deliberately continue the forbidden behaviour if he perceives the punishment as unreasonable (Mussen et al. 1984:391).

#### 3.2.5.2 **Parental influence on child**

Hoffman (1975:229) suggests that children internalise moral values as a result of parental discipline.

The parent has a great deal of power over the child. Simons et al. (1991:649) suggest that the quality of the parent-child relationship will influence the adolescent's peer associations. According to them, studies done by Conger (1976) and Simons et al. (1988) suggest that adolescents who identify strongly with their parents are likely to care about and be responsive to parental opinions regarding peer associations. Simons et al. (1991:659) in their study of the relationship between parenting factors, social skills, value commitments and problems at school and association with deviant peers and involvement in delinquent behaviour, found that adolescents who are exposed to ineffectual parenting styles often failed to develop prosocial value commitments.

### 3.2.5.2/...

Hoffman (1975:229) also supports the theory of bidirectionality which suggests mutual evocation and reinforcement of responses between parent and child. However, he also points out that it is the child who must adjust to the parent and not the other way around and that the amount of freedom the child has depends on how much the parent is willing to allow him.

Parents may influence their children in several ways according to Mussen et al. (1984:386): **control** - the parent tries to guide the child in the formulation of goals and influence the internalisation of parental standards; **maturity demands** - the parent encourages the child to perform at a high level intellectually, socially or emotionally; **clarity of parent-child communication** - the parent takes the child's opinions and feelings into consideration and uses reason to obtain compliance; **parental nurturance** - the parent is warm and compassionate towards the child and actively involved in the child's life. Hoffman (1975:231) states that many studies show that the child usually gives in to parental pressure. All the child can do, is to try to delay doing what is required. This depends, however, on how long the parent will allow before he or she insists on compliance.

With regard to goal setting, Kerchkhoff and Huff (1974:308) state that several studies have indicated that parents' goals for their children were similar to that of their children for themselves.

### 3.2.5.3 Control

According to Grolnick and Ryan (1989:144) the way the parent controls the child, will influence the development of self-regulation.

Control refers to the way a parent uses power in order to achieve compliance.

Smith (1983:534) defines parental control as the physical power which the parent has over resources. Smith (1983:534) quotes Hoffman's (1970) definition of power assertion, as the use of or threat of physical punishment, deprivation of material objects or privileges or direct application of force.

Smith (1983:534), however, raises questions as to the accuracy of this definition, since control may also exist in a situation where a parent issues a simple command without explanation or withdrawal of privileges and is able to get the child to comply. Smith therefore concludes that numerous studies, for example, studies done by Sigel (1960) indicate that power assertion need not involve the use of force or punishment.

Rutter, Maughan, Mortimore and Ouston (1979), quoted in Cilliers (1988:177), claim that their studies show that a disciplinary style involving frequent interventions is likely to be counter-productive. Koestner et al., (1984:233) hypothesised that frequent use of external constraints on an activity, undermines intrinsic motivation, but they found in their study, that limits can be conveyed without it having a detrimental effect. It may have the detrimental effect of decreased motivation if it is communicated in a controlling manner. Deci and Ryan (1987:1026) quote a study done by Amabile, DeJong and Lepper (1976), which found that imposing deadlines decreased intrinsic motivation. They suggest, therefore, that rewards and imposing deadlines are perceived as controlling and tend to diminish people's self-determination.

Parents' control can be identified on a continuum, starting with a permissive style (Beck 1964) and moving to the other end of the scale. However, no consensus exists as to what constitutes the other end of the scale.

A democratic style as has been suggested by Baldwin (1949) and Baumrind (1967, 1971) has identified two dimensions, namely firm versus lax control and psychological autonomy versus psychological control (Grolnick & Ryan 1989:144).

### 3.3 **PURPOSE OF DISCIPLINE**

Van den Aardweg and Van den Aardweg (1988:62) state that **discipline** is necessary to maintain order in the home, school and in the community. They add that discipline is a "means of teaching the child self-control and self-direction, thus sharpening his conscience regarding right and wrong."

Cilliers (1988:177) quotes Hunter (1976) who states that the "goal of discipline will not be to punish but to modify behaviour. When possible, a student will be directed in solving personal conflicts. The best discipline is that which comes from within and every effort will be made to encourage the growth of self-discipline."

Gunter (1983:148) explains it thus: the child who enters the world is completely "ignorant, injudicious, clumsy, unskilled, irresponsible, undisciplined, dependent being in great need of help" and states that the child has an inherent need to overcome these negative aspects of his existence and therefore seeks help and support. Gunter (1983: 150) also believes that the child cannot learn without the "firm but sympathetic and meaningful discipline of an adult as the person in authority".

Hamachek (1975) quoted in Van den Aardweg and Le Roux (1985:200), believes that the purpose of discipline is to teach the child social conformity in a thoughtful and judicious manner.

Madsen & Madsen (1975:7) believe that "we must structure the environment to provide the child with proper associations. Discipline must first be external: it must come from **without** before it can be from **within**."

Madsen & Madsen (1975:6) add that self-discipline can only be internalised when it is taught actively by adults to the child. They state emphatically: "We discipline to provide for individual productivity and personal happiness" (Madsen & Madsen 1975:8) or put another way, we discipline "to provide each child with behaviours necessary for individual productivity and happiness" (Madsen & Madsen 1975:192).

For Wagemaker (1980:17), the purpose of discipline is to develop independence in the child with a value system of inner control. According to him, good discipline is determined by the manifestation of changes from outer controls to inner controls with consideration for others.

Hoffman (1975:234) believes that the way the child internalises the means for controlling his urges, will depend on the type of discipline to which he is exposed.

### 3.4 **STYLES OF DISCIPLINE**

Various styles of discipline have been identified in child-rearing practices. Every parent practises a form of discipline according to his or her system of values and the goals being striven for. Hoffman (1975:230) believes that styles of discipline used by parents, depend on their education and personal values.

As discussed in the previous chapter on values, Hoffman (1975) in his study of values, showed that apart from values, several other factors influence parent discipline patterns. These may include the absence of the father, the power structure of the husband-wife relation and the quality of the marital relationship itself.

Most parents resort to a mixture of various styles of discipline. Studies have found that the parents' style of discipline significantly affects the child's attitude to his environment, to other people and to himself.

Wagemaker's (1980:13) review of studies done on parenting styles, established that children with high self-esteem had less permissive mothers than children with lower self-esteem.

The three main styles of discipline, as identified by Baumrind (1978), will be discussed in the paragraphs which follow.

Baumrind, quoted in Sanford et al. (1987:1244), believed that the style of discipline used by parents depended on "values, behaviours and standards that children are expected to adopt; in the ways these values, behaviors, and standards are transmitted; and in parental expectations about the behaviour of children."

#### 3.4.1 **Authoritarian**

Authoritarian parents value obedience and resort to punitive, forceful measures to suppress wilfulness in their children.

The child is not granted a great deal of autonomy or the opportunity for frequent verbal interaction with parents. Portes et al. (1986:732) refers to Vygotsky's (1962) verbal regulation theory which states that parental disciplinary styles may influence how frequently a child is exposed to verbal information and language usage and this may influence the child's development of cognitive, verbal and social skills. Authoritarian parents tend to ignore the value of discussion with the child, using language only to reprimand or issue orders.

### 3.4.1/...

They discourage verbal disagreement with parental decisions and are also less affectionate and warm towards their children (Mussen et al. 1984:386).

Van den Aardweg and Van den Aardweg (1987:62) list a number of characteristics found in authoritarian disciplinary practices. These include the oversight of making sure that the child understands the need for rules; punishment is usually severe and the relationship between adult and child is dictatorial in nature. A high degree of control and frequent power assertion are methods drawn on by authoritarian parents.

Children with restrictive, authoritarian parents, may perceive control over their successes or failures as centred in others and over which the child has no control.

Such a child fails to develop an internal locus of control and a motivation to be successful in school learning and behaviour. "Dependent, externally controlled children are not likely to initiate ideas or actions or lead others nor will they seek ways to make the school organisation work for them" (Ames & Ames 1989:284). However, in Baumrind's (1971:173) study of 8 and 9 year old children, it was revealed that girls, but not boys, who were from authoritarian families, were more socially assertive (Sanford et al. 1987:1245).

Portes et al. (1986:732) quotes Feshbach (1973) who noted that "parental authoritarianism, overcontrol, and/or punitiveness may reduce the number and quality of social interactions children need in order to develop intellectually and emotionally.

"Hoffman (1975:234) explains that children who are continually subjected to power assertion, conform in order to avoid punitive reactions from parents. There is therefore continually a struggle between the child's desired behaviour and the parent's wishes. Parents who are inflexible about discipline and whose children see their parents' discipline as unjust are unlikely to accept the discipline and the moral lesson may be lost.

Winder and Rau (1962) claim that children of authoritarian parents tend to be rebellious and may exhibit socially deviant behaviour, show poor initiative and responsibility, low self-esteem and develop a fear and hatred of the punishing person (Dorr et al. 1983:6).

### 3.4.1/...

Simons et al. (1991:646) quote studies done by Patterson (1982, 1986) which have revealed that a coercive parenting style is ineffective in controlling a child's antisocial behaviour. In fact, this style of discipline tends to aggravate aggressiveness which in turn increases the negative response of the parent.

Simons et al. (1991:647) also cite studies done by several other researchers which indicate that children reared by means of the coercive parental style, are often disruptive and off-task and are frequently involved in fights. "A coercive interpersonal style increases the probability that a child will experience academic failure, be disruptive in the classroom, and engage in troublesome behavior on the playground" (Simons et al. 1991:647).

The authoritarian parent may be either very protective and concerned or neglectful (Baumrind 1978:244).

### 3.4.2 **Permissive**

The permissive parent does not see himself in the role of disciplinarian. Rather he regards himself merely as a resource for the child to use as he wishes. The permissive parent uses very little punishment and makes few demands for mature behaviour. Baumrind's study of 8 and 9 year old children showed that children of permissive parents were low in both social and cognitive competence (Sanford et al. 1987:1245).

Van den Aardweg and Van den Aardweg (1987:62) describes permissive discipline as that discipline which exercises very little control in the hope that the child will learn from the consequences of his acts. The permissive parent believes that the child must be free from restraint provided that this freedom does not threaten the child's physical safety.

Permissive parents may be either protective and loving or use this style of discipline to avoid their responsibilities as parents (Baumrind 1978:244).

Mussen et al. (1984:386) describes the permissive parent as someone who is noncontrolling, nondemanding, lax in disciplining and does not regard independence and self-reliance as important. Children of these parents were found to be the least mature children. Rosen (1965) suggests that low parental involvement may negatively affect self-esteem during adolescence (Baumrind 1978:259).

### 3.4.2/...

Dorr et al. (1983:6) cite studies which reveal that overly permissive and overly indulgent parents tend to rear children who become spoiled, selfish, inconsiderate and demanding adults. In a study done by Sears (1961), a strong correlation was found between high permissiveness, low punishment in the home and antisocial and aggressive behaviour (Dorr et al. 1983:6). The adolescent who feels that he does not have parental support and guidance may turn to peers for support and this may lead to antisocial behaviour.

### 3.4.3 **Authoritative**

This parent is concerned with encouraging verbal interaction and autonomy. While the authoritative parent does not place severe restrictions on the child, such a parent sets standards for future conduct. The authoritative parent demands mature behaviour from the child. Authoritative parents tend to exert firm control when the child disobeys but do not neglect to use reason when attempting to achieve the desired behaviour in the child.

In a discussion of Baumrind's classification of parental disciplinary styles, Dorr et al., (1983:7) state that although the authoritative parent asserts his or her rights, he or she also respects the rights of the child. Such a parent is more likely to encourage the development of competence, that is, responsibility and independence, than either the authoritarian or permissive parent.

Van den Aardweg and Van den Aardweg (1987:62) identify several characteristics by which authoritative or democratic discipline can be identified. These include: reasons for rules are made clear; the reasons for behaviour are taken into consideration; punishment is explained and in keeping with the offence and corporal punishment, unlike in authoritarian disciplinary styles, is used discriminately.

They encourage in their children, social competence which leads to success. This kind of social competence is known as instrumental competence (Baumrind 1978:245). Instrumental competence will be discussed briefly in paragraph 3.6.1. Mussen et al. (1984:386) identified several traits found in authoritative parents.

### 3.4.3/...

Authoritative parents were found to be "warm, loving, supportive and conscientious and they communicated well with their children." They supported their children's need to be independent and to make decisions, but they were firm about their own beliefs about what was to be valued. Children who received autonomy support from their parents were found to be more intrinsically motivated, and showed greater competence and self-esteem than were children who were subjected to greater control.

It was found that parental support of autonomy also influences adjustment in classroom behaviour and achievement (Grolnick & Ryan 1989:144). Studies revealed that children of authoritative parents were mature and competent.

Several studies done by Baumrind with pre-school and elementary school children, have showed that children of both sexes of authoritative parents were high in social and cognitive competence. Female pre-school children were socially responsible and more independent than other children (Sanford et al. 1987:1245).

Epstein (1989) in Ames and Ames (1989:264) believes that children who are joint decision-makers with their parents are at an advantage in the school setting where they are more likely to discuss issues raised at school and are more capable of interacting successfully with their teachers and other pupils. They are more likely to seek advice from parents on school-related issues.

Epstein (1989) also cites several studies which suggest that "authoritative (not authoritarian) relations lead to more self-reliant, explorative behaviour in young children, (Baumrind, 1971), and in older students" (Elder, 1971; Epstein & McPartland, 1979).

Epstein, in Ames and Ames (1989:284) suggests that parental authority based on reasoning and shared power results in positive attitudes towards school and learning.

A final comment about the three approaches to discipline discussed above, comes from a report written by Walker et al. (1991:44) which concludes that authoritarian and permissive parenting styles negatively influenced academic achievement, while authoritative parenting styles influenced school achievement, positively.

#### 3.4.4 **Methods of Discipline**

Parental discipline attitudes determine the methods which parents will use to effect the desired behaviour in their children.

Authoritarian parents expect unquestioning obedience from their children, while authoritative parents permit opportunities for joint decision-making between parents and child, consider the child's point of view and allow the child to question parental decisions.

Parents resort to a variety of methods to assist the child to internalise acceptable behaviour.

These methods may include: **reinforcers** such as praise, affection, special privileges; **punishment**, for example, sending a child to a room or withdrawing special privileges.

Mussen et al. (1984:390) identify several studies which reveal factors which would increase the effectiveness of punishment. These include: punishment should be administered **immediately** after violation of rules (Aronfreed, 1968; Parke 1977); the **severity** of the punishment should be just enough to induce compliance as it has been found that children are more likely to internalise rules when the punishment has been mild (Lepper 1981); punishment should be **consistent and clearly specified** (Hawkins, 1977; Parke, 1977); punishment should be accompanied by **clear reasons** for the punishment (LaVoie, 1973, Parke, 1977), and finally Mussen et al. (1984:390) reason that a child is more likely to internalise rules and to comply with them when the parents' rules and disciplinary actions fit the **child's level of moral judgement**.

Gunter (1983:163) also suggests several aspects which contribute to the effectiveness of punishment. These include: punishing in order to achieve an **educative goal**; the child should **know exactly** why he is being punished; establishing whether the child is indeed guilty of a misdemeanour; punishment should be in **accordance with the nature and seriousness** of the offence and the **temperament** of the child should be taken into account; the **manner** in which the punishment is meted out, should leave the child in no doubt as to the sincerity and good intentions of the educator; the educator makes it clear that it is the **deed, not the person**, which is disapproved of and that no grudge is harboured against the child; verbal

punishment should be devoid of sarcasm, punishment work should not take the form of pointless writing out of lines or memorising of literary works and corporal punishment should be administered only in serious cases. Although Gunter (1983) discusses discipline in the context of the classroom, the aspects discussed above, are equally relevant to parental discipline.

Van den Aardweg and Van den Aardweg (1987:62) reiterate the need for **consistent** discipline and **prompt** punishment. They warn against indiscriminate use of punishment which could have an adverse effect on a child, and add that "evidence shows that reward is a strong motivating force if appropriately used."

Cherian (1990:97) quotes Behr et al. (1986) who believe that when a child is frequently punished, he becomes resentful and hostile, he experiences insecurity which breeds anxiety, fear and maladjustment.

Punishment of a severe and prolonged nature, may inhibit a particular response for a while because the response is suppressed.

However the undesirable behaviour is not unlearned. Children may, in fact develop grossly maladaptive behaviour if severe punishment is brought to bear on a strongly motivated response.

According to Epstein (Ames & Ames 1989:264), parents use the method of reward to emphasise those values which they would like to inculcate in their children, for example a parent may reward reading skills and so influence the child's attitude to that skill. Parents who reward school-related activities, will motivate the children to spend more time on schoolwork. Epstein adds that schools need to help parents to understand how to encourage motivation by using reward.

Epstein, quoted in Ames and Ames (1989:284), claims that children who are frequently rewarded at home, are self-confident, show an absence of guilt about success and are highly motivated to continue learning. However, in order to avoid motivation to succeed based on fear of failure, it is important for parents to develop a reward structure which emphasises improvement rather than top grades.

### 3.4.4/...

Painter & Corsini (1990:21) emphasise that rewards and punishments can have negative effects on the child. They believe that it taints human dignity and shows lack of respect.

Madsen & Madsen (1975:22) believe that parents should focus on overt behaviours, not ideas, and they provide an example to demonstrate this statement. The parent should focus on "getting to school on time rather than on a bad attitude about school." They also advise a set of easily understood rules for each activity.

Reward should play an integral part in teaching children appropriate behaviour.

"In the initial stages of control it is important to have the child achieve success quickly, after which the time between behaviour and reward may be stretched for longer periods while continuing to pair appropriate personal responses from the parent (words of praise, expressions such as smiling and closeness such as positive touching" (Madsen & Madsen 1975:23). They add that rewards will only be effective if given immediately after the work is done.

Landman et al. (1982:16) confirm this last comment, namely that for rewards to be effective, it should only be given after the work is done. "Reward becomes meaningful only when it has symbolic merit, in other words when the child, at the **completion** of a task, **experiences** the satisfaction one experiences when fulfilling the good. Reward then becomes a **confirmation** of the good already done" (Landman et al. 1982:16).

Other factors to consider are the influence of socio-economic status and values on the parents' approach to discipline.

Kohn (1969:104), in his discussion of mothers' use of punishment, concluded that social class did not influence the mother's approach to punishment. Mothers of both social classes did not punish immediately when children misbehaved. The difference becomes evident in the view the mother takes of persistent misbehaviour. The working-class mother is concerned about the consequences of the child's behaviour, while the middle-class mother is concerned with the reasons for the child's behaviour.

#### 3.4.4/...

Kohn (1969:104 & 105) further explains that parents punish when children violate those values which are important to the parents. If the parents value self-direction, the parents will probably be concerned about establishing the reasons for the misbehaviour.

Therefore Kohn (1969) suggests that there is a relationship between mothers' responses to misbehaviour and the values which they regard as important. He also mentions that there is a lack of evidence that this relationship between response to misbehaviour and values, applies to the father.

Wood & Schwartz (1977:4) believe that parents can overcome the feeling of powerlessness, prevalent in modern western society, by stating their demands in very clear terms, and that they should guard against inconsistency in these demands.

Thomas (1977:311) claims that the problem with the lack of discipline lies with all adults. He suggests that everyone in contemporary society, tries to shift the blame onto somebody else instead of each adult, that is, parents, teachers, educators and the legal system, taking responsibility for exercising discipline. He further suggests that to be effective, discipline decisions should be prompt and firmly executed. "We can continue to talk about discipline or we can do something about it. We can continue to blame others or we can assume personal responsibility for part of the problem. We can all get involved in enforcing reasonable rules and regulations" (Thomas 1977:312).

As has already been established, discipline is not synonymous with punishment. Discipline is necessary for the child to become an adult who will make a positive contribution to society. This can only be achieved when discipline is effective.

#### 3.4.5 **Basic Requirements for Effective Discipline**

Gunter (1983:154-161) identifies seven criteria for effective discipline, as follows:

#### 3.4.5.1 **Love**

Discipline without love becomes an exercise solely in coercion, compulsion and imperiousness. Only when the parent disciplines the child in a genuinely loving way, is it possible for the parent to continually bear the reason for the discipline, in mind, that is, assisting the child to adulthood. The child will then trust and accept the teachings of the parent.

#### 3.4.5.2 **Respect and Trust**

As mentioned in the above paragraph, a child will only accept the authority of the parent if that child trusts and respects the parent. The parent expects the child to display a measure of self-reliance and therefore trusts the child to practise self-reliance. This relationship is therefore one of mutual trust and respect.

"In such an atmosphere, in which there is a positive personal relation between pupil and teacher, the normal child and youth are, as a rule, prepared to accept and obey the teacher's authority and to be his disciple" (Gunter 1983:157). This is true also in the home between adult (parent) and child.

#### 3.4.5.3 **Freedom**

Because the child is expected to display self-reliance, the child is given opportunities to exercise self-reliance. This cannot happen if the child is closely controlled, ruled and ordered and allowed no freedom to do things for himself.

As children grow older, they should be given increasing freedom. Epstein, in Ames and Ames (1989:283), claims that frequent opportunities for decision-making, leads to greater self-direction, a more positive attitude towards authority figures, a pride in personal successes, the assumption of greater responsibility for achievements and failures, an increase in feelings of internal control of the environment and growth in independence.

#### 3.4.5.4 Relation of Dialogue

In the relationship between educator (parent) and child, communication should be maintained on a continued basis. Both educator and child should have the opportunity to listen and speak, that is, to express opinions, ask questions and to share ideas.

#### 3.4.5.5 Being-a-friend of the child

"The good parent is his child's best friend..." (Gunter 1983:159).

Although the parent is the child's friend, the parent should guard against such a relationship deteriorating into familiarity which could consequently result in a loss of esteem and respect for the parent. Therefore although the parent attempts to be the child's friend, the parent should keep the necessary distance between himself and the child in order to maintain respect and esteem.

#### 3.4.5.6 Strictness, Firmness, Tact, Wisdom and Understanding and Sympathy

Strict and firm discipline is the responsibility of the parent towards the child so that the child may reach his goal of becoming a successful adult. The aim of discipline is to assist the child to continue to accept, respect and obey law and order and to strive for self-discipline.

At those times when the child revolts against authority, the parent needs to exercise wisdom, justice, patience, tact, fairness and care, guiding and leading rather than coercing the child. Thus it is necessary to exercise authoritative rather than authoritarian discipline.

"Authoritarian discipline consisting of pure compulsion, force and domination, which proves that the educator's authority has degenerated into sheer power and compulsion, serves only to depersonalise the child and reduce him to the level of an object, and therefore to humiliate him. The art of effective discipline is for the educator to combine strictness and firmness on the one hand with tact, wisdom, justice and sympathetic understanding on the other hand in all his educating actions"(Gunter 1983:161).

3.4.5.6/...

Wagemaker (1980:15) also emphasises the importance of the elements of love, concern, and caring in the exercise of restriction and punishment.

Cherian (1990:96) states that a child is unlikely to develop self-discipline in the face of constant threats of punishment which are unlikely to materialise. He adds that inconsistent discipline is likely to undermine a child's motivation to apply himself in the classroom.

### **3.4.5.7 Clear and Consistent Policy together with Exemplary**

#### **Living**

The child must be left in no doubt as to what the educator requires of him according to his abilities. Wagemaker (1980:14) states that when rules are not clearly defined, children become confused.

There should be consistency in what is regarded as acceptable behaviour. The parent cannot allow today, what he had disapproved of yesterday.

The parent cannot expect behaviour which is above reproach, from the child, but fails to exercise such behaviour himself. In other words, the parent must set a good example.

The above discussion centres mainly around Gunter's (1983) seven clearly defined criteria which ought to be borne in mind in the striving for, and exercise of effective discipline.

Wood and Schwartz (1977:43), also identify a number of pitfalls which parents should avoid in the discipline of their children. They state that the first mistake parents make, is that they do not make clear demands of their children. Parents ought to demand, rather "than try to inspire or encourage the child to do something; or try to reason with the child; or use vague words and phrases; or punish the child; or use threats and warnings; interrogate the child; or plead with the child to do what he is asked. They state that demands should leave no room for misunderstanding or ambiguity and that parents should guard against being manipulated by their children.

3.4/...

Wagemaker (1980:14) claims that parents who make demands of their children, show that they care for their children. He does, however, warn against parents expecting their children to cope with situations which they cannot manage.

A second pitfall, according to Wood and Schwartz (1977:43), is that parents become unclear about their own values. This uncertainty about values results in an uncertainty about what they expect of their child. They advise parents to be specific and clear about the goals and values they want their children to achieve and then go about communicating them in clear, unambiguous terms to the child.

They identify a third pitfall as parents who come to see their child's misbehaviours as something beyond the control of the child. It is then assumed that the child is incapable of controlling his behaviour and that it is pointless to make demands on the child.

Powerless parents forget that it is important to establish who is the leader in the family and before they realise it the child has control over the parents.

Wood and Schwartz (1977:111) propose that demanding things of a child is acceptable, but that this "demanding" should clearly convey to the child, that he is a worthwhile and loveable person.

### 3.5 **EFFECTS OF FAMILY STRUCTURE ON DISCIPLINE**

Forehand et al., (1986:1530) showed in their study of the relation between home variables and young adolescent behaviour, that "both academic performance and externalising problem behaviours in school were related to and predicted by the parent-adolescent relationship and/or maternal depression in the home setting."

Walker et al. (1991:43) cites several studies which have concluded that "harsh and problematic parenting practices can contribute to producing antisocial behaviour patterns in children. Such patterns often contribute to school adjustment and achievement problems."

From their studies (1991:49) they have concluded that parental discipline and parent involvement most strongly predict delinquency and they therefore emphasise the importance of a comprehensive assessment of both home (information on parents' discipline practices, the nature and degree of parents' involvement in their child's life and the reports of the child's behavioural status) and school domains in the understanding and prediction of the course of deviant child behaviours.

Several factors to be taken into account when attempting to understand the influence of family structure on discipline, are:

### 3.5.1 **Age of child**

The degree to which authoritarian and permissive parenting styles are practised, seem to be influenced by the age of the child. The authoritative style remains constant. Authoritarianism seems to decrease as the child grows older and permissiveness increases (Sanford et al., 1987:1248).

### 3.5.2 **Sex of child**

Mussen et al. (1984:391) refers to studies done by Mulhern and Passman (1981) which reveal that boys seem to receive more punishment for failure than girls do, even when their patterns of success and failure were identical.

Elder and Bowerman (1963:895) refer to previous studies which indicate that fathers are more likely to discipline their sons, and mothers are more likely to discipline their daughters. They also suggest that physical discipline, shouting and nagging may be more evident in families with several sons. External behaviour-control methods are found in the form of physical discipline, yelling and ridicule.

Elder and Bowerman (1963:895), also suggest that boys who only have brothers are more likely to experience external behaviour-control methods, and girls who have brothers as opposed to girls with sisters and no brothers, are likely to experience external behaviour-control. Kohn's (1969:106) study also indicated that working-class parents had clearly defined conceptions of what is appropriate behaviour for girls and boys, while middle-class parents made very little distinction between appropriate behaviour for girls and boys.

Altucher's (1957) study indicated that fathers who set limits for their sons, encouraged masculinity of interests (Lamb 1976:94).

Mussen's (1961) study showed that fathers who were nonpunitive and nonrestrictive had sons with high masculine interests (Lamb 1976:94).

Lamb (1976:95) also cites a study done by Bronfenbrenner (1961) which revealed that a nurturant father who sets definite limits, encouraged leadership, responsibility and social maturity in their sons.

Sanford's (1987:1248) study of parenting styles, revealed that parents tended to be less authoritarian towards girls than towards boys. Permissive parents did, however, not show differences in the discipline of their sons and daughters.

### 3.5.3 Family size/family dynamics

Single mothers show a higher level of permissive parenting than do two natural parents (Sanford et al. 1987:1248). Adolescents from maternal single parent families tended to have lower grades and more discipline problems than their peers from paternal single parent families.

Mengerink (1987:4048A) found in his study that adolescents from single parent families achieved lower grades and had more discipline problems than their peers from two-parent families.

Dadds et al. (1990:121) quote several studies which have found that marital discord was related to behaviour problems in boys but not in girls. Their explanation is that boys and girls are equally as strongly affected but that girls show it in less noticeable ways.

The reason for this may be that parents involved in marital conflict tend to be less consistent and use more coercive disciplinary techniques. Dadds et al. (1990:127) also suggests that boys may be subjected to more inconsistent and coercive discipline than girls.

Emery (1982:322) believed, however, that in families where there was marital conflict, boys were affected more than girls because boys were disciplined more frequently than girls, by both parents. Far less conflict was evident with regard to the discipline of daughters, as fathers mostly did not object to the mother's rules for their daughters. Emery (1982:324) concludes from his study of the relationship between marital turmoil and behaviour problems in children, that parents who are in constant conflict provide poor role models, are inconsistent in their discipline and place more stress on their children.

Elder and Bowerman (1963:893) believe that the **larger the family**, the less time available to explain rules and the more frequently parents resort to strong behaviour control, requiring the child to assume a passive role.

Elder and Bowerman (1963:897) also found that parents tended to be more autocratic in larger families. Adolescents in larger families were likely to be dominated by their parents and given relatively few explanations of rules.

They add that the frequency of praise, approval, comfort and acceptance tends to decrease in large families. They claim that "family size will be positively related to parental use of external behaviour-control methods in child rearing" especially among lower-class families (Elder & Bowerman 1963:894).

*Marital  
conflict*

### 3.5.4 Socio-economic status/cultural differences

As has been discussed in paragraph 2.4.1., socio-economic status has an influence on the disciplinary practices which in turn is dependent on the values regarded by the family, as worth striving for. Mussen et al. (1984:381) quote several studies, (Minton, Kagan & Levine, 1971 and Kohn, 1959) which confirm that socio-economic status influences parental-disciplinary practices. They state that middle-class parents place fewer restrictions on their children, than do working-class parents. According to Elder & Bowerman (1963:894), middle-class parents prefer their children to be curious, responsible and autonomous, while lower-class parents tend to prefer obedience and respectability.

Brown (1979:67) quotes Duvall's (1946) study of the goals of child discipline and class. Duvall found that working-class parents were concerned about their children conforming to external standards. According to him, middle-class parents were more concerned that the child be able to think independently.

He believes that the parent's occupation often influenced his or her attitude to discipline.

Middle-class occupations require a greater degree of self-direction, whereas working-class occupations required a greater degree of rule following.

Portes et al. (1986:725) quotes a study done by Jordan (1970), which found a higher degree of permissiveness with increasing socio-economic levels of parents.

They refer to Baumrind's (1978) study which warns that too much or too little parental control could hinder social interaction in children, which in turn may affect their development.

In his study of the relationship between corporal punishment and academic performance in the Transkei, Cherian (1990:98) found that working-class parents tended to chastise more frequently than did middle-class parents, who in turn, preferred techniques of reasoning, isolation and love oriented discipline. This view was also held by Elder and Bowerman (1963:893) who stated that lower-class parents were more likely than middle-class parents, to resort to external control.

### 3.5.4/...

Socio-economic status is influenced by family patterns. Single-parent families frequently have limited financial resources. Many of these single-parent families are headed by mothers. Single mothers tend to be more permissive than two natural parents. Single fathers were also more permissive for both sexes. Step-families compared to natural families, were either more authoritarian or more permissive (Sanford et al. 1987:1248).

