

PARENTING STYLES AFFECTING THE BEHAVIOUR OF FIVE-YEAR OLDS

by

NATACHA CARINA DUARTE SEQUEIRA LATOUF

submitted in part fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of

MASTER OF DIACONIOLOGY
(DIRECTION: PLAY THERAPY)

at the

UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH AFRICA

SUPERVISOR: DR M DUNN

FEBRUARY 2008

DECLARATION

I hereby declare that **PARENTING STYLES AFFECTING THE BEHAVIOUR OF FIVE-YEAR OLDS** to be my own and that all references used or quoted were indicated and acknowledge comprehensively. This is a dissertation of limited scope and must be viewed accordingly.

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'H. Atouf', written in a cursive style.

SIGNATURE

DATE: 4 March 2008

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

My husband and my daughter for their undivided love, support and motivation.

My parents and friends for their encouragement.

My supervisor, Dr Munita Dunn, for her excellent guidance and the many hours devoted to this study.

Dr Liezel Korf for her hours of statistical analysis and Therese Bron for her grammatical and editorial skills.

God for giving me the determination.

SUMMARY

The main aim of the present study was to explore the relationship between parenting styles, as used by the pre-school parent and the social behaviour of the five-year old. Specific attention was given to three main parenting styles: authoritative, authoritarian and permissive. The eight developmental perspectives applicable for the five-year old were also discussed.

The research was conducted according to the quantitative approach. The Parental Styles Dimensions Questionnaire (PSDQ) was completed and returned by a sample of 30 parents (N=30) from Evergreen Pre-primary in Gauteng. The representative sample of five-year olds being observed by the teacher were 24 pupils (N=24). The teacher rated the five-year olds' behaviour using the Behavioural Questionnaire (BQ).

These results indicated primarily that the Authoritative Parenting Style was most used by the parents of the five-year old group and that this Parenting Style tends to lead to more acceptable social behaviour among the five-year olds.

KEY TERMS

PARENTING STYLES

FIVE-YEAR OLDS

EARLY CHILDHOOD YEARS

SOCIAL BEHAVIOUR

PARENTING STYLES AND DIMENSIONS QUESTIONNAIRE (PSDQ)

BEHAVIOURAL QUESTIONNAIRE (BQ)

TEACHER

AUTHORITATIVE PARENTING STYLE (FACTOR 1)

AUTHORITARIAN PARENTING STYLE (FACTOR 2)

PERMISSIVE PARENTING STYLE (FACTOR 3)

DECLARATION OF TERMS

Within the context of the study:

- i) The masculine form of pronoun refers throughout to both sexes. Throughout the study, to avoid confusion, the researcher refers to the five-year old as male (him/he).
- ii) The term 'dimension' is used interchangeably with 'nature' when referring to the characteristic of the parenting styles.
- iii) The term 'five-year old' is used interchangeably with 'early childhood years'.
- iv) The term 'less acceptable social behaviour' is used interchangeably with 'antisocial behaviour'.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

DECLARATION	II
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	III
SUMMARY	IV
KEY TERMS	V
DECLARATION OF TERMS	VI
TABLE OF CONTENTS	VII

CHAPTER 1: PROBLEM ANALYSIS AND PROJECT PLANNING	1
1.1. INTRODUCTION	1
1.2. RATIONALE AND PROBLEM FOR STUDY	4
1.2.1. <u>Motivation and problem statement</u>	4
1.3. GOALS AND OBJECTIVES	7
1.3.1. <u>Goals</u>	7
1.3.2. <u>Objectives</u>	7
1.3.3. <u>Hypothesis for the study</u>	8
1.4. RESEARCH APPROACH	8
1.4.1. <u>Quantitative approach</u>	8
1.4.2. <u>Type of research</u>	8
1.5. RESEARCH DESIGN	9
1.5.1 <u>Survey</u>	9
1.5.2 <u>Questionnaires delivered by hand</u>	10
1.6. RESEARCH AND WORK PROCEDURES	10
1.6.1 <u>Participants</u>	10
1.6.2 <u>Procedures</u>	11
1.6.3 <u>Viability of study</u>	11
1.6.3.1 <i>Literature study</i>	11
1.6.3.2 <i>Consultation with experts</i>	12
1.6.3.3 <i>Description of universe, sample and sampling</i>	12

1.7	ETHICAL ASPECTS	14
1.8	DEFINITIONS OF TERMS AND KEY CONCEPTS	15
1.8.1	<u>Parenting styles</u>	15
1.8.2	<u>Five-year olds</u>	15
1.9	RESEARCH REPORT LAYOUT AND TIME SPAN	16
1.10	CONCLUSION	16
	CHAPTER 2: DEVELOPMENT OF THE PRE-SCHOOL CHILD	18
2.1	INTRODUCTION	18
2.2	DEVELOPMENT IN EARLY CHILDHOOD YEARS	18
2.2.1	<u>Freud's psychoanalytical approach</u>	20
2.2.2	<u>Erikson's psychosocial approach</u>	21
2.2.3	<u>Piaget's cognitive theory</u>	22
2.2.4	<u>Vygotsky's sociocultural theory</u>	25
2.2.5	<u>Kohlberg's moral development theory</u>	26
2.2.6	<u>Bandura's behaviourism/social learning</u>	27
2.2.7	<u>Bowlby's attachment theory</u>	29
2.2.8	<u>Gestalt theory</u>	30
2.3	SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT	30
2.3.1	<u>Psychosocial development</u>	31
2.3.2	<u>Social development</u>	32
2.4	ACCEPTABLE AND LESS ACCEPTABLE SOCIAL BEHAVIOUR	34
2.4.1	<u>Acceptable social behaviour</u>	34
2.4.2	<u>Less acceptable social behaviour</u>	35
2.4.2.1	<i>Lack of responsibility</i>	37
2.4.2.2	<i>Lack