According to Kurdek and Siesky (1978:369), disciplinary problems in divorced families frequently occur because the disciplinary patterns change. Generally, mothers become stricter and fathers more lenient if the children are living with the mother and vice versa if the children are living with the father. They also suggest that increased behavioural problems just subsequent to the father's visit may be the result of difficulties in adjusting to a part-time relationship with the father.

According to Hetherington et al. (1982), divorced parents showed less affection to their children and were inconsistent in their application of discipline. They were also less inclined towards communication with their children and made fewer maturity demands. Emery (1982:322) quotes Hetherington (1978) who suggests that changes in discipline following divorce resulted in more ineffective discipline of boys than of girls.

Myers et al. (1987:18) state that there is a trend towards an increase in single-parent families and working mothers. They suggest that students' school behaviour and success are related to changes in family demographics.

According to them, single parents are more frequently living in poverty, and, according to Hetherington, Camara and Featherman (1981), have less time for the supervision and care of their children (Myers et al. 1987:19). They also believe that these factors have a negative effect on school outcomes. (This is discussed more fully in chapter four).

Grolnick and Ryan (1989:152) also found that socio-economic status affects child development according to the degree to which parents are available for their children.

It is suggested in Portes's et al. (1986:733) study, that culture significantly influences the choice of parental discipline styles. They noted in their study that Caucasian parents tended towards less strict discipline than did black parents, regardless of changes due to socioeconomic-educational attainment or intervention.

Basically, this and other studies, confirm that parental values which determine their approach to discipline, influence the child's attitude to his environment, long-term goals and consequently the degree of motivation towards academic achievement.

### 3.6 **DISCIPLINE AND COGNITIVE DEVELOPMENT**

Psychoanalysts believe that as the child develops the cognitive ability to **abstract** and **conceptualise**, they learn to put themselves in the other person's place.

The ability to abstract is defined by Van den Aardweg and Van den Aardweg (1988:7) as "the ability to think about something apart from the actual object or particular instance." The ability to abstract assumes that the individual is not controlled by the concrete, present or immediate experience.

The ability to conceptualise involves the "association of ideas, the discovery of a cause and effect relationship and the classification and generalisation of things in the environment" (Van den Aardweg and Van den Aardweg 1988:48).

Hoffman (1975:234) quotes Esterbrook (1959) who claims that power assertion (evident in disciplinary styles) may interfere with the child's cognitive functioning in a situation. According to him, induction, whereby the child's attention is drawn to the consequences, for others, of his behaviour, provides him with cognitive understanding of the ramifications of his actions.

This is especially noticeable in adolescence. This ability to see one's behaviour as influencing others, may cause adolescents to come in conflict with authority. For example, there may be youth movements to champion the rights of individuals who have some or other disadvantage.

How successful discipline is during the school years depends on progress in the building of conscience. Initially, children conform to standards set by parents because of the presence of the educator (parent), but as the child reaches adolescence, these standards become a part of the self and the presence of the parent is no longer necessary for the child to comply.

Grolnick and Ryan (1989:143) quote several studies which have revealed that parental disciplinary styles and child achievement and adjustment in school, are significantly related. Their study has revealed that "by fostering autonomy in their children, parents better prepare their children for an educational environment that requires independent mastery and self-regulation."

They state that several investigators claim that "the 'search for excellence' in education should proceed beyond the classroom context per se to what is perhaps the most pervasive socialising influence on children's school related functioning - namely their parents" (Grolnick & Ryan 1989:152).

Studies done by Dornbusch et al. (1987:1249) showed that authoritarian and permissive styles were associated with lower grades.

Cherian (1990:96) believes that the threat of physical harm, threat to one's self-esteem and pressure to perform beyond one's capabilities can produce anxiety with the result that it affects academic performance. Parents need to be active in the school learning process. Rules concerning study activities should be discussed, for example how much time would be allowed for television et cetera (Wagemaker 1980:32).

It should not be assumed that children know how to learn. They should be taught and guided how to learn. Parents have a major responsibility in this regard.

### 3.6.1 **Instrumental Competence**

Baumrind (1978:245) defines instrumental competence as "a particular kind of social competence which is associated with success in Western society." She adds that it includes attributes such as social responsibility (friendly rather than hostile to peers), independence (self-determining rather than conforming), achievement orientation (the child seeks rather than avoids intellectual challenge and solves problems persistently and efficiently) and vigor (the child's vitality and energy level).

According to White (1963), competence entails a persons' ability to interact effectively with the environment (Grolnick & Ryan 1989:145).

Grolnick and Ryan (1989:145) also suggest a relationship between how competent the child perceives himself to be, and academic achievement.

According to Parsons instrumental competence involves assertiveness, ambition, self-discipline and objectivity (Baumrind 1978:249).

### 3.7 **DISCIPLINE AND AFFECTIVE DEVELOPMENT**

According to Grolnick and Ryan (1989:143), the relationship between parenting styles and affective development, is a relatively neglected research area.

They claim that parenting styles influence self-regulatory (autonomous) and self-evaluative capacities. They cite own previous studies (1986:143) which reveal that autonomy and self-regulation in school are associated with greater motivation and adjustment.

Myers et al. (1987:30) in their study of the relationship between student misbehaviour and academic performance and the effects of family structure and mother's employment on misbehaviour and performance, found that students who perceived themselves as failures in the school environment, more frequently resorted to misbehaving. "Perception of low performance relative to classmates leads to misbehaviour" (Myers et al., 1987:30).

Marital conflicts frequently result in emotional upheaval.

Studies have indicated differences in emotional responses of boys and girls to marital conflict.

Emery (1982:3223) discusses several studies which offer explanations for the differences in responses of boys and girls to marital conflict and inconsistent discipline in these unstable families.

It has been suggested that boys may attempt to find ways to distract their parents from their own problems by becoming aggressive and noncompliant. The behaviour is also more often overcontrolled than undercontrolled. Block et al. (1981:971) quote Hetherington et al. who state that boys exposed to marital discord, show more sustained noncompliant, aggressive, antisocial behaviours following divorce, than girls. Girls may react in a different way, namely by becoming anxious, withdrawn or even very well-behaved.

According to Block et al. (1981:971) boys who live in a home where parents are in agreement about child-rearing practices, have greater ego control and ego resilience and this is reflected in "resourcefulness, verbal facility and acceptance of responsibility for one's actions and feelings, to task orientation and to intellectual functioning."

Myers et al. (1987:30) also found in their study that students who lived with a single parent or who had working mothers, had greater discipline problems and lower academic performance than similar students in two-parent families.

### 3.7.1 Aggressiveness versus Assertiveness

A distinction must be drawn between aggressiveness and assertiveness.

"Behaving assertively means stating ideas or complaints directly and candidly, but without the condescension, outrage, insults, or public humiliation that usually accompany aggression" (Nielsen 1982:167). Deluty (1981:149) quotes several definitions of the concept assertiveness. Deluty (1981:149) summarises these definitions into a functional definition, as follows: "Assertiveness is the direct, non-hostile, noncoercive expression of one's thoughts, feelings, beliefs, or desires."

He adds that non-assertive behaviour can be classified as either aggressiveness or submissiveness.

Deluty (1981:152) quotes Alberti and Emmons (1971) as stating that assertive persons tend to be more successful in social situations because they are more confident about their own abilities, and are more open and expressive.

A number of researchers have found a positive relationship between school readiness, intellectual functioning and future intellectual achievement on the one hand, and assertiveness on the other (Deluty 1981:152).

Musssen et al. (1984:381) claims that many studies have revealed that aggressive children have parents who use a great deal of physical punishment. Deluty (1981:151) quotes several studies which show that a child's aggressiveness is often an imitation of the behaviour exhibited by the parents who serve as models in the child's environment.

He also cites a study done by Olweus (1980) which identified four factors which contributed to the development of aggressiveness. These included: mother's negativism; mother's permissiveness for aggression; mother's and father's use of "power-assertive" methods; the boy's temperament.

Several studies show that inconsistent discipline tends to be associated with aggressive behaviour (Dorr et al. 1983:7).

A lack of co-operation between parents regarding the discipline of their children, leads to learning problems. Learning problems are also created when parents assign sole responsibility to the teachers and school for the education of the child and where they do not support the school, but rather tend to criticise it (Madsen & Madsen 1975:12).

### 3.7.1/...

Patterson (1982, 1986) quoted in Simons et al. (1991:646) has established that the consequences of a coercive parenting style are that it is ineffective in controlling the child's antisocial behaviour, which includes non-compliance, whining, teasing, hitting and yelling, and that these styles also seem to exacerbate the child's aggressiveness and this in turn, tends to elicit a negative response from the parent. Children subjected to this type of coercive parenting style, tend to generalise this style from the family to interactions with peers and teachers. Simons et al. (1991:647) conclude that aggressiveness will probably lead the child to experience academic failure, and cause the child to be disruptive in the classroom and exhibit antisocial behaviour on the playground. These children are also not readily accepted by peers who do conform to adult norms and standards.

Simons et al. (1991:659) found in their construction of a model of delinquency which specifies the manner in which parenting factors, social skills, value commitments, and problems in school contribute to association with deviant peers and involvement in delinquent behaviour, that "adolescents who are subjected to inept parenting practices (nattering, authoritarian, minimal explanation)" tend to develop an aggressiveness in their interaction with others.

Furthermore, these young people who do not identify with their parents, often fail to develop a commitment to prosocial values.

### 3.7.2 **Self-esteem**

"Self-esteem is the degree of positive or negative feeling that one has on the assessment or evaluation of oneself" (Van den Aardweg & Van den Aardweg 1988:206). According to Gecas and Schwalbe (1986:38)

Coopersmith's (1967) definition describes self-esteem as that evaluation which the individual makes about himself and which then determines how capable, successful, significant and worthy the individual believes himself to be.

Joubert (1991:115) quotes several sources which identify those characteristics inherent in the person with high self-esteem. Persons high in self-esteem are less likely to be lonely, depressed or shy. They are more likely to be popular, creative and take risks.

Gecas and Schwalbe (1986:37) states that "the family is generally considered an important context for the development of a child's self-concept. It is the place where our initial sense of self is formed through intimate, intensive and extensive interaction with parents and other family members." They mention several studies which indicate that positive evaluation of the child, such as support, participation and interest in the child are positively related to the child's self-esteem. According to them, this positive evaluation of the child, conveys to the child, information about his or her inherent worth. Coopersmith (1967) isolated three factors which allow for optimal development of the self-esteem. He believes that a child will develop high self-esteem if there is parental acceptance of the child; the parent has set clearly defined limits; and the child is allowed freedom within limits.

Gecas and Schwalbe (1986:44) found in their study of parental behaviour as reported by parents, children's perceptions of parental behaviour and the effects of each on various aspects children's self-evaluations, that the self-esteem of boys was more strongly affected by parental control, whereas girls' self-esteem was more strongly affected by parental support and participation. Their study also found that fathers influence adolescent self-esteem to a greater extent than mothers do.

Several other researchers identified parental warmth (Sears, 1970) and support (Gecas, 1971) as important for the development of self-esteem in children (Joubert 1990:115). Greenberg, Siegel and Leitch (1983:383) had also previously cited several studies that had revealed that warm relationships with parents are related to high self-concept and ego identity. Several other studies, (Bowlby, 1973; Greenberger & Sorenson, 1974; Murphey et al., 1963) suggest that the development of ego autonomy and optimal adjustment are promoted in children when they are allowed to develop independence within the context of a warm relationship with parents.

### 3.8 **DISCIPLINE AND MORAL DEVELOPMENT**

It is important for adolescents to be able to identify with a positive role model and for them to belong to a group.

Adolescence can be a trying time in an individual's life. During this time, parents may find it difficult to control their children.

It may be difficult to control with whom the child associates, and how he spends his free time. According to Wagemaker (1980:25), the adolescent must be allowed to learn from his or her own mistakes. A report taken from youth programmes in America, revealed that adolescents who were close to their parents, tended not to use any mind-altering drugs. These teenagers were also high achievers at school and religion was important to most of them.

Parents were also more concerned about, and familiar with, the whereabouts of their children and with whom they were when they were out (Wagemaker 1980:28).

Baumrind (1978:260) believes that adolescents who have internalised traditional values tend to conform more readily to parental standards than do other adolescents. She adds that within American society it has been shown that adolescents from families who maintain a strong belief system and a traditional family structure, tend to conform more readily.

Turiel (1975) quoted in Chandler's essay on the Piagetian perspective on discipline, states that moral development "is thought to represent the orderly transformation of cognitive structures in interaction with social experience" (Dorr, Zax & Bonner 1983:52).

Piaget believed that the way children think about moral issues is influenced by advancing intellectual development. For Piaget "events can be understood at or below one's current operative level, but not above" (Dorr, Zax & Bonner 1983:54). The consequence of this will then be that the parent or disciplinarian will have to set upper limits on the kind of justice that he or she metes out.

Shaw and Scott (1991:61) state that several studies, among them, studies done by Dix & Grusec (1983), have indicated that inductive discipline promotes internalised control over behaviour. Inductive discipline involves explanations by the parent about the causes, effects and consequences for others of the child's behaviour. According to Shaw & Scott (1991:61), several authors, (Aronfreed, 1961; Hoffman, 1963; Hoffman & Saltzstein, 1967) have suggested that "inductive discipline would develop, in the child, a capacity for empathy as well as moral controls that are guided by an internalised set of standards."

### 3.9 **CONCLUSION**

It is the desire of most parents that their children will become productive adults with a positive contribution to society.

It is the responsibility of the adult to assist and guide the child towards the self-discipline necessary to achieve this goal.

Assistance and guidance to the child by the adult takes place initially through external discipline.

This implies a relationship between an adult and a child. The quality of this relationship is vitally important if the adult is going to succeed in guiding the child towards self-discipline and responsible adulthood.

This chapter has dealt with various approaches to discipline, as well as those factors which may inhibit or facilitate the attempts by the child to achieve self-reliance.

In the next chapter the researcher will attempt to explore and review the available literature on how the role of the father influences the child's attitude to academic achievement.

## **CHAPTER FOUR**

# **A REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE CONCERNING THE INFLUENCE OF PATERNAL INVOLVEMENT ON THE SCHOLASTIC ACHIEVEMENT OF SECONDARY SCHOOL PUPILS**

## **4.1 INTRODUCTION**

### **4.1.1 The Modern Western Nuclear Family**

With reference to a review of existing literature on this subject, the role of the father within the nuclear family, the single-parent family and within the increasing number of reconstituted families and how it influences the secondary pupil's academic achievement, will be examined in this chapter.

Burgess, Lock and Thomes (1967) as quoted in Steyn et al. (1987:39) define the family as "a group of persons united by ties of marriage, blood or adoption; constituting a single household; interacting and communicating with each other in their respective social roles as husband and wife, mother and father, son and daughter, brother and sister; and creating and maintaining a common culture.

The nuclear family within the Western culture consists of a father and mother, together with their progeny all of whom fulfil specific roles within the family unit.

Burgess et al. (1967), define the nuclear family as the ideal setting in which to socialise children into the community of which the family is a part.

The reconstituted family occurs when divorced adults remarry different people bringing with them children from the previous marriages. According to Gerdes (1989:236), the reconstituted family faces the challenge of developing into an "intimate group bonded by feelings of love and sympathy, cohesion and the striving for common goals." With the increasing rate of divorce, and to a lesser extent, due to death, an increasing number of children will experience living in families of which the structure has been changed.

Many children are being raised in so-called incomplete family units, that is, a single parent family, as society becomes more tolerant towards single mothers and fathers, who choose to rear their children on their own after divorce from, or death of a spouse.

#### 4.1.2 **The Responsibility of the Family**

Research has established that each of these types of family structures influence the child's academic achievement motivation in different ways.

Forehand et al.(1986:1528) agree that "recent literature suggests parent-child interaction in the home may influence behaviour in the second major setting in which children function: the school."MacDonald and Parke(1984) have found that mother-child and father-child interactions influence the child's behaviour in school, in different ways.

Through the mother, the child learns to trust the father and significant others. The father sets the standards and norms of adulthood. He, must therefore, assume the responsibility of familiarising the child with his world, that is, the world of adult norms. If the father fails to behave in an authoritative manner, the child cannot venture confidently and may easily flounder (du Plooy et al. 1987:89 & 90).

Furthermore, it is the father's responsibility to represent the family in society and to demonstrate to, and encourage appropriate behaviour in the children. Lindgren (1969) quoted in Nesengani (1990:15) states that the father is the most available model of what is expected from the child in the outside world and Nesengani (1990) adds that it is important for the child to have experiences of the outside world because it is those experiences which influence cognitive development.

"The father plays an important part in the discovery of the world and the gradual establishment of a home in it" (Du Plooy, Griessel & Oberholzer, 1987:89).

Family life, especially the child care and child guidance, needs to be shared by both parents (Palmer 1980:145). It is in the home that the child learns all the skills which he will need, to be a successful adult. The security of the home has a particular significance in the life of the child. It is the home to which he always returns after excursions bent on discovering and conquering the world.

4.1.2/...

Clark (1983:5) states that the "home-community setting is where students first develop - or fail to develop - their social abilities to express themselves maturely and intelligently, be attentive, concentrate, volunteer, comply, engage in constructive self-directed activity, initiate work interactions, enjoy orderly social interaction, accept responsibility, carry through and complete tasks, hold positive concepts of learning, manifest leadership skills, exercise self-control, show sensitivity to the needs of others, and enjoy a sense of accomplishment about goals achieved."

## 4.2 **THE HISTORICAL CONTEXT OF FATHERHOOD**

### 4.2.1 **Pre-modern**

Before a study of the effect which the father has on the academic achievement of his secondary school pupil can be considered, it would perhaps be interesting to examine whether the extent of the father's power and control in his family has changed in any significant way during the history of mankind, since there is evidence to suggest that the father's ability to exercise control within his family does influence the child's response to his academic environment.

Steyn et al. (1987:249) maintain that fathers in pre-modern times were the political, religious and financial head of the household and that they possessed absolute powers over family members. Fathers in pre-modern times could demand absolute obedience from those who were subject to his authority.

During the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, the father's domain of authority extended to wives, children, servants and lodgers (Flandarin quoted in McKee, 1983:15).

During this time, child-beating and flogging were prevalent in order to achieve absolute obedience to the father of the household.

The extent of the father's influence depended on the status of the father in the society, that is, what position he held in the community, whether he owned large properties, and whether he held important and influential positions.

The way a father approached his position of authority varied from class to class, aristocratic fathers being typified by remoteness and peasant fathers by their deference to village authority.

From a Christian perspective, the Bible is explicit on the role of the father in the household. "God het die man in 'n unieke situasie geplaas deurdat Hy hom aangestel het as die gesin se 'administrateur', as hulle 'verteenwoordiger' (MacDonald 1990:16). The father's responsibility is to manage and oversee his family and to act as representative in the broader society.

At the advent of the Industrial Revolution, the authority of the father began to decline. "Hy het veral na die Industriële Revolusie psigies, hoewel nie fisiek nie, uit die gesinsisteem begin tree" (Steyn, 1987:250). This psychological absence was partly due to the fact that the father no longer worked from the home environment, with the result that he was absent from home for long periods. Because the father was away from home for such long periods, the mother took over the role previously filled by the father, with the result that he became a weak link in the family system (Steyn, 1987:252). The mother frequently felt compelled to make decisions regarding the children's wellbeing and gradually the responsibilities of the father as decision-maker shifted. Gradually many fathers withdrew to the sidelines becoming only the economic provider.

Another reason for the father taking a peripheral stance is the absence of knowledge or experience by children of their fathers' work role which results in alienation between the generations.

Children do not have the opportunity of seeing their father in the actual work environment, where they may observe appropriate adult behaviour in reaction to a variety of situations. Opportunities for communication are greatly reduced. The child has no confidence in his/her father and thus experiences a feeling of insecurity.

Modern living does not promote interaction between family members, rather it encourages segregation as each family member seeks to satisfy his or her own needs and goals (Lamb, 1976:74).

The child does not learn about the importance of contribution to a common goal. The child begins to think that life is all about gratifying own needs. The child fails to learn that he is responsible for the fulfilment of his own and others' needs.

#### 4.2.2 Modern Period

The Victorian period is regarded as part of the modern era. The modern period extends from the Victorian era to today.

Victorian fathers usually held the central and authoritative position in the family. Decision-making was his prerogative. The Victorian father was a remote figure often away on business. Unlike many contemporary fathers, Victorian fathers were held in high regard as authority figures in their families. They were confident of their undisputed roles as head of the home and of their competence as fathers.

They were not directly involved in caring for the children, which was a **clearly defined** responsibility of the mother in the home.

Until recently, fathers did not play an active role in the rearing of their children.

As women become increasingly emancipated, the status of men as sole authority figures is being challenged. Middle-class women especially, encourage their husbands to take a more active role in child-rearing.

Today men are increasingly playing an active and important role in child-rearing being involved in the actual care of infants and children (Lamb, 1979:938).

The role of the father has changed significantly over the past few decades. The emphasis has shifted from fathers having rights over children to having duties towards them.

Role differentiation has become more egalitarian within the household and the power distribution within the modern Western family is also moving away from the male-dominant power structure to a more **egalitarian** power structure. Both the mother and the father participate in deciding major issues affecting the family, and the children are frequently consulted in matters which significantly affect them.

The father's role has traditionally been to be a link between the family and the broader community. It is expected of him to maintain the values and norms acceptable to the society. "Sy rol-definisie behels die billike handhawing van gesag en dissipline, goeie en ewewigtige oordeel, die vordering van prestasiegerigheid, die verwerwing van vaardighede en bevoegdhede en die gedissiplineerde en aksiegeoriënteerde nastrewe van lewensideale (Steyn et al., 1987:255).

The father of the family must therefore be an effective leader, who is able to maintain discipline, be just in his decisions, encourage achievement motivation and the striving towards and achievement of goals.

Although it is evident that in the last several decades the father in Western culture has begun to take a more active role in the rearing of the children, many fathers seem to be "psychologically" absent or withdrawn from the family.

With the emphasis on materialism, the father is expected to distinguish himself in his career. The result is that he spends a great deal of time and energy concentrating on his career and thus isolates himself from his family.

It is clear that the father's role has changed as dramatically as that of the mother. He has had to relinquish a considerable portion of his power.

According to Lamb (1979) quoted in Le Roux (1990:39), children are being reared in a society where traditional roles are being questioned and this hinders the process of socialisation. Traditional sex-stereotyped roles clearly define the role of the mother as primary caretaker of the child and that of the father is characterised by play. Lamb (1979:939) suggests that the child perceives the roles of the parents as prime examples of traditional masculine and feminine behaviour. At about two years of age the child begins to pay attention to the behaviour of the same-sex parent. If the sex-stereotyped behaviour is less pronounced almost to the point of diffusion, it becomes difficult for the child to form perceptions about appropriate masculine or feminine behaviour.

It seems as if the father is increasingly experiencing a feeling of vulnerability and a sense of powerlessness to take his place as head of the home, resulting in a gradual withdrawal, finally becoming the 'psychologically-absent father'.

#### 4.3 **DIVERGENT CULTURES IN SOUTH AFRICA**

An attempt will be made, in this study, to examine how the influence of the father on academic achievement differs in several different cultures in South Africa.

A number of cultures each having developed a unique family structure, exists in South Africa. South Africa is a multi-cultural society.

#### 4.3.1 **The White Family in South Africa**

The White culture is essentially characterised by the nuclear family system, most evident in the Western world. Steyn et al (1987:105) comments that although it seems as if South African white families have adopted the nuclear family system, it has not been possible to establish how widespread this practice is.

Steyn et al (1987:103) describes the nuclear family as consisting of a father and a mother and their children, and suggest that this is considered the ideal structure.

One of the features of a nuclear family unit is its ability to be financially independent of the extended family of which the nuclear family is a part. It is expected of the male head of the home to provide the security and finances of the family. The male head of the family, usually the father of the children in the home, works outside of the home in order to provide for the family.

A world trend indicates that there is a steady increase in the entry of women into employment outside the home. This is also the case in South Africa. There is therefore an increase in dualistic income families.

A second feature of the nuclear family is that they do not share a common abode with members of the extended family. In South Africa, research indicates that many South Africans are not in favour of family members other than those of the immediate nuclear family, residing in the home (Steyn et al. 1987:116). Steyn et al.(1987:166) explains that the reason for this is that members of the nuclear family feel that privacy, unity and intimacy may be compromised. Apart from the monogamous, nuclear family structures several other types of family structures are prevalent in South Africa.

Reconstituted families are on the increase as the rate of divorce soars in South Africa. It is believed that 1 in every 3 marriages in South Africa ends in divorce.

Several different combinations may occur in the reconstituted family, for example, a woman may bring children into a marriage with her subsequent husband or husbands who may also bring children from previous marriages, into the next marriage (Steyn et al. 1987:142).

Single-parent families are also increasing in number. There are several types of single-parent families. The single-parent family may have either the mother or the father as head of the family.

#### 4.3.1/...

Only monogamous marriages are approved of in the white nuclear family structure in South Africa, although this seems to be in question in modern western society. Steyn et al. (1987:123) quotes Satir (1970) who suggests that monogamy is not inherent to man's nature and also Roy and Roy (1975) who claim that it is unrealistic to expect the human being to limit physical sexual behaviour to one person over a period of approximately 50 years. Steyn et al. (1987:125) suggest that this may be the reason that the younger generation increasingly views marriage and family life with cynicism.

#### 4.3.2 **The Black Family (Tswana) in South Africa**

Although many Black people have adopted the Western customs, many are still following tribal and traditional customs with regard to family life. Amongst the Black tribes in South Africa, traditional family life took the form of the extended family system in the past. The family structure was "basically polygamous, patriarchal, patrilocal, pastoral, rural and economically self-supporting" (Motshologane 1974:22). Within such a family system, the children were expected to adhere to strict behaviour codes. The father was the indisputable head of the home with absolute authority over the women and children.

The traditional family was self-sufficient. Each family member was an economic asset. The children worked alongside the parents in the provision of basic needs, essential to their survival.

Each family member had a clearly defined role and every member worked towards achieving common family goals.

A clearly-defined division of labour between the sexes was evident. Children spent a significant amount of time in the company of adults, observing appropriate adult behaviour and gradually adopting the values of the society. The parents were supported in their child-rearing activities by an extended family system. The extended family acted as a buffer against emotional trauma when the family became incomplete, or when the family experienced difficulties.

Contact with the White population of a Westernised, Industrialised society led to the decline and disintegration of the Black extended family and its accompanying value system, as many more Black people began adopting the Western nuclear family system. Schapera (1967) quoted in Motshologane (1974:2) says that "Under the influence of European civilisation many of the Natives have abandoned their original tribal customs, and their social life is being re-organised on a new basis by the adoption of European habits and customs and by their introduction to the economic, religious and political systems of the Europeans."

The Black groups who have come into contact with the white culture have not been entirely successful in adopting the nuclear family system.

The result of this is a high rate of single parent and incomplete families among Black groups.

Single-parent families have largely evolved in South Africa because of the migratory labour laws. Fathers would leave the home in the rural area to seek work on the mines. Because their wives and children were not permitted to join them in the city, many men formed liaisons with single women and set up families in the cities. Often these liaisons did not lead to marriage, hence the great number of single-parent and incomplete families headed by women.

The incomplete family consists of parents with their unmarried daughters who have children of their own, but whose children never or rarely see their fathers.

The high rate of illegitimacy can be attributed to a decline in moral standards, which is a feature of a society in transition, that is, a society which has abandoned its own norms and values and which has attempted to adopt those of another culture. The unsuccessful attempt to incorporate these values can be ascribed to a failure to understand and therefore internalise them (Steyn, 1987:286).

The modern urban Black parent is solely responsible for the inculcation of values and discipline and cannot depend on the support of other adults who would ordinarily assist with these tasks in the extended family system.

The weakening of parental control has resulted in a decline in moral standards.

#### 4.3.2/...

As home and work become separated, interaction between husband and wife and parents and children, becomes increasingly infrequent (Motshologane 1974:25). The father often has very little contact with his children because of job commitments. The mother often finds it very difficult to assume the position of authority as she has traditionally been delegated the role of submissive wife. She is often also out working with the result that the children are left unsupervised for long periods of time (Steyn 1987:298). Motshologane (1974:25) states that this infrequent contact between father and child has an effect on the internal authority structure of the family.

It is not uncommon to find a family structure consisting of mother and father and unmarried children who have had children of their own out of wedlock. Housing is often inadequate and overcrowded, and this has a negative effect on family life.

According to Christian doctrine, men and women are regarded as equals and the adoption of the Christian way of life by many urban Blacks has reduced the extent of authority of the man and weakened the father's control over his wife and children (Radebe, 1983:68). Where the role of the father has been downgraded, it can be assumed to have a detrimental effect on the socialisation of the child. The process of socialisation demands the ability to set and achieve goals acceptable to society; to consider the needs of the other members of the community and to contribute to the continued well-being of the community. As the father is responsible for helping the child to acquire these skills, it can be assumed that an absent father or an ineffectual father does not provide these opportunities, and this may therefore have negative consequences.

The turmoil which accompanies the replacement of one system for another, must have a negative effect on the self-image of the father, which in turn has a ripple effect on the children.

#### 4.3.3 **The Cape Coloured**

Another major cultural group existing in South Africa, is the Cape Coloured. A vast number of households in this group, consists of mother-dominant, single-parent families.

The father in this cultural group often plays a nondescript role. This can be understood in the light of the past history of these people. Their history, very similar to that of the American Negro, is punctuated with enforced slavery. Both groups were subjected to slavery where their cultural and social values were forcibly suppressed. Men were deprived of their position as authority figures in the family.. Fathers had little or no contact with their children. Women were forced to assume the instrumental role in the family.

The subsequent emancipation of slaves led to a number of slaves gravitating towards the urban areas, which in turn led to the disintegration of family life and in many cases, desertion of the family by the father. Fathers gradually developed a sense of powerlessness. Many fell victim to the social ills of an unsympathetic society. The legacy of this is that many households in the Coloured community are dominated by women while in other homes, the father holds but a peripheral position (Radebe, 1990:70).

#### **4.3.4 The Indian Family as reviewed by Gani (1989)**

The Indian people in South Africa are mainly descendants of indentured Indian labourers on contract to work in the sugar plantations, and passenger- or free-Indians who had come to trade among the indentured Indians and who had paid their own way to South Africa.

The Indians have been in South Africa for more than a hundred years and have adopted certain aspects of European culture and traditions as a result of their contact with western cultural groups and their education system (Gani 1989:220).

The Indian family is steeped in traditions and customs which influence and control the individual's life. "The average Indian is firmly rooted in his kutum or kinship group" (Gani 1989:218). Through the kutum the individual is closely controlled in his relationships with others in his family group. The socialisation process and social interaction is monitored by the kutum.

The socialisation process ensures the exercise of discipline and respect for authority (Gani 1989:266). It is expected of the Indian child to respect the authority of his elders which include older siblings, parents, grandparents, uncles, aunts and granduncles (Gani 1989:267).

Because such great emphasis is placed on respect for authority, the Indian child enters school fully prepared to obey the authority of the teacher.

The extended family system is still encouraged and supported. When a young man marries, he continues to live in the home of his parents. This custom therefore ensures that the religion, culture, language and traditions of the Indian people endures (Gani 1989:224).

As has been noted among extended family systems of the 19th century and that practised by black tribes, there seems to be obvious advantages for the child in the extended family system. The nuclear family within the extended family does not experience isolation and the social problems that are frequently found in nuclear families which consist solely of father, mother and children.

Gani (1989:269) confirms previous research which indicates that the home environment is crucial to scholastic achievement as cognitive potential has largely been established by the time the child embarks on his school career.

A factor which may give rise to under-achievement among Indian children is the unrealistically high academic expectations by parents.

Gani (1989:270) observes that some Indian parents, especially the professional group and business elite have unrealistic expectations of what their children can achieve academically.

The child may be pressured into surpassing other children within the same kutum, academically.

Friction between parent and child may develop if the parents' unrealistic expectations of the child are disappointed and the child understandably experiences rejection.

#### 4.4 **CONTEMPORARY OBSERVATIONS ABOUT THE FATHER FIGURE**

A number of stereotyped images of the father figure has emerged in modern times. Many of these 'father images' ridicule the role of the father. The father figure is portrayed as foolish or ridiculous. Several researchers believe that television has probably made the greatest contribution to promoting and promulgating these views.

Many children's television programmes satirise the family, especially the father figure, for example "The Dinosaurs" where the mother is the dominant figure in the family and the father does not have control his own or his family life; his values are suspect and he has no admirable goals which he attempts to achieve; "The Simpsons", where the father is portrayed as an immature, overgrown teenager; "Married with children" which depicts the father as little more than an idiot whose sole function is to provide money.

All the images of fatherhood in these television programmes, portray the father as unintelligent and lacking control over his own and his family life. The children show disregard for their fathers and turn to the mother when requiring assistance. The mother is portrayed as being more competent, confident and having a stronger personality. This view is contrary to the view defined by Steyn et al.(1987:255) quoted earlier, that the father must dispense just and wise discipline and hold a position of authority in order for the children to develop a healthy identity and motivation to achieve.

Biller's (1975) suggestion that fathers have the responsibility to react to these views, deserves attention otherwise it could easily affect a father's perception of his power.

A focus on the children of these 'families' in the television series, indicate and perhaps confirm the consequences of the perceptions the children develop of their fathers. The children are portrayed as obnoxious with a total disregard for the authority of their fathers.

Among the many father images portrayed in modern society, as suggested by MacDonald, (1990:15), are:

- a) The helpless, scatter-brain
- b) A man who is obsessed with petty prejudices, is impatient and volatile. (The whole family usually unites against such a father.)
- c) The hardworking, calm-in-crises, sensible father.
- d) The father who is frequently absent and who holds a peripheral position in the family structure.
- e) The dictator who is always right and can never be wrong.  
(The children in this household are impatient for the day when they can leave home.)
- f) The father who is unable to make a decision. (The mother will try to take over the reins in order to achieve order in the home.)

4.4/...

Fathers are hardly ever portrayed on television as being successful at their careers and being warm, loving fathers at the same time.

Because many fathers are away from home for the greater part of each day and then fail to communicate or become actively involved in their children's activities, the children rely on media-produced images of what fatherhood entails (Biller, 1975).

The father image produced in the mind of the not-yet-mature child will affect the child's learning experiences.

## 4.5 **THE ACTIVELY INVOLVED FATHER**

### 4.5.1 **Instrumental role of the father**

Because the role of the father is culturally determined, and differs from society to society, this study will concentrate on the role of the father in the family structures which are predominant in Western culture, namely the nuclear family, the reconstituted nuclear family and the single-parent family. Lamb (1979:938) claims that the presumption has gradually developed that the role of the father is an insignificant one. The father has largely been ignored by the social scientist and psychologist.

There is a dearth of literature on the importance of the father in the child's life.

The media (magazines, television), have largely ignored the father, emphasising the mother's importance in the life of the child, viz a viz advertisements which depict fathers mostly as peripheral members of the family. Until recently most research centred around the mother's influence on the development of the child.

This might have occurred because the mother has traditionally been the primary care-giver for much of the child's early life. A great deal of emphasis has therefore been placed on the importance of the mother's role and the importance of the father's role in the life of the child, has as a result been neglected.

There has been a trend among psychologists and educators to believe that the father doesn't have much effect on the child during the child's early years. A gradual realisation is emerging that both the father and the mother have vital roles to play in the life of the child from the day the child is born.

Pederson (1980) quoted in Nesengani (1990:81) states that mother- and father- relationships provide babies with different kinds of experiences. The **instrumental** role of the father involves the maintenance of discipline and the family's socio-economic status. Both the mother and the father are major socialising agents in the child's life. The father models and teaches sex roles, values and norms.

The paternal and maternal influences supplement one another (Lamb 1979:941).

According to Hanson and Bozett, (1987:334) most fathers of school-age children assume an instrumental role, almost to the exclusion of the expressive role. Lamb (1976:25) maintains that research indicates that the father is the parent most concerned with the adoption of cultural values and traditional stereotypically defined sex roles. The development of a healthy sex-role identity, will positively influence the child's attitude to himself, to others and his life circumstances.

Children, especially boys, need active involvement from their fathers in order to learn the skills needed for successful adulthood. Many fail to acquire those skills because, for one or other reason, the father fails to provide the appropriate role model with which the child can identify.

One reason suggested by Hanson and Bozett (1987:334) is that the relationship between fathers and their adolescent children may be fraught with conflict. Both fathers and adolescents are in a difficult stage in their lives. The father is troubled about questions about midlife, while the adolescent is struggling with a developing identity (Hanson & Bozett 1987:334).

Another reason is the obsession with acquisitiveness which causes families to "pass one another in the night". Fathers spend little time with their adolescent children for a number of reasons. Among these may be that they are tired at the end of the work day or that the children may seek the company of their peers almost to the exclusion of the company of their parents. What little time they do spend together is usually spent in "passive parallel activities such as television viewing" (Montemajor, 1982 quoted in Hanson & Bozett, 1987:334).

#### 4.5.2 **Expressive role of the mother**

The mother's role which is **expressive**, involves maintaining relationships between the members of the nuclear family and providing emotional support for her husband and children. Her role is therefore socio-emotional in nature (Steyn, et al. 1987:193).

The effectiveness of the father's role is partly determined by the mother's attitude to the father (Lamb:1976:34). Does she regard him as the main authority figure in the family? Does she help her children to see their father as the person on whom they can depend and who they can trust? Does she support or undermine her husband's image as masculine role-model?

With the increasing demand for equality for women, and the dissolution of discriminatory laws against women, it seems that these roles (instrumental and expressive) are becoming increasingly less clearly defined.

#### 4.5.3 **Role Confusion**

Occupational demands which often prevent fathers from taking an active role in the education of their children and the increase in the number of working and career women also contribute to the less clearly defined roles (Steyn, et al., 1987).

According to Lamb (1979:941), children are increasingly experiencing difficulties in the process of socialisation because of doubt about role prescriptions which have arisen in modern society. Parsons is of the opinion that the family system is in danger when there is no clear distinction between the instrumental and expressive roles within the family (Le Roux 1990:4).

Erikson quoted in Le Roux (1990:5) states that to avoid role confusion and to develop an ego-identity, the adolescent must identify positively with his parents. It is important for the child to be able to identify with a strong parental figure of the same sex in order that the child may learn appropriate behaviour acceptable to his society.

Le Roux (1990:5) points to research done by Martin (1985) which states that it is becoming increasingly important that the father should not only fill the role of breadwinner, but that he must directly involve himself with the education of his children. Several studies have shown that even those children who are father-present, but where the father is not actively involved with the child, develop problems with regard to personality development, and motivation-achievement.

#### 4.5.4 **Common Family Goals**

The modern Western nuclear family is not concerned about setting and achieving common goals. Each member is engrossed in the gratification of his or her own needs, while ignoring the needs of others.

Problems in family interaction frequently result from a need for immediate gratification of needs and the inability to organise time. Each individual is concerned with self at the expense of common family goals.

This individualistic attitude suggests that the individual's interests are the only significant criterion needed for the individual to grow and develop (Landman et al. 1982:37). This view is held by the proponents of Liberalism.

"The liberalist places the individual in opposition to the community" (Landman et al., 1982:42).

The modern attitude of granting children unconstrained freedom of speech and expression, closely resembles the liberalistic point of view. Landman et al. (1982:46) suggest that the "permissiveness of the liberalist undoubtedly gave rise to youth's aversion to authority in the Western world". Individualism may thus be regarded as a threat to the continued survival of the family and value systems.

#### 4.5.5 **The effects of Active Father Involvement**

Lamb (1976:33) states that it is the quality of the father-child relationship rather than the **presence** of the father which is the important factor in the development of the child's intellectual ability.

Shinn (1978:319) supports Lamb's theory in that they agree that it is the quality and quantity of attention, not simply the presence of the father, that influences cognitive development.

Biller (1974), quoted in Shinn (1978:319), in his review of studies of academic under-achievers, showed that "inadequate fathering" was frequent in the families of such children, that is, children who under-achieve.

Research done by Bronstein, & Cowan (1988:140), indicate that children's intellectual functioning was stimulated more in families with high father involvement. They indicate specifically, that father presence positively influences mathematical ability.

#### 4.5.5/...

Children cared for mainly by their fathers (unconventional family), express more sense of control over events around them, score slightly better on tests of intellectual development and have somewhat less stereotyped views about sex roles (Radin 1982; Russell 1982, Sagi 1982 quoted in Mussen, Conger, & Kagan 1984:411)

Radin (1982) maintains that the father who possesses the important characteristics of warmth, closeness and involvement in their interaction with their children, tend to have children who are competent and achievement-motivated (Nesengani 1990:15).

Contemporary life-styles with its concomitant acquisitiveness, have gradually caused many parents to lose sight of those values which allow the child to develop optimally. Fathers put all their energy into providing for the material comforts of the child, often forgetting the importance of active involvement in the child's experiences.

Lamb (1976:135) suggests that difficulties that children experience can be quickly remedied or mitigated if ways in which the father can become a more active, meaningful participant are clearly communicated to the family.

##### **4.5.5.1 The Effect of Active Involvement on Boys**

Various studies have shown a high correlation between the intellectual development of boys and active father involvement from infancy and continuing throughout each stage of development (Lamb, 1976:19). Lamb further asserts that consistent involvement by the father is necessary for a boy to learn to be assertive, active, independent and competent.

##### **4.5.5.2 Paternal Nurturance**

According to Biller, quoted in Lamb 1976:104), nurturance means an emotional closeness to the child, providing the child with emotional security, which fosters a positive self-esteem.

It must be pointed out that nurturance does not imply permissiveness and passivity, that is, he does not suggest indulgent father behaviour equals nurturance.

#### 4.5.5.2/...

Nurturance encourages the child to explore, thereby fostering confidence and competence. Nurturance, according to Biller (1975) quoted in Lamb (1976:100), also promotes sex-role security in children.

In Studies done by Radin (1972, 1973) noted in Nesengani (1990:15) "correlations of paternal nurturing and intellectual development were found to be consistent in boys only." Lamb (1976:269) confirms Radin's (1973 & 1974) studies, that there is a higher correlation between paternal nurturance and the child's intellectual functioning for boys than for girls. This may possibly be attributed to the need for the child to identify with the same-sex parent. Jordan, Radin & Epstein (1975:408) in their study also found that there is a higher correlation between the child's intellectual competence and paternal nurturance in boys than in girls.

Radin & Epstein (1975:407) assert that fathers of more intellectually capable boys are more nurturant than fathers of less intellectually capable boys. Radin's findings (1973) indicate that social class appears to influence how paternal nurturance is related to scholastic aptitude, for example, the availability of educationally stimulating material and frequent verbal interaction about a wide variety of topics, fostered an enquiring attitude and mind.

Educationally stimulating material may not be readily available and education may not be as highly prized in lower class homes as it might be among middle-class fathers.

In Radin's study of the father's role in the intellectual development of 4 year old children, it was found that "paternal nurturance was related to high scholastic aptitude in the middle-class but not in the lower-class boys (Lamb, 1976:19).

This may be due to lower-class boys not being afforded the opportunities to discuss and share ideas with their fathers, who also probably have only limited formal education.

#### 4.5.5.2/...

The claim that the family unit's personnel and role properties are the source of children's school behaviour or learning outcomes is disputed by Clark (1983:5) who believes that it is 'the family members' beliefs, activities and overall cultural style", not the family unit's composition or social status, that produce the required cognitive structures which are necessary for the appropriate behaviours during classroom activities.

#### 4.5.5.3 **Identification with father**

Le Roux (1990:58) quotes Lindzey's (1970) definition of identification as the "method by which a person takes over the features of another person and makes them a corporate part of his personality."

Billier (1975) claims that a child who develops a strong sense of self-esteem and independence is likely to possess a high degree of achievement motivation, and how motivated a child is, is often influenced by the father's perceptions of himself.

Paternal warmth facilitates identification with the parent, particularly in the same-sex child.

Fathers who have lost their self-respect, frequently doubt their competence as head of the household and withdraw from family activities, often forcing the mother to assume the role of instrumental head of the home.

Le Roux (1990:49) in her study on the development of personality concluded that the way a boy identifies with his father, will influence his self-concept and achievement-motivation.

#### 4.5.5.4 **Influence on school achievement**

A study done by Forehand et al. (1986:1532) provides evidence that there is a significant relationship between school behaviour and academic performance, on the one hand and adolescents' interactions with their fathers, on the other.

#### 4.5.5.4/...

From a study of available literature regarding the father's role in intellectual development in their sons, Lamb (1976:269), concluded that a "close relationship between father and son seems to foster an analytic cognitive style in the child. The review also includes studies done by Moulton et al., (1966) which suggest that since the father is the transmitter of cultural values, it is also the father who will influence the boy's sensitivity to moral transgressions; and studies done by Glueck & Glueck (1950), and Stanfield (1966), which assert that boys who receive appropriate and consistent discipline from their fathers are less liable to commit delinquent acts (Lamb 1976:109 & 110).

Shinn (1978:319) states that paternal interest and encouragement are positively related to school achievement. Lambert and Hart (1976) reported that children whose fathers joined their mothers in discussing the child's school progress with the teacher, scored up to 7 months higher in reading and mathematics than children whose fathers were not involved (Shinn 1978:319).

From a review of available research examining the influence of the father on the scholastic achievement of the child, it is clear that the father significantly affects the child's attitude to scholastic activities and achievement motivation, as well as the child's adoption of moral values.

#### 4.5.5.5 The Effect of Active Involvement on Girls

While active involvement of the father in the life of his son has a positive influence on the cognitive development of the boy, research indicates that this may not always be the case with girls.

Lamb's (1976:253) review of Radin's research indicates that "too much warmth may be detrimental to the development of intellectual capacity in young girls.

Lamb's extensive review of the literature concerning the differences in the effect on boys and girls, of father involvement, reveals that girls are influenced differently by active father involvement.

#### 4.5.5.5/...

This idea is confirmed by other studies done by Wakerman, (1986:225), Biller (1975) and Hetherington & Deur (1971:237).

Research has revealed that a father who expresses high expectations of his daughter and who is nurturant, encourages independence, assertiveness and other personality characteristics in his daughter (Lamb, 1976:254). This will facilitate intellectual and career success.

Wakerman (1986:225), suggests that when a father validates both a daughter's femininity and her achievement, she becomes clearer about her goals. Biller (1975), suggests that fathers should make "achievement orientation a natural part of their concept of femininity." It is important that daughters should be able to perceive their fathers' attitude towards achievement, as being positive.

They should be given the opportunity to realise that achievement motivation need not necessarily mean a loss of femininity.

Biller & Weiss (1970), quoted in Hetherington & Deur (1971:237) also state that the more a father participates in constructive interplay with his daughter and the more this interaction provides opportunities for her to learn specific activities relating to her feminine role, the more adequate will be her identity.

Teahan (1963), found in his comparison of high- and low-achieving college students that fathers of high-achieving girls were less dominating and paid more attention to their daughters than did fathers of low-achieving girls, who were dominating and tended to frequently ignore their daughters (Lamb, 1976:246). Fathers of high-achieving daughters sought and prized their daughters' opinions.

Studies done by Wentzel (1982) show that adolescent girls develop a far healthier self-image when the father is physically present (Le Roux, 1990:118).

Baumrind (1971), quoted in Lamb (1976:254), found in her study of fathers and their pre-school daughters, that cognitive performance was negatively influenced by fathers who were authoritarian. These fathers did not allow opportunities for sharing ideas.

#### 4.5.5.5/...

In contrast to Baumrind's study, Lamb (1976:24) quotes Radin & Epstein (1975), who found no significant relationship between these two variables and suggests that these conflicting results may be due to different observational methodologies such as, whether the mother was present or not. Lamb, (1976:253) noted that although paternal nurturance positively influences intellectual development in girls, data gleaned from research done by Crandall, Dewey, Katkovsky and Preston (1964), shows that a "moderate distance between father and daughter enhances the girl's intellectual competence. Furthermore, it was found that a father who dominates his daughter, will negatively influence cognitive growth.

Both the studies of Baumrind (1971), and that of Jordan, Radin & Epstein (1975), indicate that girls, but not boys are negatively influenced by paternal pressure to advance (Lamb (1976:255). Lamb's own observations (1976:257), of black fifth-grade children and their parents in a problem-solving situation, revealed that "a moderate amount of paternal encouragement to engage in independent efforts, free of hostility and efforts to dominate the girl, was associated with high academic achievement."

#### 4.6 **PROBLEMS INHERENT IN THE STUDY OF THE EFFECTS OF FATHER ABSENCE ON CHILDREN**

Several difficulties arise in the study of the father's influence on the achievement motivation of boys and girls.

Shinn (1978:296), points out that problems which plague research on father absence include, firstly the definition of terms, for example, how one defines father absence; secondly, why the father is no longer present in the home, for how long he is no longer at home; how old the child was when the father left and whether a father substitute is available.

Other factors, according to Shinn (1978:296), include the state of the family relationships prior to the father's departure; at what age and for how long the father was absent from the child's life.

The reasons for the absence, according to Biller (1975), are significant because if the child can see a valid reason for the absence, he is less likely to be severely traumatised by it. He cites examples of this reasoning. When a child whose father has died, realises that his father's absence is not his father's fault, he is better able to cope with it. The child of a divorced father has none of these rationalisations and will become confused.

Hetherington and Deur (1971:233 & 234), identified methodological difficulties inherent in the study of father absence. They claimed that comparing a sample of children from father-absent families with children from intact families was too simplistic. The reason for this was that factors such as separation, divorce, occupational demands, military service and death, are often ignored in such studies (Hetherington & Deur 1971:234).

Hetherington and Deur (1971:242), also identified the quality of the family relationships prior to the father's departure as significant to their subsequent interaction. Other variables which may influence the effect of the absence of the father on the child, may be how the mother copes with problems once the father has left. Children in homes where the father has left, often face a dramatic change in the economic structure of the family. They frequently experience impoverishment because the mother becomes the sole breadwinner and the father often neglects to pay maintenance.

Hetherington & Deur, (1971:242), are also concerned about other variables such as the availability of support provided by relatives, the sex and race of the child. Blanchard and Biller (1971:301), in their study of father absence, attempted to control some of the above variables. by matching "early father-absent (before the age of 5), later father-absent (after the age of 5), low father-present (spends less than 6 hours per week with son), and high father-present (more than 2 hours per day) boys" (Santrock, 1972:456). They also matched for age, IQ, SES and the presence or absence of male siblings (Santrock, 1972:456).

Further variables found to affect studies of father influence include the size of the family and the sibling composition (Sutton-Smith, Rosenberg & Landy, 1968) quoted in Lamb (1976:267).

Lamb differentiates between "direct (due to the lack of a parent figure and male model) and indirect (those due to the mother's economic and emotional distress) effects of father absence on the child" (Lamb 1979:950).

He points out that most studies have been conducted in a Western cultural context, which does not make it particularly representative, and that the traditional gender and parental roles are being challenged and questioned (Lamb, 1979:950.)

Shinn (1978:296), also supports this view. According to her, socio-economic status factors are often not controlled and the samples are not always representative of the population. Nesengani (1990:33) expresses this view as well when he states that findings on the influence of father absence on child development, are based on Western child-rearing practices and may not reflect child-rearing practices among working class Black South Africans. Nesengani (1990:12) asserts that "the context of father-absent homes cannot be analysed separately as psychological, sociological or educational, but as a psycho-socio-pedagogical domain including interactional processes involved in the course of time in the development of the child."

Nesengani (1990:40) quotes Nielson's (1971) study, as showing no significant differences between early and late onset father-absent children and those of long or short duration and puts this down to a failure to control SES, sex, age, grades, family composition, ordinal position of the children and mother's education.

Regarding it as methodologically sound, he cites the investigation by Cresimbeni (1965) which controlled for SES, gender, grade, teacher and standard achievement of one-parent and two-parent children. The results of this study revealed that MAT scores favoured two-parent children.

Clarke (1961), who did not control any of the important "father-absence variables also reported no significant differences in scores between father-absent (due to death) and father-present students when the CAT measure was used" (Nesengani, 1990:47).

Le Roux's study (1990:121), highlighted the need for careful matching of physical and/or psychologically-absent fathers.

Biller (1974), and Herzog and Sudia (1973), in their reviews of literature about father-absence, drew conflicting conclusions (Steyn et al. 1987:262).

Steyn et al. (1987:263), suggest that this is due to the research methodologies used in the various studies. They further emphasise that research should be thoroughly controlled for variables. Lamb, (1976:330), supports Lynn & Sawrey's (1959) claim that most research studied the father in his absence and that such a design assumes that the differences between father-present and father-absent families equals the role of the father, which according to Lamb, is an incorrect assumption.

Lynn & Sawrey (1959), claimed that "father-absence literature reflects serious methodological problems, the most significant being that the entire family structure changes when the father leaves, and, therefore, any developmental differences cannot be attributed solely to the absence of the father (Lamb, 1976:330).

Billar (1974) quoted in Nesengani (1990:36), states that when analysing and evaluating the father-absent family, a number of factors must be born in mind. Among these are: "type of father-absence (constant, intermittent, temporary, etc.), length, cause, and the child's age and sex, the family's socio-economic status, the number of siblings in the family (family size), ordinal position of the child, dependent measures used and race of subjects" (Nesengani, 1990:36).

The study of the effect of father absence on cognitive development, is made extremely difficult by the presence of confounding variables, which are not easily controlled.

## 4.7 **THE ABSENT FATHER**

### 4.7.1 **Physical Absence**

This section examines the relationship between cognitive development and the academic achievement of children and the father who is **physically absent**.

As has been mentioned previously, it is necessary to bear in mind the number of variables when explaining the correlation between father absence and children's academic performance.

These include the "low SES levels of most fatherless homes or reduced parental attention; inadequate sex-role development or anxiety and stress" (Shinn 1978:316).

She also lists economic insecurity, high levels of anxiety and low levels of interaction between parent and child, as important factors contributing towards poor performance among children in fatherless families.

Santrock's (1972), study of the effect of father absence on lower class, white children, quoted in Lamb (1976:264), found that "the child's sex, age of onset of absence, and reason for absence were all significant variables mediating the impact of father absence on the child's academic and intellectual performance."

#### 4.7.1./...

He also discovered that although boys were found to be more adversely affected by father absence than girls, both boys and girls whose fathers were not present, scored lower on third-grade achievement tests than their father-present peers (Lamb 1976:99).

Mischel (1958) "speculated that father absence interferes with the young child's development of trust of other people" (Lamb 1976:108).

Research has also indicated that the father's involvement in the adolescent's life is vitally important. It is apparent from the many studies done that active involvement by the father in the life of the adolescent has a significant influence on the self-concept of the child, especially the adolescent boy.

The boy cannot identify with a father who is absent and may consequently develop a negative self-image which may result in academic under-achievement, lack of achievement motivation and expectation.

(Le Roux (1990:122) suggests that father absence/presence does not necessarily affect achievement, rather it affects motivation to achieve.

Lamb's (1976:108) study indicates that individuals who had been father-absent during childhood, may have difficulty being committed to job responsibilities.

Whatever the cause of the physical absence may be, it follows that the child is more than likely, reared in a single-parent family.

According to Steyn et al (1987:259), the reason for the father's absence will influence how the family will function, for example children who have experienced the **death** of their father will react differently to children who have experienced separation as a result of **divorce**. Tuckman and Regan (1966) quoted in Emery (1982:315), found in their study that children from "homes broken by divorce or separation were apt to have conduct problems whereas children from intact families or homes broken by death had more anxiety-related problems."The mother who has lost her husband suddenly, through death will react differently to the mother who is going through the process of divorce and this reaction to the father's absence will influence the children's perceptions of the father's absence (Steyn et al., 1987:263).It must be borne in mind that the father's role is to bridge the gap between the broader society and the home and if the father is no longer fulfilling this function, the gap must be filled or compensated for.

#### 4.7.1.1 **Child's age as determinant**

Father-absent children generally had lower self-esteem than father-present children, especially when the absence occurred early in the child's life.

Lamb (1976:99) quotes Santrock (1970) who found that father absence was more disruptive when the onset of the absence was during the first two years of life, than when the child was older and suggests that this is due to the older child being able to seek support from peers who act as a buffer against the negative effects of father absence.

Santrock's (1972:455), study of the effect of father absence on lower class, white children, confirms that "the child's sex age of onset of absence, and reason for absence were all significant variables mediating the impact of father absence on the child's academic and intellectual performance." He also established that although boys were found to be more adversely affected by father absence than girls, both boys and girls whose fathers were not present, scored lower on third-grade achievement tests than their father-present peers (Lamb 1976:99).

#### 4.7.1.2 **Intellectual abilities**

Various studies have shown that mathematical ability is more adversely affected than verbal ability in father-absent children. Biller (1975), in his research found that father-absent children and father-neglected children's analytical ability was negatively affected. He gave an example of father-absent children who have more "difficulty analysing pictures to pick out hidden objects and in solving complex puzzle tasks" (Biller,1975). Biller (1975), supported by other studies, also claims that father absence does not affect verbal development as profoundly as it affects problem-solving.

Lamb, (1976); Calsmith, (1964) and Nelsen & Maccoby (1966), quoted in Bronstein, & Cowan (1988:140), found that high school subjects whose fathers were absent were more likely than father-present subjects, to have higher verbal than mathematics score, that is, they showed a feminine patterning of cognitive processing.

Carlsmith (1964) and others, according to Shinn, (1978:315), suggest that the "feminine pattern of high verbal and low quantitative performance shown by male college students from fatherless homes is due to their childhood difficulty in forming a masculine identity without a **male role model**."

Studies done by others Herzog & Sudia (1973) and Carlsmith (1964); Gregory (1965); and Lessing et al.(1970), however, dispute the sex-role identity theory. Several studies have revealed very little difference between father-present and father-absent boys with regard to the development of a masculine identity.

Studies have revealed that father-absent female children are also affected by quantitative-verbal differences. Maccoby and Rau (1962) theorised that quantitative-verbal difference patterns may be due to the great deal of stress and tension which father-absent children experience. According to them, "stress and tension interfere more with mathematical than with verbal activities because the former require a higher level of ego functioning" (Shinn, 1978:317).

Another theory propagated is that mothers tend to foster verbal abilities while fathers have a significant effect on analytical cognitive development. Fatherless children are therefore frequently deprived of analytical stimulation, hence the development of a predominantly feminine pattern of cognitive processing.

Biller (1975) has expressed his concern at the lack of attention paid to the effect of father absence on an important facet of intellectual development, namely productive thinking. Productive thinking involves using "abstract skills to arrive at real-life solutions"

(Biller, 1975). In other words the child must be taught that ideas must be translated into appropriate action. The absent-father child may be deprived of the opportunities to learn this important lesson.

Blanchard and Biller (1971:304) believe that fathers who are highly involved with their sons provide them with models of achievement motivation which to emulate.

#### 4.7.1.2/...

Shinn's (1978:295) review of literature which studied the effects of father absence, revealed that father absence has detrimental effects on children's intellectual performance.

Weininger (1972), in his study of emotional and behavioural consequences of parent-child separation, found that separation had adverse effects on behaviour irrespective of the length of the separation (Shinn 1978:317).

In his study on the effects of father absence on urban 4th grade Black children, Sciara (1975:52) found that father-present children attained a significantly higher education achievement level than those children from father-absent homes.

Lessing, Zagorin and Nelson (1970) quoted in Shinn (1978:296) found differences in effects of father absence in working and middle-class groups.

Children who are economically disadvantaged do seem more than their middle-class counterparts, to be affected by father-absence. The reason for this is that middle-class mothers are more likely to value verbal skills and to foster them in their children and these children are afforded more opportunities for formal education (Biller 1975).

Hetherington & Deur (1971:244) conclude that although evidence strongly points to the fact that father absence is associated with social and cognitive developmental disruptions, the effects can be attenuated by "positive factors such as an emotionally stable, loving mother who reinforces the child for appropriate sex-typed behaviour, and the presence of male siblings."

Scaria (1975:49) points to a study by Peterson et al. (1966) which found that "although it is necessary to exercise caution in interpreting direct effects of family type on achievement, the findings suggest a positive association between intact family and achievement."

#### 4.7.1.3 **Death**

Various studies on the effects of father absence are not able to reach consensus on the critical period in the child's life, for father loss due to death.

Douglas et al. (1968) found that death of the father negatively influenced academic achievement only when the death was preceded by a prolonged illness (Nesengani, 1990:37).

Lamb's (1976:270) review of Radin's study of the role of the father in cognitive, academic and intellectual development, claims that father absence is the most damaging to cognitive growth if it occurs before the age of five except in the case of death where recency of death is the most debilitating to cognitive growth.

Harvey (1975:919-B), found in his investigation that males who experienced father-absence due to death before the age of five and after the age of 12, showed psychosocial deficit. Psychosocial theorists propose that each stage in life is characterised by certain developmental tasks which are necessary for the individual to be successful in life (v.d. Aardweg & v.d. Aardweg, 1988:13).

Erikson describes adolescence as the time when " the adolescent experiments with a variety of identities, without having to assume the responsibility for the consequences of any particular one" (v.d. Aardweg & v.d. Aardweg, 1988:12). It is during this time of experimentation that the presence of a father is important for the child to develop a healthy self-identity.

Santrock's study (1972:455), established that in the 6-9 year age group, father absence due to death was the most detrimental in a boy's life. During this time, father-absence due to death will depress cognitive growth.

Although there is no consensus as to the critical period at which a father's death is most likely to affect the child's cognitive and personality growth, research has established that the death of the father will influence a child's cognitive development and academic achievement motivation.

#### 4.7.1.4 **Divorce**

The question, "Should the parents stay together for the sake of the children?" is frequently asked. Burchinal (1964:44), states that it is generally assumed that children are adversely affected by the process of divorce and the withdrawal of one parent and he asserts that research indicates unfounded apprehension about the detrimental influence of divorce upon children. Paul Landis, (1953) quoted in Burchinal (1964:44) found that in some cases adolescents from broken homes seemed better adjusted than those who were from intact homes. In the last ten years, several studies have revealed that "children from broken but conflict-free homes were less likely to have problems than were children from conflictual, unbroken homes" (Emery, 1982:313).

Much could depend on how the mother copes with the father's absence and the relationship of the mother and father prior to the divorce.

These results do not, however, suggest that children who are separated from a parent, are not affected by the separation. Children of divorced homes frequently experience a dramatic reduction of interaction with their fathers. Many fathers become disinclined to seek the company of their children for various reasons. The mother may make it difficult for the father to see his children. She may distort the children's perception of him so that they may have no desire to seek his company. He may regard himself as an outsider and avoid contact. He or his ex-wife and family may relocate to another area. Any of these factors may have a bearing on how the children deal with their father's absence.

Bowlby,(1973) and Rutter, (1979) diagnosed "acute distress syndrome" in many children who became separated from a parent. According to them these children experienced three stages of, initially, "acute upset, followed by apathy or depression and finally a loss of interest in the parents or adaptation to the new situation" (Emery, 1982:313).

Goodman (1947), quoted in Radebe (1983:25), found that broken homes significantly contributed to the high delinquency rate in South Africa.

#### 4.7.1.4/...

Radebe (1983:25) cites a study done by Eleanor, Sheldon and Glueck, quoted in Harris (1967), in which the correlation between juvenile delinquency and marital disruption was confirmed. A reason suggested for this correlation is that "divorced Black fathers generally neglect their children emotionally and financially."

Black fathers in South Africa are not liable to pay maintenance and the children in the majority of cases experience economic hardships. These children may develop a poor self-concept, which often results in delinquency. Harvey's (1975:919-B) study revealed that children who were subjected to divorce after the age of 12 showed poorer psychosocial development than children up to the age of 12, or father-present children. Studies done by Santrock (1972:466) showed that the critical age for father-absence onset due to divorce was the first 2 years of the boy's life and between 3 and 5 years for girls.

It was hypothesised by Santrock in his (1972:469) study that the period of sensitivity, in girls, to the departure of the father, may be due to the Oedipal phase, or the romantic attachment to the father during this period. However, it was also found that boys are negatively affected during the 3 to 5 year age period if their fathers had died during that stage which therefore casts doubt on the Oedipal phase hypothesis. Several hypotheses formulated by Santrock (1972:463 - 467) suggest critical periods in the child's development when the presence of the father is vital. His study confirmed that the effects of father absence are influenced by the onset and type of father absence. Often children who feel insecure in the home environment and who feel that a separation between their parents is imminent, lose interest in their school-related activities. It may be used as a ploy to attempt a reconciliation between the parents (Palmer, 1980:148). "Overall average academic performance in children is shown to be significantly related to their parents' marital status (Berelowitz 1986:83).

#### 4.7.1.4/...

Shinn (1978:96), found that poor performance on IQ and achievement tests already occurred a year before the father left the home. Considerable evidence also suggests that conflict in a marriage has a greater effect on boys than on girls. Emery (1982:316) found in studies done by Block et al. (1981); Whitehead (1979) and Hess & Camara (1979), that boys exhibited undercontrolled behaviour, whereas girls were found to exhibit overcontrolled behaviour, and studies done by Pettigrew quoted in Scanzoni, (1971) show that Black male children reared in homes where fathers are absent, show "greater dependency, conflict and exaggerated identity that is expressed in overtly aggressive behaviour when they are adults" (Radebe, 1983:25).

These children are also less orientated towards achievement.

#### 4.7.1.5 **Job-related absence**

Before the Industrial Revolution, the whole family worked together towards common goals. The children were able to see how their father reacted to various stressful situations in the work environment.

In modern society, the father is frequently away from home and the children have nothing to do with that part of his life. They do not see how he functions under pressure. According to MacDonald (1990:34) he is absent during the time when the children can learn a great deal from him. Some jobs entail secrecy and the children of these fathers are even more isolated from their fathers' work environment (MacDonald, 1990:34). Nesengani (1990:48) quotes Jackson (1984) who claims that when the child is isolated from his father's work environment, the developing bond between father and child is disturbed.

Children withdraw from a father who is constantly unapproachable. Nesengani's (1990:49) review of several studies of father absence due to occupational demands, revealed that children with fathers who were absent because of work demands, performed below average on IQ and mathematics tests.

#### 4.7.1.5/...

A child's psychosocial development does not seem to be adversely affected by father-absence due to military duties. Harvey (1975:919-B) found that girls whose fathers are absent due to military duties before the child is five years, showed superiority on verbal and total college board scores when measured on the Scholastic Aptitude Test compared to all other female subjects. Landy, Rosenberg & Sutton-Smith (1969) found that "female college students whose fathers worked night shifts and were therefore presumably less available to them showed decreased quantitative scores on the American College Entrance Examination, although their linguistic scores were not affected" (Hetherington & Deur, 1971:241). Landy, Rosenberg and Sutton-Smith (1969) claim that children of fathers who work night shift for long periods of time, exhibit behavioural patterns similar to those whose fathers have been totally absent for a number of years, but to a lesser degree. The reduced interaction between father and child because of night shift work, may affect the development of quantitative skills in girls if night shift work has been part of the family life for long periods and with regard to girls, if it was part of her first nine years of life as this period is a critical period for the development of quantitative skills in girls (Landy, Rosenberg and Sutton-Smith, 1969:944).

A review done by Biller (1974), revealed that fathers who worked long hours and had infrequent interaction with their high school sons, and fathers who were insecure about their masculinity, had underachieving sons (Shinn 1978:319).

Children who experience frequent absence of fathers due to job-related commitments, turn to their mothers as the major source of support.

The father gradually becomes a peripheral member of the family as the mother increasingly becomes the main authority figure and assumes the instrumental role previously held by the father.

#### 4.7.1.6 **Stepfathers**

Research suggests that a stepfather may attenuate the debilitating effects of father absence on the child's cognitive development.

Chapman's (1978) study indicates that a stepfather has a positive effect on boys' cognitive and personality development (Bronstein & Cowan 1988:148). His study showed that boys with stepfathers tended to have higher IQ and achievement test scores than father-absent boys. The presence of a stepfather was also found to mitigate the effects of field dependence and lower SAT scores associated with father absence.

Santrock (1972:458) also believed that a stepfather in the home, could improve achievement and IQ. His study centred on third and sixth grade boys who had stepfathers. As previously mentioned, their IQ's and achievement scores were higher than father-absent boys without stepfathers (Chapman, 1977:1155).

Santrock's (1972:467) study reveals that although girls are adversely affected by father absence, the presence of a stepfather may attenuate these effects. Shinn (1978:320) confirms that several studies suggest the remediating effect of the presence of a stepfather on father-absent children's performance on cognitive tests.

#### 4.7.2 **Psychological absence**

Apart from the effects of the physical absence of a father on the academic achievement of a child, one must also consider those fathers who are, in effect, still part of the family, but who fill a peripheral role, either voluntarily or involuntarily. These fathers spend almost no time with their children. Le Roux (1990:126) poses the question as to whether psychological presence/absence can be regarded as a valid construct. She quotes Watzlavik and Weakland (1977) as stating that no part of a system can be studied in isolation. One can therefore conclude that the father's physical and psychological presence is integrated and can therefore not be separated.

Biller (1975) asserts that many psychologically withdrawn fathers have either lost their self-respect or in the case of the more affluent ones, are out "chasing the buck" (Biller, 1975). They are regarded as important only insofar as they provide financial security.

Clark (1983:194) found in his study of low achievers' homes, that psychologically-absent fathers in two-parent families are often held in low esteem by others in the home. As previously noted if the father is not consistently involved in family functioning, it becomes very difficult, especially for his son, to learn to be assertive, independent and competent.

Biller (1975) notes that several researchers have found that father-present children who are academic underachievers, have unsatisfactory relationships with their fathers. He points out that many fathers claim that their home activities are "child-centred", but much of these activities, according to him, are done **for** the children, rather than **with** the children.

Macdonald, (1990:110) relates a story of a father who resigned his very demanding job because he realised that his children no longer regarded him as a source of security and authoritative guidance. They turned to their mother to answer their questions and to calm their anxieties, even when their father was present. He had always been too busy to answer questions.

His job had shut him off from them, even when he was at home. "Vir hulle was ek 'n pa wat of werk, of te diep ingedagte is om aandag aan hulle behoeftes te gee" (MacDonald,1990:110). Biller (1975) refers to children of "psychologically absent" fathers as the "walking wounded - victims of psychological violence."The child has need of discipline, encouragement and stability. The child also searches for standards against which he can measure his views about life. Biller (1975) believes that most temptations to indulge in criminal activities could be resisted if each child had a warm, competent father. "A strong bond between father and child helps the child to accept more responsibility for his own behaviour"

(Biller, 1975). Macdonald (1990:106) states that fathers who are unapproachable, retard the child's development towards adulthood. Le Roux (1990:126) found that a significant correlation exists between achievement motivation and the psychologically-present father. The father's physical and psychological presence are both important to the child's development of achievement motivation and the one cannot be effective without the other.

## 4.8 **CONFLICT IN PARENTING ROLES OF FATHER AND MOTHER**

### 4.8.1 **Roles**

It is clear that the father and mother fulfil different, but complementary roles in the rearing of their offspring. Unfortunately as roles within societies and the family structure in the 20th century are being questioned, role diffusion is on the increase. According to Prinsloo (1972:72) up to about fifty years ago in South Africa, roles were very clearly defined. The mother was expected to run the household and the father was regarded as the breadwinner. The father was the absolute authority figure and undisputed head of the home. Each was responsible for his or her own duties and did not expect the partner to take over any of the duties of the other partner. The father worked outside the home in order to provide the material needs of the family. The mother cared for the children and maintained the home. Rapid technological advancement resulted in many of the daily tasks of the housewife being taken over by machines and other concerns outside the home, with the result that she was frequently faced with a feeling of redundancy, frustration and boredom. The education of her children also became the task of educators outside the home. The role of the mother changed rapidly as more mothers entered the workplace, as mothers were no longer solely responsible for taking care of the home. A CNN news report claimed that in the United States about 48% of women are employed outside the home in 1993. The changing role of women implies that the role of the father will also change. Increasingly mothers, especially middle-class, educated mothers are encouraging their husbands to fulfil more expressive roles within the family. Parsons & Bales (1956) quoted in Prinsloo (1972:74) state that the strict division between the instrumental and expressive roles in the middle-class American family is no longer discernible. The same can also be said of the South African family, where an ever-increasing number of mothers are working women. However, although roles are becoming more diffused, the father is still primarily responsible for the material welfare of the family while the mother is still essentially expected to provide the emotional support for the family. As women become more economically independent, the role of the father as main authority figure is being challenged. Many wives are challenging the father's ability and right to control family members.

#### 4.8.1/...

Prinsloo (1972:82) states that the equalising of the father's and mother's roles can develop conflict situations within the family relationship. Role conflict develops when definitions assigned by individuals in a relationship, to roles, do not correspond (Prinsloo, 1972:82). Prinsloo (1972:27) defined the term "role" as "die uitlewing van gesag wat aan 'n handelende persoon in 'n sekere posisie toegeken word ten opsigte van spesifieke funksies." A power struggle develops which may lead to marital conflict with concomitant effects on the children of that marriage.

#### 4.8.2 **Authority**

Authority is assigned to a particular person in order to fulfil specific functions. Parsons (1960) quoted in Steyn et al. (1987:227) says "Authority ... I think of as an institutionalised complex of norms which do not involve the prescription, permission or prohibition of particular acts, but which on a general level define the conditions under which in the given social structure and in given statuses and situations within it, acts of others within the same collectivity may be prescribed, permitted or prohibited." Authority can then be said to involve the right of one person to control the members of a group in order to achieve collective goals (Steyn et al. 1987:227).

Authority has traditionally always been assigned to the father in the Western family structure. However, men and women are increasingly sharing this position in the contemporary family of Western society. The relation of authority between father and mother is dependent on role differentiation within the family. There may be areas where the mother has autonomous decision-making powers and the same may be said of the father (Steyn et al. 1987:228).

#### 4.8.3 **Power**

Steyn et al. (1987:226), quote Weber's definition of power in the family, as the individual's ability to enforce his will on another despite resistance. Blood and Wolfe (1960) determined that three factors influenced the power structure in the family.

These factors include: 1) "the higher the husband's occupational prestige, the greater his voice in marital decisions; 2) the higher the husband's income, the greater his power; 3) the higher the husband's status (based on occupation, income, education and ethnic background), the more power he had to make decisions" (Gillespie, 1971:446). Safilios-Rothschild (1970:547), in a previous study done by him (1969), disputes Blood and Wolfe's Resource Theory (1960), which states that the more resources the husband provides, the greater his position of authority. He claims that even in Blood and Wolfe's studies inconsistencies frequently surfaced. He cited an example of low blue-collar men who had relatively more power than high blue-collar men and recalled various other studies which dispute Blood & Wolfe's Resource Theory. He also suggests that the lack of consensus about how to measure the power structure in the family is the result of faulty methodology and claims that "theories about power structure will not become more sophisticated and valid, until the methodology of power structure studies improves considerably to include the detailed study of all aspects of power" (Safilios-Rothschild, 1970:549).

#### 4.8.4 **Power Distribution**

Steyn et al. (1987:229) in a review of studies on power distribution in families, found evidence of a significant shift in power distribution in the modern Western family.

This has come about as a result of changes in the structure of the family, from the extended family and the importance of relationships between members of the family, to the nuclear family, which does not consider the relationships with extended family members as important as had previously been the case. The consequences of the changes in the structure of the family has also had an effect on the role activities within the family (Steyn et al. 1987:229) Gillespie (1971:457) believes that it will not be possible to have absolute equality of power between father and mother while the present socio-economic system remains. The present socio-economic system has an institutionalised system of male supremacy, and discrimination against women is still very much in evidence.

The increasing tendency for women to enter the field of employment outside the home, has made women expect a greater measure of control over their own lives. A number of factors may cause the woman to attempt to take over the instrumental role or role of head of the home in the family. Among these may be physical absence of the father; fathers who are psychologically absent, that is, although they are essentially a part of the family, they are not actively involved in the family activities and communication between father and child may be for the purpose of discipline or for financial reasons only. In order to provide an orderly and stable household for the children, the mother attempts to compensate for the ineffectual father's lack of control.

#### 4.8.5 **Mother-dominant Households**

In South Africa several studies have revealed that a number of communities have a tendency towards mother-dominant households. Among the communities which have shown this trend, are the Cape Coloureds whose history resembles the history of the American Negroes, who also have a predominantly mother-dominant family system.

##### 4.8.5.1 **Slavery**

Slavery led to the breakup of the family and the role of the male being denigrated. The mother was forced to take over the role of disciplinarian and transmitter of values. According to Sciara (1975:46) "economic and other forms of discriminations have continued throughout history, so that the frequency of father absence has always been higher for Black Americans than for other groups" A similar problem faced the Coloured population group in South Africa. Matriarchal family structures are especially prevalent among the lower class members of the Cape Coloured group. The family which has managed to lift itself to a higher status group, is more father-centred (Steyn et al.1987:310). Steyn et al. (1987:310) points out that a difference between negro and Cape coloured fathers on the one hand, and Black South African fathers on the other, is that the Black father who is still a member of a family, is still the head of the home.

#### 4.8.5.1/...

There are therefore fewer matriarchal family structures among Black South African families than there is in Negro and Cape Coloured families. Allen (1978) and Kalt and Zalking (1976) state that female dominated families result in poor socialisation for boys because a missing father model prevents them from learning the father-husband roles properly (Radebe, 1983:97). Father-absent boys were found to be more aggressive and less competitive. Another example of mother-dominant families, is the Xhosa in South Africa. Studies done by Pauw (1963) showed that the uprooting of the Xhosa had caused the disintegration of the sex norms and other behavioural codes (Steyn et al. 1987:297). This trend has become evident in many Black communities in South Africa.

#### 4.8.5.2 **Abandonment of traditional way of life**

Urbanisation has led to many Black families adopting the White nuclear family system to which they have been exposed as a result of their interaction with western cultural groups.

Unlike the traditional way of life where the father is the principal authority figure, the role of authority-figure has greatly diminished among Black fathers. With the diminished status of the father, has been the concomitant increased tendency of the mother to be the dominant authority figure in the family. In the traditional setting the father acted as representative of his family in religious and legal matters. This is no longer the case. The migration to urban areas and contact with White cultural values, has resulted in a decrease in the status of the father as representative of his family. Rainwater (quoted in Allen, 1978), points out that Black males are "essentially ineffectual in performing their husband-father roles" (Radebe, 1983:69). In South Africa, the Black child frequently sees his father fleetingly before he goes to bed. Black fathers often have to travel great distances to work each day and leave for work while the children are still asleep.

#### 4.8.5.2/...

He returns at the children's bedtime and thus spends no or very little time with them (Radebe 1983:70). Steyn et al. (1987:297) suggests that woman-dominant family structures are the result of drastic social change and a high degree of family disorganisation.

The resultant upheaval of the traditional Black family, is the deterioration of a value system. Black parents have largely become unable to guide and control their children. Many of them have had no experience of urban life before adulthood having lived most of their childhood and early adult life in rural areas. Many of them have very little education. There is consequently no identification between the life-worlds of parents and children. The loss of control has led to a significant increase of lawlessness and crime among Black youth (Steyn et al. 1987:300).

#### 4.8.5.3 Increase in women's power

With the increase of women's power very much in evidence, and the decline of status of the father as the supreme authoritative figure, many men are experiencing a sense of powerlessness over their environment (Biller, 1975). The father frequently feels less than competent to represent his family in the broader community. He feels less than confident about his role as father. Children of fathers who feel inadequate experience a sense of insecurity and confusion as they do not perceive their fathers as worthy role models, which to emulate. Biller (1975) suggests that this gives rise to "many of society's difficulties which are due partly to the problem children who tend to be produced by father-neglected families." Mothers who perceive their husbands as ineffectual as fathers may attempt to undermine the father's position. This often results in conflict between father and mother. The father gradually loses confidence in his competence as father and withdraws if not physically then psychologically. Conflict has an adverse effect on the children of the family. Many psychologists believe that where there is a problem child, there is a conflict-ridden marriage.

#### 4.8.5.3/...

Others believe that there is not enough evidence to prove that there is a relation between problem children and problem marriages.

This lack of consensus can be attributed to a number of methodological flaws, for example, biased sampling; non-independent data and the use of measures lacking in reliability and validity (Emery 1982:310 & 311). Blood and Wolfe, (1960) identify several factors which may increase the woman's power in the family. Among these factors are women who work outside the home, and those who have frequent opportunities for organisational participation (Gillespie, 1971:452). Several studies have shown that women who work outside the home have greater authority in decision-making within the home, than women who do not work outside the home. The changing roles have given rise to a more democratic power structure in the family.

Yi-Chuang-Lu (1952) found in his studies of dominant, equal and submissive roles in marriage, that marriages where authority and power were equal, were more successful than marriages where one of the partners was dominant (Prinsloo 1972:79).

There seems to be a very fine line between mother-domination of the family, and equality of authority and power between the partners in the marriage. It seems also that many two-parent households find it difficult to maintain equality of authority and power between the heads of the household.

#### 4.9 **CONCLUSION**

In spite of the methodological problems relating to research on the father's role in the development of academic achievement motivation, several factors have been indisputably established. A father influences his child's cognitive development and achievement motivation whether through his absence or his presence. Father-absent children score lower than father-present children, especially in activities demanding analytical skills. There is a higher rate of delinquency in father-absent, than in father-present children (Lamb, 1976:234).

How and to what degree the father interacts with his child influences the child's self-esteem and his outlook for the rest of his life. A quote from Sciara (1975:54) serves to sum up this chapter about the influence of paternal involvement on the scholastic achievement of secondary school pupils. "The presence of a father would seem to foster greater cohesiveness of family, a greater variety of family activities, a greater quantity of adult-child verbal interaction, and a greater variety of personal experiences for children than would the absence of a father. These characteristics of family life would seem to be activities directly related to educational achievement."

## **CHAPTER 5**

### **DESIGN OF INVESTIGATION**

#### **5.1 INTRODUCTION**

The researcher's concern with the widespread under achievement among average and above-average secondary school pupils, led to the exploration of a number of factors which may offer an explanation about the lack of academic motivation among these children.

The investigation included a study of the methods of discipline, the leadership role in the family, parental involvement in the child's life, as well as choice of values and how these variables relate to academic achievement.

##### **5.1.1 Discipline**

The researcher's goal in this study was to attempt to establish whether there is a significant relationship between the parent's approach to discipline and the academic achievement of secondary school pupils of a large rural town in the province of the Transvaal, South Africa.

##### **5.1.2 Father Involvement**

The researcher included this aspect in the study in order to establish whether a significant relationship exists between father involvement and academic achievement of the secondary school pupils included in the sample which will be described later in this chapter.

##### **5.1.3 Choice of Values**

The researcher wished to include this aspect in order to attempt to establish whether a significant relationship exists between the choice of values in the home and the academic achievement of the pupils included in the sample described later in this chapter.

The aim of the researcher was therefore to attempt to acquire information on which value system, method of discipline and extent of father involvement is related to academic achievement.

#### 5.1.4 **Hypotheses to be tested:**

**Hypothesis I -** There is a significant positive correlation between the extent of father involvement and academic achievement of secondary school pupils.

**Hypothesis II -** There is a significant positive correlation between the choice of values in the family and academic achievement of secondary school pupils.

**Hypothesis III -** There is a significant positive correlation between the approach to discipline and academic achievement of secondary school pupils.

In this study the following independent variables were selected:

- 1 Parents' educational and occupational levels
- 2 Parents' marital status
- 3 Parents' style of discipline
- 4 Extent of parental involvement
- 5 Parents' leadership ability
- 6 Parents' and pupils' choice of values.

## 5.2 **METHOD OF ACQUIRING INFORMATION**

The researcher has decided to conduct a nomothetic study of the above mentioned aspects, that is, it will be attempted to address the above mentioned issues by involving a body of parents and pupils.

### 5.2.1 **Sample**

To explore the issues mentioned above, the investigator used four samples representing four major cultural groups all of whom reside in a large rural town in South Africa.

South Africa is a country of great diversity and it would therefore be impossible to ignore the diversity of value systems, approaches to discipline and the image of the father in each of these cultures and for that reason it would be difficult to generalise these results as representative of the greater South African society.

5.2.1/...

It would therefore be unsatisfactory to draw a sample from only one population group in the area targeted as the area from which the sample would be drawn. It was decided also, to take samples from different cultural groups, for future study of a comparison of possible differences in the way these variables influence academic achievement in these cultural groups.

The four groups were drawn from Tswana-; white Afrikaans; white English; and Indian English-speaking standard 8 pupils and their parents.

### 5.2.2 Questionnaire

It was decided to use **questionnaires** to obtain the information from both parents and pupils.

Four high schools in the area mentioned above, permitted their pupils to fill in an anonymous questionnaire about how **they** viewed their fathers' and mothers' involvement in their school life; leadership ability of the father/mother and his/her ability to exercise discipline.

They were also required to consider a number of values according to whether they thought them **not at all important** along a continuum to **extremely important**.

The questionnaire used to gather the information consisted of Section A and Section B.

Two questionnaires were distributed, one to the standard eight pupils of four schools representing the four major cultural groups selected for this study, and one to their parents.

The data could perhaps be used for further study to determine whether the **differences** in the way the children and their parents perceive parental involvement, discipline and parental leadership, could relate to academic achievement.

#### 5.2.2.1 Section A

Section A of the questionnaire was intended to obtain background information of the family structure and dynamics.

Section A included questions on the following:

1. **Home language**

This question placed the family into one of the four cultural groups used in this study. Although white English speaking and Indian English-speaking pupils both used the same language, data from the two groups of questionnaires were processed separately.

The pupils and their parents were requested simply to place the code indicating their language preference, in the block provided.

2. **Parents' marital status**

Information obtained from this question could be used to establish whether particular family structures, that is, mother only, father only, both parents present, stepparents were more likely to affect academic achievement positively or negatively.

3. **Parents' occupation and educational level**

This question was included to attempt to establish whether these variables have any effect on academic achievement of secondary school pupils.

Research has shown that parents with higher education and higher positions in the work-place, encourage the kinds of skills in their children that they are required to have in their own work, for example, showing initiative.

4. **Pupils' average symbols/marks**

Information obtained from this questionnaire was used to determine how successful the pupil was at academic activities.

5. **Age of pupil**

As the questionnaire was directed at standard eight pupils, the majority of them would be expected to be between the ages of 15 and 18 years of age.

### 5.2.2.1/... (5)

As the table indicates (refer to table 6.2), this is the case with 462 of the pupils who answered the questionnaire, being between the ages of 15 and 18 years of age.

Of those in the age group 15 - 18, 94 were boys and 268 were girls.

It is therefore implied that the majority of the sample of pupils would be at more or less the same developmental level.

### 6. **Parents' responses**

The pupils were asked to take home a separate anonymous questionnaire to their parents who were given several days to complete it and to return it with their children to the school.

Parents were asked where possible to complete the questionnaire together. Only parents who completed the questionnaire were included in the data.

### 5.2.2.2 **Section B**

Section B was composed of questions which were to be evaluated according to a code which appeared on the questionnaire. A space was provided for the code chosen. (For complete questionnaire, refer to appendix 1).

All data obtained from the questionnaires were fed into a computer in order for the calculations which follow in this chapter, to be done.

Using Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha, an item analysis was done to determine which items most contributed to the total of each section of the questionnaire.

#### 1. **Items measuring parent involvement**

Items 5, 9, 10, 14, 17, 18, 20, 22, 22, 24, 25 and 28 were included to determine the extent of parent involvement in the academic life of the secondary school pupil.

These items attempted to establish whether parent involvement, especially father involvement in the life of the child influenced academic achievement motivation.

### 5.2.2.2/...(1)

These items also attempted to establish which parent seemed more involved and whether this related to academic achievement.

#### 2. **Items measuring parent leadership**

Items measuring parent leadership included statements 2, 4, 12, 21, 26, 27 and 30.

These statements were aimed at determining whether the father was the head of the home and to what extent he was the head of the home.

Through these statements it was also attempted to establish whether the home was a father-absent home.

#### 3. **Items measuring parent discipline**

Items 1, 3, 6, 7, 8, 11, 13, 15, 16, 19, 23 and 29 were included in the pupil questionnaire to determine the type of discipline exercised by each parent, that is, whether he or she used authoritarian, authoritative or permissive styles of discipline.

Items 1, 3, 7, 8, 16 and 23 reflect an authoritarian style of discipline, whereas items 3, 6, 8, 11, 13, 15 and 29 attempt to reflect an authoritative style. A negative response to items 3, 4, 8, 13, 15, 16, 17, 23, 29 and a positive response to item 19 attempt to measure a permissive style of discipline in the home.

#### 4. **Choice of values**

The pupils and their parents were provided with a list of values which they could evaluate according to how important these values were in their lives.

The values listed could be grouped into several types: aesthetic, material, spiritual and educational/intellectual.

5. **Mother's place in the family**

Although the focus of this study is the father's influence on the child's academic achievement ability, the questionnaire allowed for the pupil to evaluate the mother's role in the family in order to give the researcher an indication of which parent is the dominant figure in the family according to the perception of the child and whether this relates to academic achievement.

It would allow the researcher to note whether the mother completed the questionnaire and if she had, whether the father was present or absent.

This information could be used to determine whether the mother has assumed the leadership role in the family, whether the mother is the disciplinarian and which parent is most involved in the life of the secondary school pupil's life.

5.3 **CONCLUSION**

This chapter attempted to set out in detail the sample and method used to obtain data in order to explain why so many pupils of normal intelligence fail to achieve at secondary school level.

In the following chapter (chapter 6), the results of the empirical investigation will be expounded.

## **CHAPTER 6**

### **RESULTS OF THE INVESTIGATION**

#### **6.1 INTRODUCTION**

The data collected from the questionnaires as described in the previous chapter, will be interpreted in this chapter.

It will be attempted to determine whether the data gathered from the sample selected in a rural town in South Africa, confirms the theories suggested in past research on those variables influencing academic achievement.

#### **6.2 SECTION A - BACKGROUND INFORMATION**

##### **6.2.1 Language**

Of the four cultural groups, 100 English-speaking pupils responded; 125 were Afrikaans-speaking; 26 were bilingual, that is, they spoke English and Afrikaans at home; 227 were Tswana-speaking and 33 spoke other languages at home.

**TABLE 6.1 - Language**

	<b>English</b>	<b>Afrikaans</b>	<b>Eng/Afr</b>	<b>Tswana</b>	<b>Other</b>	<b>Total</b>
<b>Boys</b>	53	44	11	91	21	220
<b>Girls</b>	47	81	15	136	12	291
<b>Total</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>125</b>	<b>26</b>	<b>227</b>	<b>33</b>	<b>511</b>

##### **6.2.2 Age of Pupils**

As table 6.2 indicates, 462 of the pupils who answered the questionnaire were between the ages of 15 and 18 years of age. Of those in the age group 15 - 18, 194 were boys and 268 were girls.

**TABLE 6.2 - Age of Pupils**

The number of persons in each of the age groups.

	12-14	15-18	Over 18	Total
<b>Boys</b>	4	194	23	221
<b>Girls</b>	4	268	21	293
<b>Total</b>	<b>8</b>	<b>462</b>	<b>44</b>	<b>514</b>

6.2.3 **Number of Parents who responded**

Parents who did not complete the questionnaire totalled 294.

The questionnaire was answered most frequently by the mother, that is, 97 mothers answered the questionnaire alone, 81 parents answered the questionnaire together and 41 fathers answered the questionnaire alone.

**TABLE 6.3 - Number of Parents who responded**

Parents	Frequency
<b>Mother</b>	97
<b>Both Parents</b>	81
<b>Father</b>	41
<b>Total</b>	<b>294</b>

6.2.4 **Marital status of parents**

The majority of parents, that is, 365, who responded to this section, were married; 35 were divorced and had not remarried; 25 had divorced and remarried; 29 had never been married; 18 mothers were widows; 7 fathers were widowers; 4 widows had remarried; 2 widowers had remarried and 20 parents had separated from their spouses.

**TABLE 6.4 - Marital status of parents**

<b>Marital Status</b>	<b>Frequency</b>
Married (1st marriage)	365 ✓
Divorced/not remarried	35 ✓
Divorced/ remarried	25 ✓
Never been married	29
Widows/not married	18
Widowers/not married	7
Widows/ remarried	4
Widowers/ remarried	2
Parents separated	20
<b>Total</b>	<b>505</b>

6.2.5 **Educational level of parents**

The majority of parents in the sample, that is 336 fathers and 351 mothers had an educational level of less than standard 10 or fewer than 12 years of schooling.

**TABLE 6.5 - Educational level of father**

<b>Educational Level of Father</b>	<b>Frequency</b>
Less than standard 10	336
Std 8 plus technical college/trade training	38
Standard 10	57 ✓
College certificate/diploma (3 to 4 years)	30
University degree	19
Post-graduate qualifications	17 ✓
<b>Total</b>	<b>497</b>

**TABLE 6.6 - Educational level of mother**

<b>Educational Level of Mother</b>	<b>Frequency</b>
Less than standard 10	351
Std 8 plus technical college/trade training	18
Standard 10	86
College certificate/diploma (3 to 4 years)	38
University degree	6
Post-graduate qualifications	9
<b>Total</b>	<b>508</b>

**6.3 INDEPENDENT VARIABLES**

The independent variables which the researcher focused on in this study included the relationship between academic achievement of secondary school pupils and :

1. Parents' occupation and educational level
2. Parents' marital status
3. Parents' style of discipline
4. Extent of parental involvement
5. Parents' (especially father's) leadership ability
6. Parents' and pupils' choice of values

Special attention was given to the role of the father with regard to the above mentioned variables.

**6.4 ITEM ANALYSIS AND RELIABILITY OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE COMPLETED BY PUPILS**

An item analysis was done to determine whether each item contributed to the total of each section of the questionnaire.

Items which correlated negatively or which showed a low correlation with the total, were omitted.

An item was omitted from the questionnaire if the alpha reliability coefficient increased significantly.

Items would be retained if there was a high positive correlation between the item and the total of the section.

#### 6.4.1 **Item analysis of father involvement**

An item analysis was done for the items measuring father involvement. The reliability coefficient for this section (see Table 6.7) was 0.84. All the items used to measure father involvement showed a high correlation with the total. The last column indicates the alpha reliability coefficient of the section if that particular item is omitted. From the table it can be seen that if any of the items are omitted, the reliability decreases except in the case of item 17 where the reliability would increase. However, the increase would not be significant and therefore it is retained. All the items for father involvement are therefore retained.

**TABLE 6.7 - Item analysis for the section: Father Involvement**

Number of Items : 11  
Alpha reliability coefficient : 0.842

<b>Item</b>	<b>X</b>	<b>S</b>	<b>Correlation with Total</b>	<b>Alpha if item is left out</b>
5	3.327	0.989	0.512	0.830
9	2.267	1.215	0.569	0.825
10	3.392	0.998	0.409	0.837
14	3.065	1.215	0.389	0.841
17	2.857	1.210	0.255	0.852
18	3.050	1.063	0.595	0.823
20	2.575	1.303	0.526	0.829
22	2.944	1.096	0.659	0.818
24	2.240	1.211	0.610	0.821
25	3.395	1.003	0.570	0.826
28	2.520	1.185	0.699	0.813

#### 6.4.2 **Father leadership**

The reliability for father leadership was 0.713. There are fewer items measuring this section.

The alpha reliability coefficient of the section was calculated and it was found that if any item was omitted the reliability of the total would not have increased. In fact it would have decreased quite considerably. Therefore all the items for father leadership are retained.

**TABLE 6.8 - Item Analysis for the section: Father Leadership**

Number of items : 7  
Alpha Reliability Coefficient : 0.713

<b>Item</b>	<b>X</b>	<b>S</b>	<b>Correlation with Total</b>	<b>Alpha if item is left out</b>
2	2.183	1.288	0.368	0.694
4	2.806	1.246	0.422	0.681
12	2.973	1.205	0.390	0.688
21	2.630	1.274	0.489	0.664
26	1.963	1.358	0.414	0.683
27	2.794	1.231	0.479	0.667
30	2.535	1.267	0.402	0.686

#### 6.4.3 **Father discipline**

No items were omitted from this section as the reliability would not have increased significantly if any items had been omitted.

The total reliability coefficient for this section was 0.779 and the omission of any item would have decreased the reliability.

**TABLE 6.9 - Item Analysis for the section: Father Discipline**

Number of items : 12

Alpha Reliability Coefficient : 0.779

<b>Item</b>	<b>X</b>	<b>S</b>	<b>Correlation with Total</b>	<b>Alpha if item is left out</b>
1	2.101	1.140	0.461	0.759
3	3.042	1.074	0.361	0.769
6	2.871	1.176	0.289	0.777
7	2.181	1.227	0.468	0.758
8	2.383	1.173	0.515	0.753
11	2.952	1.143	0.479	0.757
13	2.818	1.157	0.362	0.769
15	2.838	1.173	0.489	0.756
16	2.500	1.237	0.446	0.761
19	3.550	0.952	0.182	0.784
23	1.621	1.128	0.529	0.752
29	2.767	1.363	0.415	0.765

**6.4.4 Mother Involvement**

The reliability for mother involvement was 0.770. It was found that the omission of any item would not significantly increase the reliability of the total. All items are thus retained.

**TABLE 6.10 - Item Analysis for the section: Mother Involvement**

Number of Items : 11

Alpha Reliability Coefficient : 0.770

Item	X	S	Correlation with Total	Alpha if item is left out
5	3.536	0.756	0.431	0.754
9	2.895	1.114	0.463	0.748
10	3.457	0.874	0.312	0.764
14	3.266	1.079	0.350	0.762
17	2.825	1.139	0.205	0.781
18	3.308	0.900	0.396	0.756
20	2.935	1.178	0.441	0.751
22	3.287	0.904	0.513	0.743
24	2.721	1.103	0.561	0.734
25	3.511	0.911	0.387	0.757
28	3.010	1.052	0.626	0.727

6.4.5 **Mother leadership**

The reliability for mother leadership was 0.632. The alpha reliability coefficient of this section is relatively low but the omission of any of the items would decrease the reliability further and it is therefore necessary to retain all the items.

**TABLE 6.11 - Item Analysis measuring Mother Leadership**

Number of items : 7  
Alpha Reliability Coefficient : 0.632

Item	X	S	Correlation with Total	Alpha if item is left out
2	2.252	1.213	0.322	0.603
4	2.686	1.135	0.272	0.616
12	2.764	1.208	0.360	0.590
21	2.949	1.170	0.267	0.618
26	2.141	1.352	0.415	0.570
27	2.814	1.270	0.468	0.522
30	3.176	1.068	0.291	0.610

6.4.6 **Mother discipline**

An item analysis here shows that if any item, (except items 6 and 11) were omitted, it would decrease the reliability of this section which is 0.707. The omission of items 6 and 11 would not significantly increase the reliability of this section and therefore all items are retained.

**TABLE 6.12 - Item Analysis for the section: Mother Discipline**

Number of items : 12

Alpha Reliability Coefficient : 0.707

Item	X	S	Correlation with Total	Alpha if item is left out
1	2.109	1.078	0.402	0.680
3	3.196	0.885	0.287	0.696
6	3.095	1.062	0.164	0.712
7	2.102	1.161	0.407	0.679
8	2.381	1.121	0.383	0.683
11	2.803	1.085	0.428	0.676
13	3.020	1.010	0.179	0.709
15	2.915	1.034	0.412	0.679
16	2.482	1.205	0.391	0.681
19	1.895	1.220	0.298	0.696
23	1.600	1.037	0.460	0.673
29	2.763	1.268	0.290	0.697

6.5 **ITEM ANALYSIS AND RELIABILITY OF QUESTIONNAIRE COMPLETED BY THE PARENTS**

An item analysis was done to determine whether each item contributed to the total of each section of the questionnaire completed by the parents.

Items which correlated negatively or which showed a low correlation with the total were omitted.

An item was omitted from the questionnaire if the **alpha reliability coefficient** increased significantly.

Items would be retained if there was a high positive correlation between item and the total of the section.

### 6.5.1 Item analysis of parent involvement

An item analysis was done for the items measuring parent involvement.

The reliability coefficient for this section (see Table 6.13) was 0.725.

The last column indicates the alpha reliability coefficient of the section if that particular item is omitted.

Table 6.13 indicates that items 38 and 45 correlate negatively with the total. From the table can be seen that if items 38 and 45 are omitted, the reliability increases significantly.

These items were therefore omitted and the reliability coefficient changed to 0.79.

**TABLE 6.13 Item Analysis for the section: Parent Involvement**

Number of Items : 17

Alpha Reliability Coefficient : 0.725

Item	X	S	Correlation with Total	Alpha if item is left out
1	3.573	0.678	0.341	0.710
6	3.553	0.633	0.521	0.696
8	3.431	0.632	0.352	0.710
15	2.527	0.824	0.139	0.730
18	3.015	0.829	0.504	0.692
21	2.538	0.779	0.297	0.714
23	3.152	0.760	0.300	0.713
26	3.121	0.823	0.415	0.701
28	3.213	0.718	0.504	0.695
30	3.152	0.697	0.520	0.694
32	3.101	0.728	0.380	0.706
36	2.857	0.931	0.333	0.710
38	1.705	0.823	-0.071	0.750
39	3.451	0.688	0.417	0.703
41	2.517	0.901	0.352	0.708
43	3.213	0.830	0.355	0.708
45	1.598	0.872	-0.136	0.758

The reliability changed from 0.725 to 0.79 when items 38 and 45 were omitted.

### 6.5.2 **Parent leadership**

An item analysis indicates that if any of the items used to measure parent leadership were to be omitted, the reliability, 0.781, would decrease. All items are therefore retained.

**TABLE 6.14 - Item Analysis for the section: Parent leadership**

Number of items : 12

Alpha Reliability Coefficient : 0.781

<b>Item</b>	<b>X</b>	<b>S</b>	<b>Correlation with Total</b>	<b>Alpha if item is left out</b>
31	3.026	0.844	0.394	0.768
33	2.757	0.887	0.434	0.764
34	3.184	0.811	0.289	0.778
35	2.805	0.841	0.389	0.769
37	2.873	0.881	0.294	0.778
40	2.973	0.939	0.358	0.773
42	3.421	0.777	0.473	0.761
44	2.421	0.954	0.529	0.754
46	2.031	0.930	0.416	0.766
47	2.300	0.991	0.473	0.760
48	3.463	0.767	0.464	0.762
49	3.068	1.093	0.527	0.753

### 6.5.3 **Parent discipline**

Item 20 correlated negatively with the total, and if it was to be omitted, the reliability of this section would increase. A second analysis after item 20 was omitted, was completed and the alpha reliability coefficient changed from 0.721 to 0.749. (See Table 6.15)

**TABLE 6.15 - Item Analysis for the section: Parent discipline**

Number of Items : 20

Alpha Reliability Coefficient : 0.721

Item	X	S	Correlation with Total	Alpha if item is left out
2	3.455	0.710	0.322	0.708
3	3.352	0.717	0.345	0.706
4	2.808	0.940	0.379	0.701
5	3.612	0.737	0.435	0.698
7	2.563	0.865	0.322	0.707
9	3.671	0.599	0.369	0.706
10	3.627	0.523	0.361	0.708
11	3.352	0.637	0.197	0.717
12	3.117	0.785	0.407	0.700
13	2.014	0.790	0.118	0.725
14	3.044	0.802	0.349	0.705
16	3.500	0.615	0.390	0.704
17	2.421	0.956	0.274	0.713
19	2.500	0.873	0.465	0.693
20	1.926	0.941	-0.086	0.749
22	2.602	0.821	0.333	0.706
24	2.529	0.808	0.082	0.729
25	3.416	0.761	0.485	0.693
27	3.328	0.669	0.122	0.723
29	3.294	0.688	0.241	0.714

The reliability changed from 0.721 to 0.749, when item 20 was omitted.

6.6 **INTERRELATION MATRIX SHOWING THE VARIANCES IN THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE INFLUENCE OF THE FATHER AND ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT**

**Hypothesis I** There is no significant correlation between extent of father involvement and academic achievement of secondary school pupils. In order to test this hypothesis, a Pearson Product-Moment correlation was calculated.

It was found that  $r^2 = 0.13$  with  $p < 0.01$ ; indicating that the null hypothesis can be rejected at the 1% level. One can therefore conclude that a low positive correlation between father involvement and academic achievement exists.

**Hypothesis II** With regard to father leadership, the following null hypothesis was stated: There is no significant correlation between father leadership and academic achievement of secondary school pupils. In order to test this hypothesis, a Pearsons Product-Moment correlation was calculated. It was found that for father leadership,  $r^2 = 0.05$  with  $p > 0.05$ . The null hypothesis cannot be rejected. It can be concluded that there is no significant relationship between father leadership and academic achievement.

**Hypothesis III** With regard to father discipline, the following null hypothesis was stated: There is no significant correlation between father discipline and academic achievement of secondary school pupils. Pearsons Product-Moment correlation was calculated to test this hypothesis. It was found that  $r^2 = 0.12$  with  $p < 0.01$ .

The null hypothesis can therefore be rejected. A very low positive correlation exists between the father's methods of discipline and academic achievement.

**TABLE 6.16 Pearsons Product-Moment Correlation Matrix:**  
**Relationship between Academic Achievement and:**

<b>FATHER</b>	<b>Involvement</b>	<b>Leadership</b>	<b>Discipline</b>
	$r^2 = 0.13$	$r^2 = 0.05$	$r^2 = 0.12$
<b>Achievement</b>	$p < 0.01$	$p > 0.05$	$p < 0.01$
	N=448	N=454	N=509

6.7 **INTERCORRELATION MATRIX SHOWING THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE INFLUENCE OF THE MOTHER AND ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT**

Although this study concentrates on the relationship between the role of the father on academic achievement of secondary school pupils, data gathered on the relationship between the role of the mother and academic achievement will be included with the view to comparing how the influence of the father and mother relates to the pupil's achievement and to establish whether a mother's behaviour as the more dominant figure than father in the home, relates more strongly to the pupil's achievement.

The following null hypotheses were stated:

- a) There is no significant correlation between mother involvement academic achievement.

In order to test this hypothesis, Pearson Product-Moment correlation was calculated. The calculated correlation was  $r^2 = 0.15$  with  $p < 0.01$  which indicates that the null hypothesis can be rejected. There seems to be a very low positive correlation between mother involvement and academic achievement. (Refer to Table 6.17).

- b) There is no significant correlation between mother leadership and academic achievement.

Pearson Product-Moment correlation was calculated to test the hypothesis.

It was found that for mother leadership,  $r^2 = 0.05$  with  $p > 0.05$  and therefore the null hypothesis cannot be rejected. There is no significant relationship between mother leadership and academic achievement.

- c) There is no significant correlation between mother discipline and academic achievement.

In order to test this hypothesis, a Pearsons Product-Moment correlation was calculated.

It was found that the calculated correlation was  $r^2 = 0.06$  with  $p > 0.05$ . The null hypotheses cannot be rejected. No relationship between mother discipline and academic achievement exists.

**Table 6.17 - Pearsons Product-Moment Correlation: Relationship between Academic Achievement and:**

MOTHER	Involvement	Leadership	Discipline
	$r^2= 0.16$	$r^2= 0.05$	$r^2= 0.06$
Achievement	$p<0.01$	$p>0.05$	$p>0.05$
	N=505	N=505	N=505

6.8 **THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CHOICE OF VALUES AND ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT.**

Pearson Product-Moment correlation was used to determine the relationship between the values the **pupil** regarded as important, and their academic achievement. Values were considered individually.

**TABLE 6.18 Intercorrelational matrix indicating the relationship between values and academic achievement.**

	Happiness	Obedience	Responsibility	Popularity	Honesty
Achievement	$r^2=0.20$	$r^2=0.07$	$r^2=0.15$	$r^2= -0.03$	$r^2=0.13$
	$p<0.01$	$p>0.05$	$p<0.01$	$p>0.05$	$p<0.01$
	N=508	N=508	N=508	N=508	N=508

	Courage	Helpfulness	Wealth	Exciting life	Education
Achievement	$r^2=0.02$	$r^2=0.07$	$r^2= -0.08$	$r^2= -0.01$	$r^2=0.05$
	$p>0.05$	$p>0.05$	$p<0.05$	$p>0.05$	$p>0.05$
	N=508	N=509	N=508	N=509	N=509

	Freedom	Friendship	Self-respect	Love	Ambition
Achievement	$r^2=0.07$	$r^2=0.18$	$r^2=0.13$	$r^2=0.07$	$r^2=0.13$
	$p>0.05$	$p<0.01$	$p<0.01$	$p>0.05$	$p<0.01$
	N=508	N=509	N=508	N=509	N=509

<b>Achievement</b>	<b>Salvation</b>
	$r^2=0.14$
	$p<0.01$
	$N=507$

The highest correlation was found between happiness and academic achievement, which was  $r^2 = 0.2$  with  $p < 0.01$  which indicates a low positive correlation between happiness and academic achievement. An analysis of each of these values indicates that these values either show a very low positive correlation or no correlation at all with academic achievement. From this may be concluded that the choice of values as measured in the questionnaire, does not relate to academic achievement to any significant degree.

## 6.9 THE VARIANCE IN ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT EXPLAINED BY PUPILS' VALUES

A regression analysis was done in order to determine how all the variables jointly relate to academic achievement.

### 6.9.1 Summary of regression analysis of the relationship between choice of values and academic achievement

The first value taken up in the regression analysis was **happiness** and the proportional variance explained by happiness is 3%. ( $F(1,502) = 17.8$ ,  $p < 0.01$ .)

The second value taken up, was **sense of responsibility**. The Regression analysis indicated that **sense of responsibility** and **happiness** together explained 4 % of the variance in academic achievement.

Therefore it can be assumed that sense of **responsibility** contributes 1% more to the variance in academic achievement already explained by **happiness**. The F value was 11.05;  $p < 0.01$ .

The values which were taken up in the regression analysis as well as the order in which they were taken up, appear in table 6.19.

6.9.1/...

These values were: happiness; sense of responsibility; wealth; salvation; ambition; exciting life; friendship; courage; love; obedience and honesty. Jointly these variables explained 8% of the variance in academic achievement. Values which did not contribute significantly to the variance in academic achievement were not taken up in the regression analysis.

**TABLE 6.19 Regression Analysis: Relationship between choice of Values and Academic Achievement:**

Step	Variable Entered	Model R **2	F	Prob> F
1	Happiness	0.03	F(1,502) = 17,8	p<0.01
2	Sense of Responsibility	0.04	F(2,501) = 11,85	p<0.01
3	Wealth	0.05	F(3,500) = 9,95	p<0.01
4	Salvation	0.06	F(4,499) = 8,56	p<0.01
5	Ambition	0.06	F(5,498) = 7,33	p<0.01
6	Exciting Life	0.07	F(6,497) = 6,53	p<0.01
7	Friendship	0.07	F(7,496) = 5,85	p<0.01
8	Courage	0.08	F(8,495) = 5,38	p<0.01
9	Love	0.08	F(9,494) = 4,93	p<0.01
10	Obedience	0.08	F(10,495) = 4,52	p<0.01
11	Honesty	0.08	F(11,492) = 4,15	p<0.01

**6.10 PROPORTION OF THE VARIANCE IN ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT EXPLAINED BY CERTAIN PREDICTOR VARIABLES - PARENT QUESTIONNAIRE.**

An intercorrelational matrix (see table 6.20) shows the relationship between academic achievement of the pupils, and: a) parent involvement, b) parent leadership, c) parent discipline, as calculated by processing data gathered from the parent questionnaires.

6.10/...

To test the following hypotheses: a) There is no correlation between the extent of parent involvement and academic achievement of secondary school pupils; b) There is no correlation between parent leadership ability and academic achievement of secondary school pupils; c) There is no correlation between the parents' method of discipline and academic achievement, Pearson Product-Moment correlation was calculated to establish whether academic achievement of secondary school pupils relate to the above mentioned variables.

From the matrix can be seen that there is no correlation between the above mentioned variables and academic achievement.

For parent involvement  $r^2 = -0.03$  with  $p > 0.05$ ; for parent leadership  $r^2 = -0.00$  with  $p > 0.05$  and for parent discipline,  $r^2 = 0.03$  with  $p > 0.05$  indicating that the null hypothesis cannot be rejected.

**TABLE 6.20 Intercorrelational matrix indicating the relationship between the influence of the parent and academic achievement.**

<b>PARENT</b>	<b>Involvement</b>	<b>Leadership</b>	<b>Discipline</b>
	$r^2 = -0.03$	$r^2 = -0.01$	$r^2 = 0.03$
<b>Achievement</b>	$p > 0.05$	$p > 0.05$	$p > 0.05$
	N=218	N=212	N=212

#### 6.11 **THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PARENTAL CHOICE OF VALUES AND ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT**

Pearson Product-Moment correlation was used to determine the relationship between the values the **parent** regarded as important and the academic achievement of their children. Each value was considered individually.

The  $r$ -values (see table 6.21) all indicate that there is no significant correlation between choice of parental values and academic achievement. Items 53 and 60 show a negative correlation. For item 53,  $r^2 = -0.12$  with  $p > 0.05$  indicates that the importance attached by parents to **excellence in sports and games** negatively relates to academic achievement among secondary school pupils. However the correlation is very low and not significant.

For item 60,  $r^2 = -0.22$  with  $p < 0.01$ ; indicating a negative correlation between the importance attached to **popularity** and academic achievement.

**TABLE 6.21 - Intercorrelational matrix indicating the relationship between parental values and academic achievement**

	<b>Independent thought</b>	<b>Obedience</b>	<b>Cleanliness</b>	<b>Sport</b>	<b>Honesty</b>
	$r^2=0.16$	$r^2=0.01$	$r^2=0.01$	$r^2= -0.12$	$r^2=0.12$
<b>Achievement</b>	$p>0.01$	$p>0.05$	$p>0.05$	$p>0.05$	$p>0.05$
	N=215	N=215	N=215	N=215	N=215

	<b>Independent action</b>	<b>Happiness</b>	<b>Helpfulness</b>	<b>Imagination</b>
	$r^2=0.16$	$r^2=0.02$	$r^2= -0.003$	$r^2= 0.07$
<b>Achievement</b>	$p>0.01$	$p>0.05$	$p>0.05$	$p>0.05$
	N=216	N=216	N=216	N=216

	<b>Ambition</b>	<b>Popularity</b>	<b>Responsibility</b>	<b>Well-mannered</b>
	$r^2=0.04$	$r^2=0.22$	$r^2= 0.07$	$r^2= 0.00$
<b>Achievement</b>	$p>0.05$	$p<0.01$	$p>0.05$	$p>0.05$
	N=216	N=216	N=216	N=216

	<b>Salvation</b>	<b>Wisdom</b>	<b>Comfortable life</b>
	$r^2=0.07$	$r^2= -0.03$	$r^2= -0.13$
<b>Achievement</b>	$p>0.05$	$p>0.01$	$p>0.05$
	N=216	N=215	N=215

6.12 **REGRESSION ANALYSIS INDICATING THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PARENT VALUES AND ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT.**

A regression analysis was done in order to establish whether all the values chosen by parents jointly relate to academic achievement.

6.12.1 **Summary of regression analysis of the relationship between choice of Parental values and academic achievement**

Only those values which contribute to the variance in academic achievement were included in the summary.

Popularity accounts for 4% of the variance in academic achievement. The correlation between popularity and academic achievement is a negative one, that is, the more parents value popularity, the less successful the pupil was academically.

The values, popularity and independence, explained 7% of the variance in academic achievement. The values chosen by parents: independent thought and action; popularity; excellence in sport; honesty; happiness; well-mannered; sense of responsibility, explain 10% of the variance in academic achievement. (Refer Table 6.22).

The values which made no contribution in explaining the variance in the childrens' academic achievement, were not taken up in the regression analysis.

**TABLE 6.22 Regression Analysis - The relationship between the choice of Parental Values and Academic Achievement.**

Step	Variable Entered	Model R **2	F		Prob> F
1	Popularity	0.0474	F(1,212)	= 10,55	p<0.01
2	Independent action	0.0751	F(2,211)	= 8,57	p<0.01
3	Independent thought	0.0859	F(3,210)	= 6,57	p<0.01
4	Excellence in sport	0.0917	F(4,209)	= 5,27	p<0.01
5	Honesty	0.0971	F(5,208)	= 4,47	p<0.01
6	Well-mannered	0.1003	F(6,207)	= 3,85	p<0.01
7	Happiness	0.1035	F(7,206)	= 3,40	p<0.01
8	Sense of Responsibility	0.1057	F(8,205)	= 3,03	p<0.01

**6.12.2 Summary of Regression Analysis of how all variables collectively might influence academic achievement**

A Regression Analysis was done using the following variables as independent variables:

Age of pupil

Cultural group, that is, White English; White Afrikaans; Tswana

Indian English

Marital status of parents

Educational status of father/mother

Father involvement/leadership/discipline }

Mother involvement/leadership/discipline } (pupil questionnaire)

Parent involvement/leadership/discipline } (parent questionnaire)

Values of pupils

Values of parents

The dependent variable was the academic achievement of secondary school pupils.

From the summary of the regression analysis it can be concluded that 43% of the variance in academic achievement can be attributed to the above listed independent variables.

**TABLE 6.23 Regression Analysis - Summary of independent variables  
contributing to the variance in academic achievement.**

<b>Step</b>	<b>Variable Entered</b>	<b>Model R**2</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>Prob&gt;F</b>
1	Parent Value (Popularity)	0.1082	F(1,159) = 19.29	p<0.01
2	Father leadership	0.1730	F(2,158) = 16.52	p<0.01
3	Boy / Girl	0.2112	F(3,157) = 14.01	p<0.01
4	Pupil Value (Sense of Responsibility)	0.2419	F(4,156) = 12.44	p<0.01
5	Parent Value (Comfortable life)	0.2670	F(5,155) = 11.29	p<0.01
6	Pupil Value (Obedience)	0.2871	F(6,154) = 10.34	p<0.01
7	Parent Value (Independent thought)	0.3070	F(7,153) = 9.68	p<0.01
8	Pupil Value (Friendship)	0.3209	F(8,152) = 8.98	p<0.01
9	Mother leadership	0.3343	F(9,151) = 8.42	p<0.01
10	Father Involvement	0.3464	F(10,150) = 7.95	p<0.01
11	Marital Status	0.3552	F(11,149) = 7.46	p<0.01
12	Pupil Value (Freedom)	0.3649	F(12,148) = 7.09	p<0.01
13	Pupil Value (Honesty)	0.3723	F(13,147) = 6.71	p<0.01
14	Father's Work hours	0.3790	F(14,146) = 6.37	p<0.01
15	Pupil Value (Helpfulness)	0.3855	F(15,145) = 6.06	p<0.01
16	Father Discipline	0.3906	F(16,144) = 5.77	p<0.01
17	Parent Value (Happiness)	0.3957	F(17,143) = 5.51	p<0.01
18	Father Occupation	0.3998	F(18,142) = 5.25	p<0.01
19	Mother Occupation	0.4077	F(19,141) = 5.11	p<0.01
20	Parent Value (independent action)	0.4130	F(20,140) = 4.92	p<0.01
21	Parent Value (wisdom)	0.4177	F(21,139) = 4.75	p<0.01
22	Parent Value (Helpfulness)	0.4220	F(22,138) = 4.58	p<0.01
23	Pupil Value (Happiness)	0.4257	F(23,137) = 4.42	p<0.01
24	Mother Involvement	0.4289	F(24,136) = 4.26	p<0.01
25	Pupil Value (Wealth)	0.4309	F(25,135) = 4.09	p<0.01
26	Pupil Value (Popularity)	0.4345	F(26,134) = 3.96	p<0.01

## 6.13 CONCLUSION

This chapter was concerned with the processing and interpretation of data collected from questionnaires distributed among standard eight pupils and their parents of different cultural backgrounds.

An item analysis was done to determine whether the items contributed to the total of each section of the questionnaires. Some items were omitted because they showed a low correlation, or correlated negatively with the total.

No relationship was found between:

- parental and pupil values as a whole, and academic achievement.
- father and mother leadership and academic achievement,
- mother's methods of discipline.

Low (significant) positive correlations were found between:

- father's methods of discipline and academic achievement,
- the extent of father involvement and academic achievement,
- mother involvement and academic achievement.

Low negative correlations were found between the values:

- excellence in sports and games and academic achievement,
- popularity and academic achievement.

Values which the children in this study have chosen, explain a small percentage (4%) of the variance of their achievement. These values are: happiness; sense of responsibility; wealth; salvation; ambition; exciting life; friendship; courage; love; obedience and honesty.

Values which the parents in this study have chosen, also explain a percentage (10%) of the variance in the academic achievement of secondary school pupils. These values are: independent thought and action; popularity; excellence in sport; honesty; happiness; to be well-mannered; a sense of responsibility.

The following variables: popularity (parent value); father leadership; sex of pupil; sense of responsibility (pupil value); comfortable life (parent value); obedience (pupil value); independent thought and action (parent value); friendship (pupil value); mother leadership; father involvement; marital status; freedom (pupil value); honesty (pupil value); father's working hours; helpfulness (pupil value); father discipline; happiness (parent value); father occupation; mother occupation; wisdom (parent value); helpfulness (parent value); happiness (pupil value); mother involvement; wealth (pupil value); popularity (pupil value), explain 43% of the variance of academic achievement of secondary school pupils.

This chapter attempted to explain the sample, collection and processing of data.

6.13/...

The final chapter (chapter 7) includes findings of the literature study and the empirical study, as well as aspects which need to be addressed and recommendations which arise from this study.

## **CHAPTER SEVEN**

### **SYNOPSIS OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

#### **7.1 INTRODUCTION**

This, the final chapter of the study into parental discipline, values and involvement will include a synopsis of the findings from the literature investigation; findings from the empirical investigation and those problems not addressed but which in the opinion of the researcher need further investigation.

The researcher has also, in this chapter, attempted to list those questions which have arisen from this study and suggests that perhaps an exploration of these aspects may further help to explain why average to above average pupils underachieve.

#### **7.2 SYNOPSIS OF FINDINGS**

##### **7.2.1 Findings from the Literature Investigation**

###### **7.2.1.1 Discipline**

As mentioned in the chapters which deal with the above aspects, previous research has indicated a relationship between how the parent approaches discipline and how the child approaches academic activities.

Baumrind, in her extensive research, has identified three major approaches to discipline, namely, authoritative, authoritarian and permissive discipline.

###### **7.2.1.2 Father Involvement**

The nuclear family consisting of a father and a mother, is being undermined by changing social practices.

Several research projects have indicated that the absence of the father or a father who is uninvolved in the life of his child, has an effect on the academic achievement of the secondary school pupil.

### 7.2.1.3 Choice of Values

Another important aspect which may influence academic achievement, may be the choice of values in the home. Extensive past research has indicated a correlation between choice of values in the home and academic achievement of secondary school pupils.

However, research has also highlighted the difficulties inherent in the study of the influence of values on achievement which makes it very difficult to establish a definite relationship between choice of values and academic achievement.

### 7.2.2 Findings from the empirical investigation

No significant correlations were found between parental and pupil values and academic achievement.

There are also no significant correlations between academic achievement as the dependent variable and parental involvement, leadership and discipline as independent variables.

However, although each variable processed individually does not significantly influence academic achievement, the variables taken altogether can explain 43% of the variance in academic achievement.

Therefore, 57% of the variance must be explained by factors not measured here.

## 7.3 CONCLUSIONS

This study suggests that father discipline involvement, leadership and choice of values could partially explain the variance in academic achievement.

However, from the sample used, it appears that there is no really significant relationship between the independent variables and academic achievement.

Although other factors such as intelligence and aptitude could explain these variances, the investigator was concerned with the frequent underachievement of **average to above average** pupils. Therefore although pupils may have a high intellectual ability, they still underachieve academically. Intelligence does not therefore explain academic achievement in all cases.

Another question to be explored is the development of **aptitude and interest**. Once again the question of "nature or nurture" arises.

7.3/...

Does parent involvement not influence the development of interest and aptitude?

An example might perhaps be Mozart who was strongly influenced by his father. His father was a significant figure in Mozart's life with regard to his musical ability. Would his musical achievements have materialised if his father had not been encouraging and involved in his son's life?

#### 7.4 **LIMITATIONS OF THIS STUDY**

The questionnaire, although an inexpensive means of acquiring a great volume of information, may pose several minor problems.

1. Respondents do not always follow instructions, causing many questionnaires to be rejected.
2. Questionnaires are not always completed. Respondents select questions which they prefer to answer and ignore others.
3. Many questionnaires are not returned.
4. Another problem which may arise, is where the pupil completes the parents' questionnaire instead of taking it home.
5. Many parents in the Tswana community had to be reassured as to the reasons for the distribution of the questionnaire as they viewed it with a great deal of suspicion.
6. Many of the respondents had very basic literacy levels and were inexperienced regarding the completion of questionnaires.

#### 7.5 **RECOMMENDATIONS**

With regard to the problems encountered with the completion of the questionnaire, it is suggested that the questionnaire be completed in the presence of the compiler of the questionnaire.

Values could be accompanied by a definition of each, to counter any variation of interpretation thereof.

Perhaps a more detailed investigation into the influence of the choice of values on an individual's and family's life goals, is necessary.

7.5/....

The investigator recommends that the following questions regarding the underachievement among average to above average secondary school pupils be explored:

- a) The relevance of material used in the curriculum
- b) The rigorous authoritarian discipline used in many South African schools
- c) The relevance of the choice of subjects offered in South African schools.
- d) The relationship between teachers and parents as educators of secondary school pupils.
- e) Goals (if any) which secondary school pupils have set themselves.
- f) Why underachievement occurs more frequently among boys than girls.
- g) The differences in attitudes towards discipline, parental involvement, choice of values and the father's position in the family, in the various culture groups.
- h) The discrepancy between parents' and their children's attitudes to discipline, parental involvement, choice of values and the father's role in the family.

#### 7.6 **FINAL REMARKS**

There is a global apathy among the youth towards the society of their parents, with unemployment, broken marriages and homes and disregard for honesty on the increase.

Perhaps a refocussing on these aspects by adults, will serve as motivation towards a meaningful existence among the youth.

Until then, however, we continue to search for answers to academic questions.

## Appendix I

Dear Pupil

I am currently engaged in a study to find out why some pupils seem to do well at school and are happy, while others constantly do badly and are unhappy at school.

You could provide valuable information concerning this problem, by completing this questionnaire. It should take only a few minutes of your time and your co-operation would be greatly appreciated.

Thank you.

It would be appreciated if you could consider the following before you start:

1. There are no right or wrong answers.
2. Please respond to **ALL** statements by entering the relevant code number which is next to the statement you have selected, in the block provided.
3. The information obtained from this questionnaire **will remain confidential** as you remain anonymous.

**SECTION A**

Supply the following particulars regarding yourself by filling in the number next to the statement which you have selected, in the block provided.

1.	Male Female	1 2	----(c01)
2.	Age :	Between 12 - 14 Between 15 - 18 Over 18	1 2 3 ----(c02)
3.	Home Language	English Afrikaans English / Afrikaans Tswana Other	1 2 3 4 5 ----(c03)
4.	Parents marital status	Married Divorced but not remarried Divorced and remarried Never been married Mother widowed Father widowed Mother widowed and remarried Father widowed and remarried Parents separated, not divorced	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 ----(c04)
5.	Father's Occupation	Artisan (skilled worker) Clerical Business Management Professional Technical Self-employed Other Unemployed Father-absent home	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 ----(c05)

6.	Mother's Occupation	Artisan (skilled worker)	1	----(c06)
		Clerical/secretarial	2	
		Business management	3	
		Professional	4	
		Self-employed	5	
		Homemaker/housewife	6	
		Other	7	
		Unemployed/no source of income	8	
		Mother-absent home	9	
7.	Your average symbols or marks in the last report you received :			
	<u>Marks</u>	<u>Symbol</u>		
	0 - 29	H	1	
	30 - 34	G	2	
	35 - 39	F	3	
	40 - 49	E	4	
	50 - 59	D	5	----(C07)
	60 - 69	C	6	
	70 - 79	B	7	
	80 - 89	A	8	
	90 - 100	A+	9	

## **SECTION B**

Consider each statement carefully and answer as honestly as you can. Indicate your preference by means of the code number indicated on the scale. Place the code numbers for mother and father living in the home, in the blocks next to the statement.

### **CODE**

- Never - 1  
 Rarely - 2  
 Frequently - 3  
 Always - 4  
 Not applicable - 5 (where mother or father is absent from the home)

		Father	Mother	
1.	My ..... simply tells me what to do and does not listen to how I feel.			(c08) (c09)
2.	My ..... disagrees with my other parent about what I may or may not do.			(c10) (c11)

**CODE**

Never	-	1
Rarely	-	2
Frequently	-	3
Always	-	4
Not applicable	-	5 (where mother or father is absent from the home)

		Father	Mother	
3.	My ..... expects me to help with household duties.			(c12) (c13)
4.	My ..... makes the final decisions about whether I may go out.			(c14) (c15)
5.	My ..... praises and encourages me when I do well at school.			(c16) (c17)
6.	My ..... consults me when making major decisions which are likely to affect me.			(c18) (c19)
7.	My ..... simply expects me to do what ..... tells me to do and is not prepared to hear my opinion about it.			(c20) (c21)
8.	My ..... punishes me when I do something wrong.			(c22) (c23)
9.	I have discussions with my ..... about things that worry me.			(c24) (c25)
10.	My ..... wants to know where I'm going before ..... allows me to go anywhere.			(c26) (c27)
11.	I have opportunities to make decisions, but my ..... has the final word			(c28) (c29)
12.	When my parents disagree with each other about what I am allowed to do, my ..... makes the final decision.			(c30) (c31)
13.	My ..... explains the reason for rules and decisions which he/she makes.			(c32) (c33)
14.	My ..... wants to know who I am going to be with when I go out.			(c34) (c35)

**CODE**

- Never - 1  
 Rarely - 2  
 Frequently - 3  
 Always - 4  
 Not applicable - 5 (where mother or father is absent from the home)

		Father	Mother	
15.	My ..... listens to me, but makes the final decision him/herself.			(c36) (c37)
16.	My ..... nags or scolds me when ..... is angry with me.			(c38) (c39)
17.	My ..... does not allow me to go to places where there is no adult supervision.			(c40) (c41)
18.	My ..... keeps close track of how well I am doing at school.			(c42) (c43)
19.	I can do what I want, regardless of what my ..... thinks.			(c44) (c45)
20.	I can confide in my ..... about anything.			(c46) (c47)
21.	My ..... consults my other parent as to whether to allow me to go out.			(c48) (c49)
22.	My ..... asks me questions about how I am doing at school.			(c50) (c51)
23.	My ..... slaps or spansks me when ..... is angry with me.			(c52) (c53)
24.	I spend time talking to my ..... about personal experiences.			(c54) (c55)
25.	My ..... cares about what I do.			(c56) (c57)

**CODE**

- Never - 1  
 Rarely - 2  
 Frequently - 3  
 Always - 4  
 Not applicable - 5 (where mother or father is absent from the home)

		Father	Mother	
26.	My ..... leaves my punishment for misbehaviour to my other parent.			(c58) (c59)
27.	My ..... backs my other parent's decisions.			(c60) (c61)
28.	I have discussions with my ..... about things that confuse me.			(c62) (c63)
29.	My ..... makes the final decisions about whether I may visit friends at night.			(c64) (c65)
30.	If I have a problem, I discuss it with my .....			(c66) (c67)

Evaluate the importance in your life of the following statements/words by filling in a code between one and four, in the blocks provided :

**CODE**

1. Of no importance at all
2. Of very little importance
3. Quite important
4. Extremely important

31.	Happiness		(c68)
32.	Obedience		(c69)
33.	Sense of Responsibility		(c70)
34.	Popularity		(c71)
35.	Honesty		(c72)
36.	Courage		(c73)
37.	Helpfulness		(c74)
38.	Wealth		(c75)

**CODE**

1. Of no importance at all
2. Of very little importance
3. Quite important
4. Extremely important

39.	An exciting life		(c76)
40.	Education		(c77)
41.	Freedom		(c78)
42.	Friendship		(c79)
43.	Self-respect		(c80)
44.	Love		(c01)
45.	Ambition		(c02)
46.	Salvation (eternal life)		(c03)

Dear Sir/Madam

I am currently engaged in research concerning the relationship between the family structure, discipline and academic achievement of secondary school pupils.

You could provide valuable information with regard to research on this subject. Your co-operation in completing this questionnaire would be greatly appreciated. It should only take a few minutes of your time.

Thank you kindly.

It would be appreciated if you could consider the following before you start:

1. There are no right or wrong answers.
2. In a two-parent family, it would be appreciated if the parent responding to the questionnaire could do so in the presence of the spouse.
3. Please respond to **ALL** statements by entering the relevant code in the block next to the statement.
4. The information obtained from this investigation **will remain confidential**.
5. Please bear the age-group of the child who brought you this questionnaire in mind when responding to section B.
6. Please return this questionnaire with your child to the school, where it will be collected by the researcher.
7. All questionnaires must please be returned by
8. Name and address of questionnaire compiler.

Mrs C Rosa  
Grenville High School  
RUSTENBURG

Tel: (0142) 24151 (H)  
(0142) 20344 (W)

## **SECTION A**

Please supply the following particulars regarding yourself by filling in the code number in the block provided.

1.	The person completing this questionnaire :	Father Mother Both	1 2 3	----(c04)
2.	Marital Status	Married (First marriage) Divorced and not remarried Divorced and remarried Widowed and remarried Widowed Never married Separated	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	----(c05)
3.	Highest education qualification: Father	Less than std 10 Std 8 plus technical college/ trade training Std 10 College certificate/diploma - (3 or 4 years) University degree Post-graduate qualifications	1 2 3 4 5 6	----(c06)
	Mother	Less than std 10 Std 8 plus technical/secretarial college/trade training Std 10 College certificate/diploma (3 or 4 years) University degree Post-graduate qualification	1 2 3 4 5 6	----(c07)

5.	Occupation Father	Artisan Clerical Business Management Professional Self-employed Technical Other None Father-absent home	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	----(c09)
	Mother	Artisan Clerical / Secretarial Business Management Professional Self-employed Homemaker (housewife) Other None Mother-absent home	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	----(c10)
6.	Parents' working hours Father	More than 60 hours per week Between 40-59 hours per week Between 20-39 hours per week Less than 20 hours per week Father-absent home	1 2 3 4 5	----(c11)
	Mother	More than 60 hours per week Between 40-59 hours per week Between 20-39 hours per week Less than 20 hours per week Mother-absent home	1 2 3 4 5	----(c12)
7.	Age of secondary school child who brought you this questionnaire :			
	- Boy	Between 12 - 14 Between 15 - 18 Over 18	1 2 3	----(c13)
	- Girl	Between 12 - 14 Between 15 - 18 Over 18	1 2 3	----(c14)

<b>8. Average symbols or marks of child who brought you this questionnaire :</b>				
<b>- Boy</b>	<u>Marks</u>	<u>Symbol</u>		----(C15)
	0 - 29	H	1	
	30 - 34	G	2	
	35 - 39	F	3	
	40 - 49	E	4	
	50 - 59	D	5	
	60 - 69	C	6	
	70 - 79	B	7	
	80 - 89	A	8	
90 - 100	A+	9		
<b>- Girl</b>	<u>Marks</u>	<u>Symbol</u>		----(C16)
	0 - 29	H	1	
	30 - 34	G	2	
	35 - 39	F	3	
	40 - 49	E	4	
	50 - 59	D	5	
	60 - 69	C	6	
	70 - 79	B	7	
	80 - 89	A	8	
90 - 100	A+	9		
<b>9. Parental educational ideals for the child who brought you this questionnaire:</b>				
<b>Father for : - Boy</b>	Secondary education (up to std 9)		1	----(c17)
	Matric		2	
	Trade/secretarial		3	
	College/University		4	
	Other		5	
	None		6	
<b>- Girl</b>	Secondary education (up to std 9)		1	----(c18)
	Matric		2	
	Trade/secretarial		3	
	College/University		4	
	Other		5	
	None		6	

Mother for : - Boy	Secondary education (up to std 9)	1	----(c19)
	Matric	2	
	Trade/secretarial	3	
	College/University	4	
	Other	5	
	None	6	
- Girl	Secondary education (up to std 9)	1	----(c20)
	Matric	2	
	Trade/secretarial	3	
	College/University	4	
	Other	5	
	None	6	

### **SECTION B**

Consider each statement carefully and answer as frankly as you can.

Indicate your preference by means of the code number indicated in the scale. Place the code number in the block next to the statement.

#### **CODE**

- Strongly disagree      1  
 Disagree                      2  
 Agree                              3  
 Strongly agree              4

<input type="checkbox"/>	1.	A parent should keep close track of where the teenager is, irrespective of the age of the child.	(c21)
	2. <del>X</del>	Parents should insist on complete conformity to school rules.	(c22)
<input type="checkbox"/>	3.	A teenager should be rewarded for duties well done.	(c23)
	4. <del>X</del>	A teenager should never argue with an adult.	(c24)
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	5.	A parent should be entitled to decide on curfews when teenagers go out at night.	(c25)

**CODE**

Strongly disagree 1  
Disagree 2  
Agree 3  
Strongly agree 4

<input type="checkbox"/>	6.	The parent should monitor the child's attitude to school very closely.	(c26)
<input type="checkbox"/>	7.	A parent should have the final say in what a teenager wears.	(c27)
<input type="checkbox"/>	8.	A parent should encourage teenagers to participate in extra mural activities.	(c28)
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	9.	A teenager must, at all times, ask parents for permission to go out.	(c29)
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	10.	A parent should explain reasons for the punishment of the teenager.	(c30)
<input type="checkbox"/>	11.	A teenager should be allowed to make his/her own subject choices.	(c31)
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	12.	A parent should have the power to veto a teenager's choice of friends.	(c32)
<input type="checkbox"/>	13.	A teenager should be given as much freedom as he/she wants.	(c33)
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	14.	The parent may deprive the teenager of something when he/she misbehaves.	(c34)
<input type="checkbox"/>	15.	A parent is entitled to insist on the selection of subjects which he/she thinks is best for the child.	(c35)
<input type="checkbox"/>	16.	Teenagers should be allocated specific household duties.	(c36)
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	17.	A teenager should be spanked if he/she misbehaves.	(c37)
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	18.	Parents should assist teenagers with homework.	(c38)

**CODE**

Strongly disagree 1  
Disagree 2  
Agree 3  
Strongly agree 4

19.	A teenager should never question the parent's judgement/decision.		(c39)
20.	It is only necessary for the teenager to inform the parent of his/her plans and not necessary to ask for permission.		(c40)
21. X	Parents should insist on their teenagers attending after-school functions.		(c41)
22.	A teenager should be limited in his/her decision-making.		(c42)
23.	Parents are entitled to insist that the teenager achieves good academic grades		(c43)
24.	A teenager should be given total freedom to make his/her own decisions about his daily routine.		(c44)
25.	Parents should insist on complete conformity to the school's code of dress.		(c45)
26. X	Parents should check that homework has been done.		(c46)
27. X	A teenager must be allowed to participate in making family decisions.		(c47)
28.	Parents should attend the teenager's extra mural activities.		(c48)
29.	A teenager should be given pocket money on a regular basis.		(c49)
30. X	Parents should discuss school matters with the child every day.		(c50)
<del>31.</del>	My spouse is as involved as I am in our child's activities.		(c51)

**CODE**

Strongly disagree	1
Disagree	2
Agree	3
Strongly agree	4

32.	I should attend our child's school activities regularly.	(c52)
33.	My spouse has the final say in granting permission to our child's requests.	(c53)
34.	It is a joint parental responsibility to see that the child has done his/her homework.	(c54)
35.	My spouse attends our child's school activities.	(c55)
36.	My spouse spends time helping our child further his/her interest in his/her hobby.	(c56)
37.	I have a right to contradict decisions made by my spouse regarding the punishment of misbehaviour.	(c57)
38.	My spouse shows no interest in the activities of our child.	(c58)
39.	My spouse and I agree about what we expect our child to achieve at school.	(c59)
40.	My spouse and I share the role of head of the house.	(c60)
41.	My spouse and I spend an equal number of hours with our child every day.	(c61)
42.	My spouse and I agree on the values we strive for in our home.	(c62)
43.	My spouse discusses topics of interests with our child.	(c63)
44.	It is my spouse's responsibility to mete out necessary punishment for misbehaviour.	(c64)

**CODE**

Strongly disagree 1  
Disagree 2  
Agree 3  
Strongly agree 4

45.	My spouse spends no time with the child.		(c65)
46.	It is my spouse's responsibility to see that the child has done his/her homework.		(c66)
47.	My spouse has the final say in the discipline of our child.		(c67)
48.	My spouse and I agree on the ideals we share for our child's future.		(c68)
49.	I regard my spouse as the head of the home.		(c69)

Evaluate according to the scale from one to four, how important you feel the following values are for your children to have/be.

**CODE**

Of no importance at all 1  
Of very little importance 2  
Of moderate importance 3  
Extremely important 4

50.	The ability to think independently		(c70)
51.	That he/she must be obedient at all times.		(c71)
52.	That my child should always be neat and clean		(c72)
53.	That my child should excel in sports and games.		(c73)
54.	That my child should always be honest.		(c74)
55.	The ability to act independently		(c75)
56.	Happiness		(c76)
57.	Helpfulness		(c77)
58.	Imagination		(c78)
59.	Ambition		(c79)

**CODE**

- Of no importance at all            1
- Of very little importance        2
- Of moderate importance         3
- Extremely important             4

60.	Popularity		(c80)
61.	Sense of responsibility		(c01)
62.	Well-mannered		(c02)
63.	Salvation (eternal life)		(c03)
64.	Wisdom		(c04)
65.	Comfortable life		(c05)

## Appendix 2

September 1993

Geagte leerling

Ek is tans besig met 'n studie om te bepaal waarom sommige leerlinge op skool presteer en gelukkig is terwyl ander voortdurend onder-presteer en ongelukkig voorkom.

Jy kan waardevolle inligting oor hierdie probleem verskaf deur hierdie vraelys te voltooi.

Dit behoort net 'n paar minute van jou tyd te neem en jou samewerking sal baie waardeer word.

Dit sal waardeer word indien jy op die volgende sal let voordat jy begin:

1. Daar is geen regte of verkeerde antwoorde nie.
2. Beantwoord asseblief **ALLE** vrae deur die toepaslike kodenommer wat langs die vraag wat jy gekies het, verskyn, in die blokkie te skryf.
3. Die inligting wat deur hierdie vraelys verskaf word, sal **vertroulik** bly.

## AFDELING A

Verskaf die onderstaande inligting omtrent jouself deur die nommer wat langs die stelling wat jy gekies het, in die blokkie te skryf.

1.	Manlik Vroulik		1 2	----(k01)
2.	Ouderdom :	Tussen 12 - 14 Tussen 15 - 18 Ouer as 18	1 2 3	----(k02)
3.	Huistaal :	Engels Afrikaans Engels/Afrikaans Tswana Ander	1 2 3 4 5	----(k03)
4.	Ouers se huwelikstaat :	Getroud Geskei maar nie weer getroud Geskei en weer getroud Nooit getroud Weduwee Wewenaar Weduwee weer getroud Wewenaar weer getroud Nie geskei nie, woon nie saam nie	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	----(k04)
5.	Vader se beroep :	Ambagsman Klerk Sake bestuur Professioneel Tegnies Eie besigheid Ander Werkloos Vader-afwesig	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	----(k05)

6.	Moder se beroep :	Ambagsvrou Klerk Sake bestuur Professioneel Tegnies Eie besigheid Ander Werkloos Moeder-afwesig	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	----(k06)
7.	Gemiddelde punte of symbool op die laaste rapport wat jy ontvang het :			
	<b><u>Punte</u></b>	<b><u>Symbool</u></b>		
	0 - 29	H	1	
	30 - 34	G	2	
	35 - 39	F	3	
	40 - 49	E	4	
	50 - 59	D	5	----(k07)
	60 - 69	C	6	
	70 - 79	B	7	
	80 - 89	A	8	
	90 - 100	A+	9	

## **AFDELING B**

Oorweeg elke stelling versigtig en beantwoord so eerlik as jy kan.

Dui jou keuse vir vader en moeder (wat in die huis bly) aan, deur die kodenommer soos op die skaal aangedui, in die blokkie te skryf.

Skryf die kodenommers vir moder en vader in die blokkies wat langs die vrae verskyn.

**KODE**

Nooit	1
Selde	2
Dikwels	3
Altyd	4
Nie van toepassing	5 (in die geval van moeder of vader afwesigheid)

		Vader	Moeder	
1.	My ..... vertel my eenvoudig wat ek moet doen en luister nooit hoe ek oor iets voel nie.			(k08) (k09)
2.	My ..... stem nie saam oor wat ek mag of nie mag doen nie.			(k10) (k11)
3.	My ..... verwag van my om met die huishoudelike take te help.			(k12) (k13)
4.	My ..... neem die finale besluit of ek mag uitgaan of nie.			(k14) (k15)
5.	My ..... prys en moedig my aan wanneer ek presteer op skool.			(k16) (k17)
6.	My ..... raadpleeg my wanneer belangrike besluite my waarskynlik sal affekteer.			(k18) (k19)
7.	My ..... verwag eenvoudig dat ek moet doen wat vir my voorskryf word en is nie bereid om na my mening te luister nie.			(k20) (k21)
8.	My ..... straf my as ek iets verkeerd doen.			(k22) (k23)
9.	Ek bespreek dinge wat my pla met my .....			(k24) (k25)
10.	My ..... wil altyd weet waarheen ek gaan voordat hy/sy my toelaat om uit te gaan.			(k26) (k27)
11.	Ek kry geleenthede om besluite te neem, maar my ..... neem die finale besluit.			(k28) (k29)

**KODE**

Nooit	1
Selde	2
Dikwels	3
Altyd	4
Nie van toepassing	5 (in die geval van moeder of vader afwesigheid)

12.	Wanneer my ouers met mekaar verskil oor wat ek toegelaat mag word, neem my ..... die finale besluit.			(k30) (k31)
13.	My ..... verduidelik die redes vir reels en beluie wat hy/sy neem.			(k32) (k33)
14.	My ..... wil weet met wie ek uitgaan.			(k34) (k35)
15.	My ..... luister na my, maar hy/sy neem die finale besluite.			(k36) (k37)
16.	My ..... neul en berispe my wanneer hy/sy vir my kwaad is.			(k38) (k39)
17.	My ..... laat my nie toe om na plekke te gaan waar daar nie volwasse toesig is nie.			(k40) (k41)
18.	My ..... monitor noukeurig hoe ek op skool vaar.			(k42) (k43)
19.	Ek kan doen net wat ek wil, ongeag wat my ..... dink.			(k44) (k45)
20.	Ek kan my ..... in my vertroue neem met enige probleem.			(k46) (k47)
21.	My ..... bespreek met my ander ouer of ek mag toegelaat word om uit te gaan.			(k48) (k49)
22.	My ..... vra my uit oor hoe dit met my op skool gaan.			(k50) (k51)
23.	My ..... slaan my wanneer hy/sy kwaad is vir my.			(k52) (k53)

**KODE**

Nooit	1
Selde	2
Dikwels	3
Altyd	4
Nie van toepassing	5 (in die geval van moeder of vader afwesigheid)

24.	Ek bestee tyd om met my ..... te gesels oor persoonlike ervarings.			(k54) (k55)
25.	My ..... gee om oor wat ek doen.			(k56) (k57)
26.	My ..... los my straf vir my ander ouer as ek volgens hulle, my sleg gedra.			(k58) (k59)
27.	My ..... steun my ander ouer se besluite.			(k60) (k61)
28.	Ek voer gesprekke met my ..... oor dinge wat my verwar.			(k62) (k63)
29.	My ..... neem die finale besluite oor of ek my vriende in die aand mag besoek.			(k64) (k65)
30.	As ek 'n probleem het, bespreek ek dit met my .....			(k66) (k67)

Evalueer die belangrikheid van die volgende stellings in jou lewe deur die kodenommer tussen een en vier, in die blokkie te skryf.

**KODE**

- 1 - Van geen belang nie
- 2 - Van min belang
- 3 - Nogal belangrik
- 4 - Uiteraars belangrik

31.	Geluk		(k68)
32.	Gehoorsaamheid		(k69)
33.	Sin vir verantwoordelikheid		(k70)
34.	Gewildheid		(k71)
35.	Eerlikheid		(k72)
36.	Dapperheid		(k73)

**KODE**

- 1 - Van geen belang nie
- 2 - Van min belang
- 3 - Nogal belangrik
- 4 - Uiters belangrik

37.	Behulpsaamheid		(k74)
38.	Rykdom		(k75)
39.	'n Opwindende lewe		(k76)
40.	Opvoeding		(k77)
41.	Vryheid		(k78)
42.	Vriendskap		(k79)
43.	Self-respek		(k80)
44.	Liefde		(k01)
45.	Ambisie		(k02)
46.	Verlossing/saligheid (ewige lewe)		(k03)

Geagte Meneer/Mevrou

Ek is tans besig met 'n ondersoek aangaande die verband tussen die gesinstruktuur, dissipline en akademiese prestasie van sekondere skool leerlinge.

U kan waardevolle inligting in die verband verskaf. U samewerking met die voltooiing van hierdie vraelys sal baie waardeer word. Dit behoort net 'n paar minute van u tyd in beslag te neem.

Dit sal waardeer word as u die volgende in ag sal neem voor u die vraelys voltooi:

1. Daar is geen regte of verkeerde antwoorde nie.
2. In die geval van 'n gesin wat uit albei ouers bestaan, sal dit waardeer word as die ouer wat hierdie vraelys voltooi, dit in die teenwoordigheid van die ander ouer sal voltooi.
3. Beantwoord asseblief **ALLE** vrae deur die geselekteerde kodenommer in die blokkie in te vul.
4. U antwoorde is **vertroulik** en word slegs vir navorsing gebruik.
5. Neem asseblief die ouderdomsgroep van die kind wat hierdie vraelys na u gebring het in ag wanneer u afdeling B beantwoord.
6. Stuur die vraelys met u kind terug skooltoe waar die navorser dit sal afhaal.
7. Dit sal waardeer word as u die vraelys nie later as \_\_\_\_\_ terugbesorg nie.
8. Naam en adres van saamsteller van hierdie vraelys.

Mev C Rosa

Hoërskool Grenville  
RUSTENBURG

Tel: (0142) 24151 (H)  
(0142) 20344 (W)

## AFDELING A

Verskaf asseblief die volgende inligting van uself deur die geselekteerde kodenommer in die blokkie te skryf.

1.	Die persoon wat hierdie vraelys voltooi :	Vader Moeder Albei	1 2 3	----(k04)
2.	Huwelikstatus :	Getroud (eerste huwelik) Geskei en nie weer getroud Geskei en weer getroud Weduwee / wewenaar - weer getroud Wewenaar / weduwee Nooit getroud nie Woon nie saam nie (nie geskei nie)	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	----(k05)
3.	Huistaal :	Engels Afrikaans Engels / Afrikaans Tswana Ander	1 2 3 4 5	----(k06)
4.	Hoogste akademiese Kwalifikasies :			
	- Vader	Minder as st 10 St 8 plus tegniese kollege/ vakleerlingskap Standerd 10 Kollege sertifikaat / diploma (3 of 4 jaar) Universiteitsgraad Nagraadse kwalifikasie	1 2 3 4 5 6	----(k07)
	- Moeder	Minder as st 10 St 8 plus tegniese /sekretarieel/ vakleerlingskap Standerd 10 Kollege sertifikaat / diploma (3 of 4 jaar) Universiteitsgraad Nagraadse kwalifikasie	1 2 3 4 5 6	----(k08)

5.	Beroep : - Vader	Ambagsman	1	----(k09)
		Klerk	2	
		Sake bestuur	3	
		Professioneel	4	
		Eie besigheid	5	
		Tegnies	6	
		Ander	7	
		Geen	8	
		Vader-afwesig	9	
	- Moeder	Ambagsman	1	----(k10)
		Klerk	2	
		Sake bestuur	3	
		Professioneel	4	
		Eie besigheid	5	
		Tegnies	6	
		Ander	7	
		Geen	8	
		Moeder-afwesig	9	
6.	Ouers se werksure : - Vader	Meer as 60 ure per week	1	----(k11)
		Tussen 40 - 59 ure per week	2	
		Tussen 20 - 39 ure per week	3	
		Minder as 20 ure per week	4	
		Vader-afwesig	5	
	- Moeder	Meer as 60 ure per week	1	----(k12)
		Tussen 40 - 59 ure per week	2	
		Tussen 20 - 39 ure per week	3	
		Minder as 20 ure per week	4	
		Moeder-afwesig	5	
7.	Ouderdom van hoerskoolleerling wat hierdie vraelys na u gebring het :			
	- Seun	Tussen 12 - 14	1	----(k13)
		Tussen 15 - 18	2	
		Ouer as 18	3	
	- Dogter	Tussen 12 - 14	1	----(k14)
		Tussen 15 - 18	2	
		Ouer as 18	3	

8. Gemiddelde simbool of punte van leerling wat hierdie vraelys gebring het :				
- Seun	<u>Punte</u>	<u>Simbool</u>		----(k15)
	0 - 29	H	1	
	30 - 34	G	2	
	35 - 39	F	3	
	40 - 49	E	4	
	50 - 59	D	5	
	60 - 69	C	6	
	70 - 79	B	7	
	80 - 89	A	8	
90 - 100	A+	9		
- Dogter	<u>Punte</u>	<u>Simbool</u>		----(k16)
	0 - 29	H	1	
	30 - 34	G	2	
	35 - 39	F	3	
	40 - 49	E	4	
	50 - 59	D	5	
	60 - 69	C	6	
	70 - 79	B	7	
	80 - 89	A	8	
90 - 100	A+	9		
9. Ouers se akademiese ideale vir die leerling wat hierdie vraelys na u gebring het :				
- Vader vir : Seun	Sekondere opvoeding (tot en met st. 9)		1	----(k17)
	Matriek		2	
	Ambag		3	
	Kollege / universiteit		4	
	Ander		5	
	Geen		6	
Dogter	Sekondere opvoeding (tot en met st. 9)		1	----(k18)
	Matriek		2	
	Ambag		3	
	Kollege / universiteit		4	
	Ander		5	
	Geen		6	

9.	- Moeder vir : Seun	Sekondere opvoeding (tot en met st. 9)	1	----(k19)
		Matriek	2	
		Ambag	3	
		Kollege / universiteit	4	
		Ander	5	
		Geen	6	
	Dogter	Sekondere opvoeding (tot en met st. 9)	1	----(k20)
		Matriek	2	
		Ambag	3	
		Kollege / universiteit	4	
		Ander	5	
		Geen	6	

### **AFDELING B**

Oorweeg elke stelling versigtig en beantwoord so eerlik moontlik.

Dui u keuse aan deur die kodenommer in die blokkie langs die stelling neer te skryf.

### **KODE**

- |                          |   |
|--------------------------|---|
| Stem beslis nie saam nie | 1 |
| Stem nie saam nie        | 2 |
| Stem in 'n mate saam     | 3 |
| Stem beslis saam         | 4 |

1.	'n Ouer moet altyd noukeurig let op waar die tiener is, ongeag die ouderdom van die kind.	(k21)
2.	Ouers moet aandring op algehele onderwerping aan skoolreels.	(k22)
3.	'n Tiener behoort beloon te word vir take wat goed gedoen is	(k23)
4.	'n Tiener behoort nooit tee te praat nie.	(k24)
5.	'n Ouer is geregtig om te besluit op die tyd wanneer die tiener tuis behoort te wees.	(k25)

**KODE**

Stem beslis nie saam nie	1
Stem nie saam nie	2
Stem in 'n mate saam	3
Stem beslis saam	4

6.	Die ouer behoort fyn op die kind se houding teenoor die skool te let.		(k26)
7.	Die ouer behoort die finale besluit te hê oor wat die tiener dra.		(k27)
8.	Ouers behoort die tiener aan te moedig om aan buitemuurse aktiwiteite deel te neem.		(k28)
9.	Die tiener behoort te alle tye die ouer toestemming te vra as hy/sy wil uitgaan.		(k29)
10.	'n Ouer behoort redes vir straf aan die tiener te verduidelik.		(k30)
11.	'n Tiener behoort toegelaat te word om sy/haar eie vakkeuses te maak.		(k31)
12.	Die ouer behoort die gesag te hê om 'n tiener se keuse van vriende te veto.		(k32)
13.	'n Tiener behoort soveel vryheid gegun te word as hy/sy wil hê.		(k33)
14.	'n Ouer mag iets van die tiener ontnem as hy/sy hom/haar sleg gedra.		(k34)
15.	Die ouer is geregtig daarop om aan te dring op die keuse van vakke wat hy/sy dink die beste vir die kind is.		(k35)
16.	Tieners behoort verantwoordelik te wees vir spesifieke huishoudelike take.		(k36)
17.	Die tiener behoort slae te kry as hy/sy hom sleg gedra.		(k37)

**KODE**

Stem beslis nie saam nie	1
Stem nie saam nie	2
Stem in 'n mate saam	3
Stem beslis saam	4

18.	Ouers behoort tieners met hul huiswerk behulpsaam te wees.	(k38)
19.	Die tiener behoort nooit die ouers se besluite te bevraagteken nie.	(k39)
20.	Dis net nodig vir die tiener om die ouers van sy/haar planne te verwittig, en nie nodig om ouers om toestemming te vra nie.	(k40)
21.	Ouers moet aandring op hul tieners se bywoning by naskoolse funksies.	(k41)
22.	Die tiener behoort beperk te word in sy/haar besluitneming.	(k42)
23.	Ouers is geregtig daarop om op goeie akademiese prestasie van hulle tieners aan te dring.	(k43)
24.	Die tiener behoort algehele vryheid te hê om sy/haar eie besluite te neem oor sy/haar daaglikse roetine.	(k44)
25.	Ouers behoort aan te dring by die tiener op algehele onderwerping aan die reëls van die skool met betrekking tot skooldrag.	(k45)
26.	Ouers moet toesien dat huiswerk gedoen is.	(46)
27.	Die tiener moet toegelaat word om deel te hê aan besluitneming oor familie-aangeleenthede.	(k47)
28.	Ouers behoort hul tieners se buitemuurse aktiwiteite by te woon.	(k48)
29.	Die tiener behoort gereeld sakgeld te ontvang.	(k49)

**KODE**

Stem beslis nie saam nie	1
Stem nie saam nie	2
Stem in 'n mate saam	3
Stem beslis saam	4

30.	Die ouers behoort elke dag skoolsake met die tiener te bespreek.	(k50)
31.	My eggenoot/eggenote is so betrokke soos ek met ons kind se aktiwiteite.	(k51)
32.	Ek woon my kind se skoolaktiwiteite by.	(k52)
33.	My eggenoot/eggenote het die finale sê om toestemming te verleen op ons kind se versoeke.	(k53)
34.	Dit is 'n gesamentlike ouerlike verantwoordelikheid om toe te sien dat die kind sy huiswerk doen.	(k54)
35.	My eggenoot/eggenote woon ons kind se skoolaktiwiteite by.	(k55)
36.	My eggenoot/eggenote bestee tyd met ons kind om hom/haar met sy/haar stokperdjie te help.	(k56)
37.	Ek is geregtig daarop om besluite wat deur my eggenoot/ eggenote ten opsigte van straf gemaak is, te bevraagteken	(k57)
38.	My eggenoot/eggenote toon geen belangstelling in die aktiwiteite van ons kind nie.	(k58)
39.	My eggenoot/eggenote en ek stem saam oor wat ons van ons kind op akademiese gebied, verwag.	(k59)
40.	My eggenoot/eggenote en ek deel die rol van hoof van die huis.	(k60)
41.	My eggenoot/eggenote en ek bring 'n gelyke aantal ure met ons kind deur.	(k61)

**KODE**

Stem beslis nie saam nie	1
Stem nie saam nie	2
Stem in 'n mate saam	3
Stem beslis saam	4

42.	My eggenoot/eggenote en ek stem saam oor die waardes waarna ons streef in ons huis.	(k62)
43.	My eggenoot/eggenote bespreek onderwerpe van belang met ons tiener.	(k63)
44.	Dit is die verantwoordelikheid van my eggenoot/eggenote om straf uit te deel vir slegte gedrag.	(k64)
45.	My eggenoot/eggenote bring geen tyd met ons kind deur nie.	(k65)
46.	Dit is die verantwoordelikheid van my eggenoot/eggenote om toe te sien dat ons kind sy/haar huiswerk doen.	(k66)
47.	My eggenoot/eggenote het die finale sê oor die dissiplinerings van ons kind.	(k67)
48.	My eggenoot/eggenote en ek stem saam oor ons ideale vir ons kind se toekoms.	(k68)
49.	Ek beskou my eggenoot/eggenote as die hoof van die gesin.	(k69)

Evalueer die belangrikheid, volgens u, van die volgende waardes in u kind se lewe deur die kode tussen een en vier wat u gekies het, in die blokkie langs die waarde te skryf.

**KODE**

Van geen belang nie	1
Van min belang	2
Nogal belangrik	3
Uiters belangrik	4

50.	Die vermoë om onafhanklik te dink.	(k70)
51.	Die tiener behoort te alle tye gehoorsaam te wees.	(k71)
52.	Die tiener behoort altyd netjies en skoon te wees.	(k72)

**KODE**

Van geen belang nie	1
Van min belang	2
Nogal belangrik	3
Uiters belangrik	4

53.	My kind moet in sport uitmuntend presteer.	(k73)
54.	My kind moet te alle tye eerlik wees.	(k74)
55.	Die vermoë om onafhanklik te handel.	(k75)
56.	Geluk.	(k76)
57.	Hulpvaardigheid	(k77)
58.	Die vermoë om die verbeelding te gebruik.	(k78)
59.	Ambisie	(k79)
60.	Gewildheid	(k80)
61.	Sin vir verantwoordelikheid	(k01)
62.	Beleefdheid.	(k02)
63.	Verlossing/saligheid (ewige lewe)	(k03)
64.	Wysheid	(k04)
65.	Gemaklike lewe.	(k05)

### Appendix 3

#### Moithuti

Ke dira tshekatsheko go batlisisa gore ke eng baithuti bangwe ba atlega, ba dira sentle e bile ba itumetse mme ba bangwe ba sa atlege, ba sa dire sentle e`bile ba sa itumela.

O ka nna le seabe mo bothateng jo, ka go araba dipotso tse di mo pampiring e e latelang. Di tla tsaya nako e e nnye ya gago. Tirisanommogo ya gago e bothokwa thata. Ke a leboga.

Go ka itumedisa thata fa o ka tlhokomela dintlha tse di latelang pele o simolola.

1. Ga go na dikarabo tse di siameng kgotsa tse di sa siamang.
2. Araba dipotso tsotlhe ka go kwala palo e e fa thoko ga tthagiso e o e tlhophileng, mo phatlheng e o e neetsweng.
3. Dintlha tse di tlhagelelang e tla nna sephiri le leina la gago ga le ne le tlhagelela.

## KAROLO A

Neela dikarabo tsa gago ka go tlatsa palo e e lebaganeng le karabo e o e tlhophileng.

1.	Monna Mosadi		1 2	----(c01)
2.	Dingwaga :	12 - 14 15 - 17 kwa godimo ga 18	1 2 3	----(c02)
3.	Puo :	English Afrikaans English / Afrikaans Tswana Tse dingwe	1 2 3 4 5	----(c03)
4.	Lenyalo la batsadi go ga ka molao			
		A o nyetswe/netse A o tlhadilwe, wa se ke nyala gape A o tlhadilwe wa nyala gape Ga o ise o nyale gotlhelele A o motlholagadi A o moswagadi A o motlholagadi mme o nyetswe gape A o moswagadi mme o nyetse gape Batsadi ba ba kgaoganeng	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	----(c04)
5.	Tiro Ya rre :	Tiro ya diatla Mokwaledi Motsamaisi wa kgwebo/Rrakgwebo Morutegi Botegeniki Go ipereka Tse dingwe Ga a dire Ga go na rre mo gae	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	----(c05)

6.	Tiro ya mme :	Tiro ya datla	1	----(c06)
		Mokwaledi	2	
		Mmakgwebo	3	
		Morutegi	4	
		Go ipereka	5	
		Mosalagae	6	
		Tse dingwe	7	
		Ga a dire/Ga go na letseno	8	
		Ga go na mme mo gae	9	
7.	Maduo a gago a dipholo tse o di boneng.			
	<u>Maduo</u>	<u>Maemo</u>		
	0 - 29	H	1	----(c07)
	30 - 34	G	2	
	35 - 39	F	3	
	40 - 49	E	4	
	50 - 59	D	5	
	60 - 69	C	6	
	70 - 79	B	7	
	80 - 89	A	8	
	90 - 100	A+	9	

## **KAROLO B**

Tlhokomela polelo nngwe le nngwe mme o arabe ka boikanyego jo bo kgonegang. Bontsha karabo ya gago ka go tlhopha palo mo go tse di neetsweng. Kwala palo eo ya ga mme le ya ga rre mo phatlheng e o e neetsweng fa thoko ga polelo.

### **PALO**

- Nyaa/le goka                    1  
 Sewelo                            2  
 Gantsi                            3  
 Dinako tsotlhe                4  
 Ga go kgonege                5 (fa mme kgotsa rre ba seyo mo gae).

		<b>RRE</b>	<b>MME</b>	
1.	..... o mpolelela fela gore ke dire eng mme ga a reetse maikutlo a me			(c08) (c09)
2.	..... o ganetsa le motsadi yo mongwe ka se nka se dirang kgotsa se ke sa se direng			(c10) (c11)

**PALO**

- Nyaa/le goka 1  
 Sewelo 2  
 Gantsi 3  
 Dinako tsotlhe 4  
 Ga go kgonege 5 (fa mme kgotsa rre ba seyo mo gae).

		RRE	MME	
3.	..... o solofela gore ke thuse ka tiro ya legae			(c12) (c13)
4.	..... o dira ditshwetso tsa gore a nka ya go itlhabisa phefo			(c14) (c15)
5.	..... o a mpoka e bile o a nthotloetsa fa ke dira sentle kwa sekolong.			(c16) (c17)
6.	..... o mpolelela fa a tsaya ditshwetso tsa ditong tse di nkamang.			(c18) (c19)
7.	..... o solofela gore ke dire se a se mpolelelang mme ga a kgathalele ditshwaelo tsa me mabapi le seo.			(c20) (c21)
8.	..... o a nkotlhaya fa ke dirile phoso.			(c22) (c23)
9.	Ke buisana le ..... ka ga dilo tse di ntlhobaetsang			(c24) (c25)
10.	..... o batla go itse kwa ke yang teng pele a ntetlelela go tsamaya.			(c26) (c27)
11.	ke' na le tshono ya go dira ditshwetso fela ..... ke ena a di fetsang.			(c28) (c29)
12.	Fa batsadi ba me ba ganetsana ka se ke tshwanetseng go se dira ..... ke ena a di fetsang.			(c30) (c31)
13.	..... O ntlhalosetsa mabaka a ditshwetso tse a di tsayang			(c32) (c33)
14.	..... o batla go itse gore ke tla be ke na le mang fa ke ile go itlhabisa phefo.			(c34) (c35)
15.	..... o a nkutlwelela fela ke ena a fetsang dilo			(c36) (c37)

**PALO**

- Nyaa/le goka 1  
 Sewelo 2  
 Gantsi 3  
 Dinako tsotlhe 4  
 Ga go kgonege 5 (fa mme kgotsa rre ba seyo mo gae).

		RRE	MME	
16.	..... o a ngongorega e bile o a nkgalefela fa a nngaletse.			(c38) (c39)
17.	..... ga a ntetlelele go ya kwa ma felong a a se nang tlhokomelo ya bagolo			(c40) (c41)
18.	..... o tlhokomela ka moo ke dirang ka teng kwa sekolong			(c42) (c43)
19.	Ke kgona go dira se ke se batlang go sa tshwenye gore ..... o akanya eng.			(c44) (c45)
20.	Ke kgona go bulela ..... mafatlha mabapi le sengwe le sengwe.			(c46) (c47)
21.	..... o botsa motsadi wa me yo mongwe gore a nka ya go itlhabisa phefo			(c48) (c49)
22.	..... o mpotsa dipotso ka tsamaiso ya me ya sekolo.			(c50) (c51)
23.	..... o a mpetsa kgotsa o a nkotlhaya fa a tenegile.			(c52) (c53)
24.	Ke aga ke bolelela ..... ka ga maitemogelo a me a bophelo.			(c54) (c55)
25.	..... o kgatlhegela tse ke di dirang			(c56) (c57)
26.	..... o tlogelela matsadi yo mongwe go nkotlhaela diphoso.			(c58) (c59)
27.	..... o tlatsa ditshwetso tsa motsadi yo mongwe			(c60) (c61)

**PALO**

- Nyaa/le goka 1  
 Sewelo 2  
 Gantsi 3  
 Dinako tsotlhe 4  
 Ga go kgonege 5 (fa mme kgotsa rre ba seyo mo gae).

		RRE	MME	
28.	Ke buisana le ..... ka ga dilo tse di ntlhakanyang tlhogo.			(c62) (c63)
29.	..... o dira ditshwetsa tsa gore a nka etela ditsala bosigo.			(c64) (c65)
30.	Fa ke na le bothata ke bo sekaseka le			(c66) (c67)

Tlhotlhomisa boleng/mosola wa dintlha tse di latelang mo bophelong jwa gago ka go tlatsa palo nngwe ya tse nne tse o di neetsweng mo phatlheng e o e filweng:

**PALO**

- 1 - Ga se na mosola ope  
 2 - Se na le mosola o monnye  
 3 - Se mosola  
 4 - Se mosola thata

		RRE	MME	
31.	Boitumelo			(c68)
32.	Boikokobetso			(c69)
33.	Boikarabelo			(c70)
34.	Go itsege			(c71)
35.	Botshepegi			(c72)
36.	Boitshoko			(c73)
37.	Go thusa (bomosola)			(c74)
38.	Khumo			(c75)
39.	Bophelo jo bo itumedisang			(c76)
40.	Thuto			(c77)
41.	Kgololosego			(c78)

**PALO**

- 1 - Ga se na mosola ope
- 2 - Se na le mosola o monnye
- 3 - Se mosola
- 4 - Se mosola thata

		RRE	MME	
42.	Botsalano			(c79)
43.	Go itlhompha			(c80)
44.	Lerato			(c01)
45.	Keletso ya tswelelopele le katlego			(c02)
46.	Pholoso			(c03)

## Motsadi

Ke dira tshekatsheko ya go batlisisa kamano ya lelapa, boitsholo le katlego ya thirto mo baithuting ba dikolo tsa bogare.

O ka nna le seabe rro tshekatshekong e Tirisano mmogo ya gago mo drabeng dipotso tse di tla latelang e e ka itumedisa thata. Go tla go tsay nako e khutshwane ke a leboga.

Go ka itumedisa thata fa o ka tlhokomela dintlha tse di latelang pele o simolola.

1. Ga go na dikarabo tse disa siamang kgotsa tse di siameng.
2. Fa batsadi ba le teng botlhe, go ka itumedisa thata fa yo o arabang a dira mmogo le yo o sa arabeng.
3. Araba dipotso tsotlhe ka go kwala palo e e fa thoko ga tlhagiso e o e tlhophileng, mo phatlheng e o e neetsweng.
4. Dintlha tse di tlhagelelang e tla nna sephiri.
5. Fa o arabile dipotso, romela pampiri e ka ngwana ka gago.
6. Dipampiri tsotlhe fa di busiwa di romelwe ka
7. Leina le aterese tsa motho yo o batlisisang e leng.

Mrs C Rosa

Grenville High School

RUSTENBURG

(0142) 24151 (H)

(0142) 20344 (W)

**KAROLO A**

Neela dikarabo ka ga gago ka go tlatsa palo e e lebaganeng le karabo e o e tlhophileng.

1.	Motho yo o arabang :	Rre Mme Botlhe	1 2 3	(c04)
2.	Lenyalo :	A o nyetse/nyetswe (lenyalo la ntlha) A o tladile/tladilwe, wa se ke wa nyala gape A o tladile/tladilwe, wa nyala gape A o motlholagadi/moswagadi mme o setse o nyetse gape Motlholagadi/moswagadi A le kgaogane	1 2 3 4 5 6	(c05)
3.	Puo :	English Afrikaans English / Afrikaans Tswana Tse dingwe	1 2 3 4 5	(c06)
4.	Thuto Rre :	Kwa tlase ga mophato wa lesome Mophato wa borobedi le dithuto tsa kholeje Mophato wa lesome Thuto ya kholeje ya (dingwaga di le 3 kgotsa 4) Dikerii ya yunibesithi Thuto e ekwa godimo ya dialogane ya kwa yunibesithi	1 2 3 4 5 6	(c07)
	Mme :	Kwa tlase ga mophato wa lesome Mophato wa borobedi le dithuto tsa kholeje Mophato wa lesome Thuto ya kholeje ya (dingwaga di le 3 kgotsa 4) Dikerii ya yunibesithi Thuto e ekwa godimo ya dialogane ya kwa yunibesithi	1 2 3 4 5 6	(c08)
5.	Tiro : Rre :	Tiro ya diatla Mokwaledi Rragwebo Morutegi Go ipereka Tiro ya botegeniki Tse dingwe Sepe Ga go na rre mo lapeng	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	(c09)

5.	Mme :	Tiro ya diatla Mokwaledi Mmakgwebo Morutegi Go ipereka Mosalagae Tse dingwe Sepe Mme ga a teng mo gae	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	(c010)
6.	Nako ya go dira. Rre :	Go feta diura di le 60 ka beke Mo gare ga duira di le 40 - 49 ka beke Mo gare ga duira di le 20 - 39 ka beke Kwa tlase ga diura di le 20 ka beke Rre ga a teng mo gae	1 2 3 4 5	(c011)
	Mme :	Go feta diura di le 60 ka beke Mo gare ga duira di le 40 - 49 ka beke Mo gare ga duira di le 20 - 39 ka beke Kwa tlase ga diura di le 20 Mme ga teng mo gae	1 2 3 4 5	(c012)
7.	Dingwaga tsa ngwana yo o tlisitseng pampiri e, mo gae.			
	Mosimane :	mo gare ga 12 - 14 mo gare ga 15 - 18 kwa godimo ga 18	1 2 3	(c013)
	Mosetsana :	mo gare ga 12 - 14 mo gare ga 15 - 18 kwa godimo ga 18	1 2 3	(c014)
8.	Maemo le maduo tsa ngwana yo o tlisitseng pampiri e.			
	Mosemane :	<u>Maduo</u> 0 - 29 30 - 34 35 - 39 40 - 49 50 - 59 60 - 69 70 - 79 80 - 89 90 - 100	<u>Maemo</u> H G F E D C B A A+	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 (c015)

8.	Mosetsana :	<u>Maduo</u>	<u>Maemo</u>		
		0 - 29	H	1	(c016)
		30 - 34	G	2	
		35 - 39	F	3	
		40 - 49	E	4	
		50 - 59	D	5	
		60 - 69	C	6	
		70 - 79	B	7	
		80 - 89	A	8	
90 - 100	A+	9			
9.	Maikemisetso a motsadi a thuto ya ngwana yo o tlisitseng pampiri e.				
Mo go rre : - Mosimane	Thuto ya sekolo se segolo (go fitlha ka mophato wa 9)	1	(c017)		
	Mophato wa lesome	2			
	Go dira ka matsogo/bokwaledi	3			
	Kholeje/yunibesithi	4			
	Tse dingwe	5			
	Sepe	6			
- Mosetsane	Thuto ya sekolo se segolo (go fitlha ka mophato wa 9)	1	(c018)		
	Mophato wa lesome	2			
	Go dira ka matsogo/bokwaledi	3			
	Kholeje/yunibesithi	4			
	Tse dingwe	5			
	Sepe	6			
Mo go mme : - Mosimane	Thuto ya sekolo se segolo (go fitlha ka mophato wa 9)	1	(c019)		
	Mophato wa lesome	2			
	Go dira ka matsogo/bokwaledi	3			
	Kholeje/yunibesithi	4			
	Tse dingwe	5			
	Sepe	6			
Mosetsana	Thuto ya sekolo se segolo (go fitlha ka mophato wa 9)	1	(c020)		
	Mophato wa lesome	2			
	Go dira ka matsogo/bokwaledi	3			
	Kholeje/yunibesithi	4			
	Tse dingwe	5			
	Sepe	6			

## **KAROLO B**

Tlhokomela polelo nngwe le nngwe mme o arabe ka tihamalalo. Supa karabo ya gago ka go dirisa palo e e tlhagelelang kwala palo eo fa thoko ga phatlha e e bapileng le polelo.

### **PALO**

O kgatlanong thata	1
O kgatlanong	2
O a dumela	3
O dumela thata	4

1.	Motsadi o tshwanetse go tlhokomela kwa mosa a le teng go sa kgathalesego gore o na le dingwaga di le kae.	(c21)
2.	Batsadi ba tshwanetse go pateletsa bana go obamela melao ya sekolo.	(c22)
3.	Mosa o tshwanetse go akgolelwa se a se dirileng sentle.	(c23)
4.	Mosa ga a tshwanela go ngangisana le mogolo.	(c24)
5.	Motsadi o tshwanetse go tsaya ditshwetso tsa gore ngwana o boele gae leng fa a etile go le bosigo.	(c25)
6.	Motsadi o tshwanetse go tlholomela maitsholo a ngwana a kwa sekolong thata.	(c26)
7.	Motsadi o tshwanetse go laola gore ngwana a apara jang.	(c27)
8.	Batsadi ba tshwanetse go rotloetsa bana go nna le seabe mo metshamekong.	(c28)
9.	Mosa o tshwanetse go kopa tetla ya go eta/go iphokisa phefo mo batsading ka dinako tsotlhe.	(c29)
10.	Motsadi o tshwanetse go tihalosetsa ngwana mabaka a kotlhao.	(c30)

**PALO**

- O kgatlanong thata 1  
O kgatlanong 2  
O a dumela 3  
O dumela thata 4

11.	Mosa o tshwanetse go letlelelwa go itlhophelela dirutwa tsa gagwe.		(c31)
12.	Motsadi o tshwanetse go nna le thata ya go ganetsa tlhopho ya mosa ya ditsala.		(c32)
13.	Mosa o tshwanetse go fiwa boipuso/ boitaolo jo a bo batlang.		(c33)
14.	Motsadi o ka tima mosa sengwe fa a sa ltshwara sentle.		(c34)
15.	Motsadi o ka pateletsa ngwana dirutwa tse ena a bonang di le botlhokwa		(c35)
16.	Basa ba tshwanetse go fiwo ditiro tsa bona mo lapeng		(c36)
17.	Mosa o tshwanetse go ltewa/otlhaiwa fa a sa ltshware sentle.		(c37)
18.	Batsadi ba tshwanetse go thusa basa tiragae		(c38)
19.	Basa ba se ka ba botsolotsa batsadi ka dipuetso le dikatlholo tsa bono.		(c39)
20.	Go batlhokwo gore mosa a ltsise batsadi ka dithulaganyo tsa gagwe mme e se go kopa tetla.		(c40)
21.	Batsadi ba tshwanetse go pateletsa bana go tsena ditikelo tsa di tsenang morago ga sekolo.		(c41)
22.	Mosa o tshwanetse a nna le maparego mo go direng ditshwetso ga gagwe.		(c42)
23.	Batsadi ba tshwanetse go pateletsa bana go bona maemo le maduo a a kwa godimo.		(c43)
24.	Mosa o tshwanetse go fiwa tetla ya go itirela ditshwetso tsa letsatsi le letsatsi.		(c44)

**PALO**

O kgatlhanong thata	1
O kgatlhanong	2
O a dumela	3
O dumela thata	4

25.	Batsadi ba tshwanetse go pateletsa bana go apara ka moo go batliwang kwa sekolong.		(c45)
26.	Batsadi ba tshwanetse go tlhola gore a tirogae e dirilwe.		(c46)
27.	Mosa o tshwanetse go nna le seabe mo go direng ditshwetso tsa lelapa.		(c47)
28.	Batsadi ba tshwanetse go ya go bogela bana kwa metshamekong.		(c48)
29.	Ngwana o tshwanetse go fiwa tshelete ka gale.		(c49)
30.	Batsadi ba tshwanetse go totla tsa sekolo le bana ba bona letsatsi le letsatsi.		(c50)
31.	Molekane wa me o na le seabe fela jaaka nna mo mananeong a ngwana wa rona.		(c51)
32.	Ke tshwanetse go bogela metshameko ya ngwana ka gale.		(c52)
33.	Molekane wa me ke ena a tsayang ditshwetso tsa go naya ngwana tetla.		(c53)
34.	Ke tiro le maikarabelo a batsadi botlhe gore bana ba dire tirogae.		(c54)
35.	Molekane wa me o bogela metshameko/mananeo a ngwana wa rona kwa sekolong.		(c55)
36.	Molekane wa me o tsaya nako go rotloetsa ngwana wa rona mo dikgatlhegong tsa gagwe.		(c56)

**PALO**

O kगतलहणंग थता	1
O kगतलहणंग	2
O a dumela	3
O dumela थता	4

37.	Ke na le थता ya go ganetsa kotlhao ya ngwana wa rona fa a ne a sa itshola sentle.		(c57)
38.	Molekane wa me ga a na kगतलहेगो mo mananeong a ngwana wa rona.		(c58)
39.	Nna le molekane wa me re dumalana ka se re batlang ngwana wa rona a se fitlhelela kwa sekolong.		(c59)
40.	Nna le molekane wa me re thusana karolo ya boeteledipele jwa lelapa.		(c60)
41.	Nna le molekane wa me re nna le nako e e lekanang le ngwana wa rona letsatsi le letsatsi.		(c61)
42.	Nna le molekane wa me re dumalana ka dingwao/ ditumelo tse di tshwanang mo ntlong.		(c62)
43.	Molekane wa me o tlotla dikgang tse di itumedisang le ngwana wa rona.		(c63)
44.	Ke boikarabelo jwa molekane wa me go otlhaela bothokatsebe.		(c64)
45.	Molekane wa me ga a na nako le ngwana wa rona.		(c65)
46.	Ke tiro ya molekane wa me gore a ngwana o dirile tirogae.		(c66)
47.	Molekane wa me o tsaya ditshwetso tsa thupiso ya ngwana wa rona.		(c67)
48.	Nna le molekane wa me dumalana ke molebo wa bokamoso jo bantle jwa ngwana wa rona.		(c68)
49.	Ke tsaya molekane wa me jaaka tlhogo ya lelapa.		(c69)

Dirisa dipalo tsa nngwe go fitlha ka nne go arabo dipotso, go bontsha botlhokwa jwa dintlha tse di latelang, mo ngwaneng wa gago.

**PALO**

- 1 - Ga go botlhokwa
- 2 - Botlhokwanyane
- 3 - Botlhokwa
- 4 - Botlhokwatlhokwa

50.	Bokgoni jwa go ikakanyetsa		(c70)
51.	Gore a nne boikobo ka dinako tsotlhe		(c71)
52.	Gore a nne phepa le go labega ka dinako tsotlhe		(c72)
53.	Gore a nne mogaka mo metshamekong.		(c73)
54.	Gore a tshephege ka dinako tsotlhe		(c74)
55.	Gore a kgone go itirela ka boena		(c75)
56.	Boitumelo		(c76)
57.	Go thusa (Bomosola)		(c77)
58.	Bokgoni jwa go akanya (go lora)		(c78)
59.	Keletso ya tswelelopele le katlego		(c79)
60.	Go itsege		(c80)
61.	Boikarabelo		(c01)
62.	Maitseo		(c02)
63.	Pholoso		(c03)
64.	Botlhale		(c04)
65.	Botshelo jo bo monate		(c05)

## **Appendix 4**

### **List of Tables**

	<b>Page</b>	
Table 6.1	Language	156
Table 6.2	Age of Pupils	157
Table 6.3	Number of Parents who responded	157
Table 6.4	Marital status of parents	158
Table 6.5	Educational level of Father	158
Table 6.6	Educational level of Mother	159
Table 6.7	Item analysis for the section: Father Involvement	160
Table 6.8	Item analysis for the section: Father Leadership	161
Table 6.9	Item analysis for the section: Father Discipline	162
Table 6.10	Item analysis for the section: Mother Involvement	163
Table 6.11	Item analysis measuring Mother Leadership	164
Table 6.12	Item analysis for the section: Mother Discipline	165
Table 6.13	Item analysis for the section: Parent Involvement	166
Table 6.14	Item analysis for the section: Parent Leadership	167
Table 6.15	Item analysis for the section: Parent discipline	168
Table 6.16	Pearsons Product - Moment Correlation Matrix: Relationship between Academic Achievement and Father	169
Table 6.17	Pearsons Product - Moment Correlation: Relationship between Academic Achievement and Mother	171
Table 6.18	Intercorrelational matrix indicating the relationship between values and academic achievement	171
Table 6.19	Regression analysis: Relationship between choice of values and academic achievement	173
Table 6.20	Intercorrelational matrix indicating the relationship between the influence of the parent and academic achievement	174
Table 6.21	Intercorrelational matrix indicating the relationship between parental values and academic achievement	175
Table 6.22	Regression Analysis - The relationship between the choice of parental values and academic achievement	176
Table 6.23	Regression Analysis - Summary of independent variables contributing to the variance in academic achievement	178

## **LIST OF SOURCES**

Allport, G.W., Vernon, P.E., Lindzey, G. 1970 **Study of Values**  
THE RIVERSIDE PUBLISHING COMPANY

Alschuler A & Irons R.B. **Motivating Adolescents' Achievements**  
URBAN EDUCATION vol. 7 1973 p.323 - 340

Alwin D.F. **Trends in Parental Socialisation Values**  
AMERICAN JOURNAL OF SOCIOLOGY vol. 90 1984 p. 359 -382

Alwin D.F. **Cohort Replacement and Changes in Parental Socialisation Values**  
JOURNAL OF MARRIAGE AND THE FAMILY vol. 52, no.2, 1990 p. 347 - 360

Ames, C and Ames R **Motivation in Education** Vol 3 1989  
California: ACADEMIC PRESS

Ashraf S.A. **Education and Values: Islamic vis-a-vis the Secularist Approach**  
MUSLIM EDUCATION QUARTERLY vol. 4, no.2, 1987 p.4 - 16

Balswick, J **The Inexpressive Maale: Conflict and Role Theor as Contrasting Ideas**  
FAMILY COORDINATOR vol. 28 1979 p. 331 - 336.

Barnett R.C. **Parental sex-role attitudes and Child-rearing Values**  
SEX ROLES vol.7, no.8, 1981 p.837 - 846.

Baumrind D **Current Patterns of Parental Authority**  
DEVELOPMENT PSYCHOLOGY MONOGRAPHS vol.4 1971, p.101 - 103

Baumrind D. **Parental Disciplinary Patterns and Social Patterns**  
YOUTH AND SOCIETY vol. 9, no.3, March 1978, p. 236 - 276

Berelowitz, L.R. **Relationships between Marital Status and Children's Academic Performance and Classroom Behaviour**  
1986 M.Ed U.C.T.

Bienvenu M.J. **Measurement of Marital Communication**  
FAMILY CO-ORDINATOR vol.19, 1970, p. 26 - 31

Biller., H.D. 1975 **Father, Child and Sex-role** Massachusetts:  
HEATH LEXINGTON BOOKS

Blanchard R.W. & Biller H.D. **Father Availability and Academic Performance among 3rd Grade Boys** DEVELOPMENT PSYCHOLOGY vol. 4, 1971, p.301 - 305

Blechman E.A., Tinsley B., Carella E.T., McEnroe M.J.,

**Child Competence and Behaviour Problems**

JOURNAL OF ABNORMAL PSYCHOLOGY vol.94, 1985 p.70 - 77

Block, J.H., Block, J & Morrison A. **Parent-agreement-disagreement on Child-rearing Orientations and Gender-related Personality Correlates in Children**

CHILD DEVELOPMENT vol.52, 1981, p. 965 - 974

Boud D. **Assessment and the Promotion of Academic Values**

STUDIES IN HIGHER EDUCATION vol.15, no.1, 1990 p.101 - 111

Bracke P.E. **Parental Child-rearing Practices and the Development of Type A Behaviour in Children**

DISSERTATION ABSTRACTS INTERNATIONAL vol.46, no.12-B, 1986 p.4421

Breytenbach, J.A. 1980 **Die Verband tussen Ouerskap en Probleme met Identiteitsverwerwing deur die Kind-in-Opvoeding**, Pretoria:

M.Ed UNISA

Bronstein, P & Cowan, C.P. 1988 **Fatherhood Today: Men's Changing Role in the Family** New York: JOHN WILEY AND SONS

Broughton S.F., Barton E.S., & Owen P.R. **Home-based Contingency Systems for School Problems**

SCHOOL PSYCHOLOGY REVIEW vol.10 no.1, 1981, p. 26 - 36

Brown, B.W. **Parents' Discipline of Children in Public Places**

FAMILY CO-ORDINATOR vol.28, no.1, 1979, p.67 - 71

Burchinal, L.G. **Characteristics of Adolescents from Unbroken, Broken and Reconstituted Families**

JOURNAL OF MARRIAGE & THE FAMILY vol.26, 1964, p.44 - 51

Burns A, Homel R, & Goodnow J **Conditions of Life and Parental Values**

AUSTRALIAN JOURNAL OF PSYCHOLOGY vol.36, no.2, Aug 1984

p. 219 - 237

Chandler C & Connell J.P., **Children's Extrinsic and Internalised Motivation: A Developmental Study of Children's Reasons for Liked and Disliked Behaviours**

BRITISH JOURNAL OF DEVELOPMENTAL PSYCHOLOGY vol.5

1987 p.357 - 365

Chapman M, **Father Absence, Stepfathers and the Cognitive Performance of College Students**

CHILD DEVELOPMENT vol.48, 1977, p. 1155 - 1158

Cherian V.I., **Relationship between Corporal Punishment of Pupils and their Academic Achievement**

SOUTH AFRICAN JOURNAL OF EDUCATION vol.10, no.1, Feb 1990

p. 96 - 100.

Cilliers C.D., **Effektiewe en Verantwoordbare Dissiplinerings van Kinders - Implikasies vir Ouers en Onderwysers**

SUID-AFRIKAANSE TYDSKRIF VIR OPVOEDKUNDE vol.8, no.3, Aug 1988

p. 176 - 183

Christopher S.A., **Parental Relationships and Value Orientation as Factors in Academic Achievement.**

PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE JOURNAL vol.45, 1967, p.921 - 925

Clark, Reginald. **1983 Family Life and School Achievement**

Chicago Press: UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO PRESS

Coleman, J.S., Hoffer, T., Kilgore, S **1982 High School Achievement Public, Catholic, and Private Schools Compared,**

New York: BASIC BOOKS, INC., PUBLISHERS

Coleman J., Hoffer T., & Kilgore S., **Achievement and Segregation in Secondary Schools: A further look at public and private school differences.**

SOCIOLOGY OF EDUCATION vol.55, 1982b p.162 - 182

Collier, G., **Culture Clashes, Value Conflicts and Professional Education**

HIGHER EDUCATION RESEARCH & DEVELOPMENT vol.8

no.1, 1989 p.59 - 68

Collier, K.G., **Higher Education and the Critique of Values**

JOURNAL OF MORAL EDUCATION vol.17, no.1, 1988, p.21 - 26.

Comer, J.P., **Educating Poor Minority Children**

SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN vol.259, Nov 1986, p. 24

Crain R.L., & Mahard R.E., **Desegregation and Black Achievement**

LAW AND CONTEMPORARY PROBLEMS vol.42, no.3, 1978, p. 17 - 56

Crouter A.C., Perry-Jenkins M., Huston T.L. & McHale S.M.,  
**Processes underlying Father Involvement in Dual-earner and in Single-earner families**  
DEVELOPMENTAL PSYCHOLOGY vol.23, no.3, May 1987 p. 431 - 440

Dadds M.R., Sheffield J.K., & Holbeck J.F., **An Examination of Differential Relationship of Marital Discord to Parents' Discipline Strategies for Boys and Girls**  
JOURNAL OF ABNORMAL PSYCHOLOGY vol. April 1990 p.121 - 129

Danser D.B., **The Impact of Religious Activity, Belief and Commitment upon Parent Discipline and Family Interaction**  
DISSERTATION ABSTRACTS INTERNATIONAL vol.47, no.5-B, Nov 1986  
p.2194

Deci E.L., & Ryan R.M., **The Support of Autonomy and the Control of Behaviour**  
JOURNAL OF PERSONALITY & SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY vol.53, 1987,  
p.1024 - 1037

Deluty R.H., **Assertiveness in Children: Some Research Considerations**  
JOURNAL OF CLINICAL CHILD PSYCHOLOGY vol.10, no.3, 1981, p.149 - 155

Dobson, J. 1981 **Wie die Roede Spaar**  
Kaapstad: TAFELBERG-UITGEWERS BEPERK

Dornbusch S., Ritter P., & Leiderman H., **The Relation of Parenting Style to Adolescent School Performance**  
CHILD DEVELOPMENT vol.58, 1987, p. 1244 - 1257.

Dorr, D, Zax, M & Bonner III, J.W. 1983 **The Psychology of Discipline**  
New York: INTERNATIONAL UNIVERSITIES PRESS, INC.

Dreikurs, R & Grey, L. 1968 **A New Approach to Discipline: Logical Consequences**  
New York: HAWTHORNE BOOKS

Du Plooy, J.L., Griessel, G.A.J. & Oberholzer, M.O. 1987 **Fundamental Pedagogics for Advanced Students** Pretoria: HAUM

Eiduson B.T., & Alexander J.W., **The Role of Children in Alternative Family Styles**  
JOURNAL OF SOCIAL ISSUES vol.34, no.2., 1978, p.149 - 167.

Eglund C.L., **Using Kohlberg's Moral Developmental Framework in Family Life Education**  
FAMILY RELATIONS vol.29, 1980, p.7 - 13.

**Elder G.H., Jr & Bowerman C.E., Family Structure and Child-rearing Patterns: The Effects of Family Size and Sex Composition**  
AMERICAN SOCIOLOGICAL REVIEW vol.28, 1963 p.891 - 905.

**Emery R.E., Interparental Conflict and the Children of Divorce and Discord**  
PSYCHOLOGICAL BULLETIN vol.92, 1982 p.310 - 330.

**Feather N.T. & Newton J.W., Values, Expectations and the Prediction of Social Action: An Expectancy-Valence Analysis**  
MOTIVATION AND EMOTION vol.6, 1982, p.217 - 244.

**Forehand R., Home Predictors of Young Adolescents' School Behaviour and Academic Performance**  
CHILD DEVELOPMENT vol.57, no.6, Dec 1986, p.1528 - 33

**Friedman J. 1985 Marital Discord and Child Behaviour**  
UNPUBLISHED M-DISSERTATION Johannesburg: WITS UNIVERSITY

**Froiland D.J., Parental Attitudes: A Predictor of Academic Achievement**  
DISSERTATION ABSTRACTS INTERNATIONAL vol.31, no.4-A, 1970  
p.1618 - 1619.

**Gani A.A., 1989 An Investigation into the Reading Performance of Indian Children in Primary School**  
UNPUBLISHED M ED DISSERTATION Pretoria: UNISA

**Garbarino J., Sebes J. & Schellenbach C. Families at Risk for Destructive Parent-child Relations in Adolescence**  
CHILD DEVELOPMENT vol.55, 1984, p.174 - 183

**Gerdes, L.C. 1989 The Developing Adult** Durban: BUTTERWORTH

**Gillespie D.L., Who has the Power? The Marital Struggle**  
JOURNAL OF MARRIAGE AND THE FAMILY vol.33, 1971, p.445 - 458.

**Gecas V. & Schwalbe M.L., Parental Behaviour and Adolescent Self-esteem**  
JOURNAL OF MARRIAGE AND THE FAMILY vol.48, 1986, p.37 - 46.

**Gerber G., Conflicts in Values and Attitudes between Parents of Symptomatic and Normal Children**  
PSYCHOLOGICAL REPORTS vol.38, 1976, p. 91 - 98.

**Green T.F., The Value of "Values"**

THE CAREER DEVELOPMENT QUARTERLY vol.38, March 1990, p. 208 - 211.

**Greenberg M.T., Siegel J.M. & Leitch C.J., The Nature and Importance of Attachment Relationships to Parents and Peers during Adolescence**

JOURNAL OF YOUTH AND ADOLESCENCE vol.12, no.5, 1983, p. 373 - 386.

**Grolnick W & Ryan R., Parent Styles associated with Children's Self-regulation and Competence in School**

JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY vol.81, 1989, p.143 - 154.

**Hanson S.L. & Ginsburg A.L., Gaining Ground: Values and High School Success**

AMERICAN EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH vol.25, no.3 1988 p.334 - 365.

**Hanson S.M. & Bozett F.W., Fatherhood: A Review of Resources**

FAMILY RELATIONS vol.36, no.3, July 1987, p.333 - 340.

**Harrison F., Relationship between Home .....Attitudes**

MERRILL-PALMER QUARTERLY vol.14, no.4, 1968, p.331 - 344.

**Hauser J., Adolescents and Religions**

ADOLESCENCE vol.16 1981, p.309 - 320.

**Heckhausen, H. 1967 The Anatomy of Academic Achievement**

New York & London: ACADEMIC PRESS

**Helson R., Effects of Sibling Characteristics and Parental Values on Creative Interest and Achievement**

JOURNAL OF PERSONALITY vol.36, no.4, 1968, p.589 - 607.

**Hetherington E.M. & Deur J.L., The Effects of Father Absence on Child Development**

YOUNG CHILDREN vol.26, no.4, March 1971, p.233 - 248.

**Hetherington E.M., Effects of Father Absence on Personality Development in Adolescent Daughters**

DEVELOPMENTAL PSYCHOLOGY vol.7, 1972, p.313 - 326.

**Heyns B & Catsambis S., Mothers' Employment and Children's Achievement: a Critique**

SOCIOLOGY OF EDUCATION vol.59, 1986, p.140 - 151.

**Hoffman M.F., Conscience, Personality and Socialisation Techniques**

HUMAN DEVELOPMENT vol.13, 1970, p.90 - 126.

Hoffman M.L., **Moral Internalisation, Parental Power, and the Nature of Parent-child Interaction**

DEVELOPMENTAL PSYCHOLOGY vol.11, no.2, 1975, p.228 - 239.

Hoge D.R., **Transmission of Religious and Social Values from Parents to Teenage Children**

JOURNAL OF MARRIAGE AND FAMILY vol.44, no.3, Aug. 1982, p.569 - 580.

Hurlock, E.B. **1975 Developmental Psychology** New York: MCGRAW-HILL CO

Johnson R.E., **Mother's versus Father's Role in causing Delinquency**

ADOLESCENCE vol.22, no.86, 1987, p. 305 - 315.

Johnston J.H., **Values, Culture and the Effective School**

N.A.S.S.P. BULLETIN vol.71, no.497, March 1987, p.79 - 88.

Jones L.V., **Black-White Achievement Differences**

AMERICAN PSYCHOLOGIST vol.39, 1984, p.1207 - 13.

Jordan B., Radin N. & Epstein A., **Parental Behaviour and Intellectual Functioning in Preschool Boys and Girls**

DEVELOPMENTAL PSYCHOLOGY vol.11, no.3, 1975, p.407 - 408.

Joubert C.E., **Self-esteem and Social Desirability in relation to College Students' Retrospective Perceptions of Parental Fairness and Disciplinary Practices**

PSYCHOLOGICAL REPORTS vol.69, Aug 1991, p.115 - 120.

Joyce J.F., **An Investigation of some Personality Characteristics of Achieving High School Students from Lower Socio-economic Environments**

DISSERTATION ABSTRACTS INTERNATIONAL vol.31, no.4-A, 1970, p.1623.

Kalinowski A., **The Home Environment and School Achievement**

STUDIES IN EDUCATIONAL EVALUATION vol.7, no.1, 1981, p.85 - 96.

Kandel D & Lesser G., **Parental and Peer Influences on Educational Plans of Adolescents**

AMERICAN SOCIOLOGICAL REVIEW vol.34, 1969 p.213 - 223.

Kay R.S. & Belmont A.M., **Behaviour and Discipline: The Role of the Parent**

CONTEMPORARY EDUCATION vol.50, no.1 1978 p. 49.

**Kellaghan T., Relationships between Home Environment and Scholastic Behaviour in a Disadvantaged Population**

JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY vol.69, no.6, 1977, p.754 -760.

**Kennedy G.E., Involving Students in Participatory Research on Fatherhood: A Case Study**

FAMILY RELATIONS vol.38, no.4, Oct 1989 p.368 - 370.

**Kerchoff A & Huff P., Parental Influence on Educational Goals**

SOCIOMETRY vol.37, 1974, 307 - 327.

**Kline S.A. & Golombek H., The Incongruous Achiever in Adolescence**

JOURNAL AND YOUTH AND ADOLESCENCE vol.3, no.2, June 1974, p.153 - 160.

**Koestner R., Ryan R.M., Berieri F., and Holt K., Setting Limits in Children's Behaviour: The Differential Effects of Controlling vs. Informational Styles on Intrinsic Motivation and Creativity.**

JOURNAL OF PERSONALITY vol.52, 1984, p.233 -248.

**Kohn, M.L. 1969 Class and Conformity** Illinois: The Dorsey Press

**Kreisberg L., Rearing Children for Education Achievement in Fatherless Families**

JOURNAL OF MARRIAGE AND THE FAMILY vol.29, no.2, 1967, p.288.

**Kurdek L.A. & Siesky A.E., Jr Divorced Single Parents' Perceptions of Child-related Problems**

JOURNAL OF DIVORCE vol.1, no.4, 1978, p.361 - 369.

**Lamb, M.E. 1976 The Role of the Father in Child Development**

New York: JOHN WILEY & SONS

**Lamb M.E., Paternal Influences and the Father's Role**

AMERICAN PSYCHOLOGIST vol.34, 1979, p.938 - 943.

**Landy F., Rosenberg B.G., & Sutton-Smith B., The Effect of Limited Father Absence on Cognitive Development**

CHILD DEVELOPMENT vol.40, 1969, p.941 - 944.

**Larzelere R.E., Klein M., Schumm W.R & Alibrando S.A., Relationship of Spanking and other Parenting Characteristics to Self-esteem and Perceived Fairness of Parental Discipline**

PSYCHOLOGICAL REPORTS vol.64, no.3, 1989, p.1140 - 1142.

Leibowitz A., **Parental Inputs and Children's Achievement**  
JOURNAL OF HUMAN RESOURCES vol.12, 1977, p.242 - 51.

Le Roux, E.E. 1990 **Die Persoonsbeeld van Adollesente Seuns in Gesinne waar die Vader Fisiek of Psigies afwesig is.**  
M-Verhandeling : MEDIESE UNIVERSITEIT VAN SUIDER-AFRIKA

Lessing E.E., Zagorin S.W., & Nelson D., **WISC Subtest & I.Q. Score Correlates of Father Absence**  
JOURNAL OF GENETIC PSYCHOLOGY vol. 1970, p. 181 - 195

Letlapa A., **Parental Involvement is Key to Educational Success**  
FOCUS ON EDUCATION vol. 3, no. 1, Jan 1988, p.1 - 2

Lickona T (ed.) 1976 **Moral Development and Behaviour: Theory, Research and Social Issues** New York: HOLT, RINEHART & WINSTON

Lipman-Blumen, J 1984 **Gender Roles and Power** New Jersey:  
PRENTICE-HALL.

Lloyd-Jones, D.M. 1973 **Life in the Spirit in Marriage, Home and Work**  
Edinburgh: MACKAYS.

Luster T., Rhoades K. & Haas B., **The Relation between Parental Values and Parenting Behaviour: A Test of the Kohn Hypothesis**  
JOURNAL OF MARRIAGE AND THE FAMILY vol.51, no.1, 1989, p.139 - 147.

Macdonald, G. 1990 **DIE EFFEKTIEWE VADER** Pretoria: SIGMA-PERS (Edms) Bpk

Mack D.E., **The Power Relationship in Black Families and White families**  
JOURNAL OF PERSONALITY AND SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY vol.30, 1974,  
p.409 - 413.

Macke A & Morgan W.R., **Maternal Employment, Race, and Work Orientation of High School Girls**  
SOCIAL FORCES vol. 57, 1978, p.187 - 204.

Madsen, C.K. & Madsen, C.H. 1975 **Parents and Children, Love and Discipline**  
Illinois: AHM PUBLISHING CORPORATION

Maniaci M.P. & Maniaci S.V., **Parental Values as Parameters for Limit setting in a Democratic Atmosphere**  
INDIVIDUAL PSYCHOLOGY: JOURNAL OF ADLERIAN THEORY, RESEARCH & PRACTICE vol.45, no.4, Dec 1989, p.509 - 512.

Manners, E. 1971 **The Vulnerable Generation** London: CASSELL & COMPANY LTD

Mannheim B., **Social Background, Schooling, and Parental Job Attitudes as Related to Adolescents' Work Values**

YOUTH AND SOCIETY vol.19, no.3, March 1988, p.269 - 293.

McBroom W.H., Reed F.W. & Burns C.E., **Intergenerational Transmission of Values: A Data-Based Re-assesment**

SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY QUARTERLY vol.48, June 1985, p.150 - 163.

Menaghan E., **Role Changes and Psychological Well Being: Variations in Effects by Gender and Role Repertoire**

SOCIAL FORCES vol.67, 1989, p.693 - 714.

Mengerink R.A., **The Relationship of School Achievement and Disciplinary Problems to Single Parent Families among Selected Tenth and Twelfth Grade Students in the U.S.A.**

DISSERTATION ABSTRACTS INTERNATIONAL vol.47, no.11-A, 1987 p.4048.

Minnaar, G.G. 1976 **The Influence of Westernization on the Personality of a Group of Zulu Men** Pretoria: H.S.R.C.

Mitchell J.V., **Relationship between Attitudes towards Higher Education and Life Values** ASSESSMENT AND EVALUATION IN HIGHER EDUCATION

vol.11, Summer 1986, p.93 - 104.

Motshologane S.A. 1974 **Influence of Urbanization on the Role and Status of Husband and Wife in the Tswana Family** Thesis: Master of Arts - UNIVERSITY OF THE NORTH

Munns M.(Jnr), **The Values of Adolescents compared with Parents and Peers** ADOLESCENCE vol.7, no.28, 1972, p.519 - 524.

Mussen, P.H., Conger J.J., and Kagan J., 1984 **Child Development and Personality** 6th ed New York: HARPER & ROW PUBLISHERS

Mutimer D., Loughlin L & Powell M., **Some Differences in the Family Relationships of Achieving and Underachieving Readers**

JOURNAL OF GENETIC PSYCHOLOGY vol.109, 1966, p.67 - 74.

Myers D.E., Milne A.M., Baker K & Ginsberg A., **Student Discipline and High School Performance**

SOCIOLOGY OF EDUCATION vol.60, no.1, 1987, p.18 - 33.

**Nesengani, R.I. 1990 Father-absence and the Academic Achievement of High School Students** M-dissertation Cape Town: U.C.T.

**Niehaus L. & Myburg C.P.H., Ouerbegeleiding in 'n Welvarende Opvoedingsmilieu**  
SOUTH AFRICAN JOURNAL OF EDUCATION vol.9, no.4, 1989, p.801

**O'Leary K.D. & Turkewitz H., Methodological Errors in Marital and Child Treatment Research**  
JOURNAL OF CONSULTING AND CLINICAL PSYCHOLOGY vol.46, 1978  
p.747 - 758.

**Oliveri M.E & Reiss D., Social Networks of Family Members: Distinctive Roles of Mothers and Fathers**  
SEX ROLES vol.11, no.11 -12, 1987, p.719 - 736.

**Oshman H.P., Some Effects of Father Absence upon the Psycho-Social Development of Male and Female Late-Adolescents: Theoretical and Empirical Consideration**  
DISSERTATION ABSTRACTS INTERNATIONAL vol.36, 1975, p. 919B - 920B

**Ostrander K.H. & Ostrom K., Attitudes underlying the Politics of Parent Involvement**  
JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL PUBLIC RELATIONS vol.13, no.2, 1990  
p.12 - 18.

**Pang V.A., The Relationship of Test Anxiety and Math Achievement to Parental Values in Asian-American and European-American Middle School Students**  
JOURNAL OF RESEARCH AND DEVELOPMENT IN EDUCATION vol.24,  
Summer 1991, p.1 - 10.

**Paine, K.R. 1983 A Fundamental Pedagogic Approach to Parental Support and Availability in Education with Special Reference to the Role of the Father**

**Painter, G. & Corsini, R.J. 1990 Effective Discipline in the Home and School**  
Indiana: ACCELERATED DEVELOPMENT INC., PUBLISHERS

**Parsons J., Adler T & Kaczala C., Socialisation of Achievement Attitudes and Beliefs: Parental Influences**  
CHILD DEVELOPMENT vol.53, 1982, p.310 - 321.

**Portes P.R., Assessing Child-rearing Styles in Ecological Settings: Its Relation to Culture, Social class, Early Age Intervention and Scholastic Cognitive Development**  
TEACHERS COLLEGE RECORD vol.89, no.1, 1987, p.21 - 38.

Rokeach, M 1979 **Understanding Human Values** New York:  
MACMILLAN PUBLISHING CO

Rokeach M., **Inducing Change and Stability in Belief Systems and Personality Structures**

JOURNAL OF SOCIAL ISSUES vol.41, 1985, p.153 - 171.

Rosen B.C., **Family Structure and Value Transmission**

MERRILL-PALMER QUARTERLY vol.10, 1964, p.59.

Russell J., **The Dynamics of Authority in Permanent Substitute Families**

ADOPTION AND FOSTERING vol.10, no.3, 1986, p.31 - 35.

Safilios-Rothschild C., **The Study of Family Power Structure**

JOURNAL OF MARRIAGE AND FAMILY vol.31, 1970, p.290 - 301.

Santrock J.W., **The Relations of Type and Onset of Father Absence to Cognitive Development**

CHILD DEVELOPMENT vol.43, 1972, p.455 - 469.

Santrock J.W., **Father Absence, Perceived Maternal Behaviour, and Moral Development in Boys**

CHILD DEVELOPMENT vol.46, 1975, 753 - 757.

Schaefer E.S., **Goals for Parent and Future-parent Education: Research on Parental Beliefs**

ELEMENTARY SCHOOL JOURNAL vol.91, no.3, 1991, p.239 - 247.

Sciara F.J., **Effects of Father Absence on the Educational Achievement of Urban Black Children**

CHILD STUDY JOURNAL vol.5, 1975, p.45 - 55.

Sebald H., **Adolescents' Shifting Orientation towards Parents and Peers: A Curvilinear Trend over Recent Decades**

JOURNAL OF MARRIAGE AND THE FAMILY vol.48, 1986, p.5 - 13.

Shaefer E.S., **Parental Modernity and Child Academic Competence: towards a Theory of Individual and Societal Development**

EARLY CHILD DEVELOPMENT AND CARE vol.27, no.2, 1987, 373 - 389.

Shaw M.E. & White D. L., **Relationship between Child-Parent Identification and Academic Underachievement**

JOURNAL OF CLINICAL PSYCHOLOGY vol.21, 1965, p.10 - 13.

Shaw J.M. & Scott W.A., **Influence of Parent Discipline Style on Delinquent Behaviour: The Mediating Role of Control Orientation**  
AUSTRALIAN JOURNAL OF PSYCHOLOGY vol.43, no.2, 1991, p.61 - 67.

Shinn M., **Father Absence and Children's Cognitive Development**  
PSYCHOLOGICAL BULLETIN vol.85, 1978, p.295 - 324.

Shockey B.W., **The Teacher Can't Do It All**  
EARLY CHILD DEVELOPMENT AND CARE vol.14, no.1-2, Feb 1984, p.141 - 146.

Shumaker S.A. & Stokols D., **Residential Mobility as a Social Issue and Research Topic**  
JOURNAL OF SOCIAL ISSUES vol.38, 1982, p.1 - 19.

Sigel I.E (ed.) **1985 Parental Belief Systems: The Psychological Consequences for Children** New Jersey: LAWRENCE ERLBAUM ASSOCIATES, PUBLISHERS

Smith T., **Adolescent Reactions to Attempted Parental Control and Influence Techniques**  
JOURNAL OF MARRIAGE AND THE FAMILY vol.45, 1983, p.533 - 542.

Simons R.L., Whitbeck L.B., Conger R.D. & Conger K.J., **Parenting Factors, Social Skills and Value Commitments as Precursors to School Failure, Involvement with Deviant Peers, and Delinquent Behaviours**  
JOURNAL OF YOUTH AND ADOLESCENCE vol.20, Dec 1991, p.645 - 664

Spade J.Z., **Occupational Structure and Men's and Women's Parental Values**  
JOURNAL OF FAMILY ISSUES vol.12, no.3, 1991, p. 343 - 360.

Spitze G., **Women's Employment and Family Relations**  
JOURNAL OF MARRIAGE AND THE FAMILY vol.50, 1988, p.595 - 618.

Stebens J.A. & Carr D.L., **Perceptions of Parental Attitudes by Students varying in Intellectual Educational Ability and Educational Efficiency**  
PSYCHOLOGY IN THE SCHOOLS vol.7, 1970, p.67 - 73.

Steiner G.J. **Parent-Teen Education - An Exercise**  
FAMILY COORDINATOR vol.19, no.3, July 1970, p.213 - 218.

Steyn, A.F. & Breed, A 1987 **Die Veranderende Gesin**  
Pretoria : ACADEMICA

Steyn, A.F., van Wyk D & le Roux, T 1987 **Die Gesin : Gister en Vandag**  
Pretoria : ACADEMICA

Thomas M.D., **Let's Talk Sense about Discipline**  
CLEARING HOUSE vol. 50, no. 7 1977, p. 309 - 312

Thompson D.L., (ed.) 1991 **Moral Values and Higher Education**  
New York : BRIGHAM YOUNG UNIVERSITY.

Tobias W.L., **The Relationship between Discipline Intervention and Academic Achievement for Secondary School Students from One-parent Households and Two-parent Households in a Selected Mississippi School District**  
DISSERTATION ABSTRACTS INTERNATIONAL vol.47, no.11-A, May 1987, p.4049.

Traub S.H. & Dodder R.A., **Intergenerational Conflict of Values and Norms: A Theoretical Model**  
ADOLESCENCE vol.23, no.92, 1988, p.975 - 989

Truter L.D., **Ortopedagogiese Opgawe van die Skool**  
DIE UNIE vol. 86, no. 6, 1989 p. 164 - 167

Tucker S.K., **Adolescence Patterns of Communication**  
ADOLESCENCE vol. 24, Summer 1989, p. 269 - 278

Van den Aardweg, E.M. & Van den Aardweg, E.D. 1988 **Dictionary of Empirical Education/Educational Psychology** Pretoria : E & E ENTERPRISES

Van den Aardweg, E.M. & le Roux J.G. 1989 **Study Guide one for EEDHOD-P**  
Pretoria : UNISA

Vandegevel M., **Helping Parents Help their Children**  
JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL PUBLIC RELATIONS vol.11, no.1, 1988, p.19.

Van Devender E.M., **Involving Parents: How & Why**  
ACADEMIC THERAPY vol.23, no.5, 1988, p.523 - 528.

Verdiani F., **A Comparison of Selected Children.....Children**  
DISSERTATION ABSTRACTS INTERNATIONAL vol.81, 1971., p. 4896A

Vrey, J.D. 1987 **The Self-Actualising Educand** Pretoria : UNISA

Wagemaker, H 1980 **Parents and Discipline** Philadelphia :  
THE WESTMINSTER PRESS

Wakerman, E. 1986 **Father Loss** London : JUDY PIATKUS PUBLISHERS

Walberg H.J. & Marjoribanks K., **Family Environment and Cognitive Development:  
Twelve Analytic Models**  
REVIEW OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH vol. 46, no. 4, 1976, p. 527 - 551

Walberg H.J., **Families as Partners in Educational Productivity**  
PHI DELTA KAPPAN vol. 65, Feb 1984, p. 397 - 400

Walker H.M., Stieber S., Ramsay E. & O'Neill R.E., **Longitudinal Prediction of the  
School Achievement, Adjustment, and Delinquency of Antisocial Versus At-Risk Boys**  
REMEDIAL AND SPECIAL EDUCATION vol. 12, no. 4, Aug 1991 p. 43 - 51

Watson T. et al., **Relationship of Parent's Support to Children's Achievement**  
CHILD WELFARE vol. 62, Mar/Apr 1983, p. 175 - 180

Wegner, D.M. 1975 **The Development of Morality** Georgetown,  
Ontario : IRWIN-DORSEY

Weiner B & Peter N., **A Cognitive-Developmental Analysis of Achievement and  
Moral Judgement**  
DEVELOPMENTAL PSYCHOLOGY vol. 9, 1973, p. 290 - 309

Whitbeck L.B. & Gecas V., **Value Attributions and Value Transmission  
between Parents and Children**  
JOURNAL OF MARRIAGE AND THE FAMILY vol.50, Aug 1988, p.829 - 840.

Wilson, J 1981 **Discipline and Moral Education** Windsor, Berks:  
NFER-NELSON PUBLISHING CO. LTD

Wood, P. & Schwartz, B 1977 **How to get your Children to do what You  
Want Them to Do** 1977 Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: PRENTICE-HALL, INC.

Wright J.D. & Wright S.R., **Social Class and Parental Value for Children:  
A Partial Replication and Extension of the Kohn Thesis**  
AMERICAN SOCIOLOGICAL REVIEW vol.2, no.3, 1976.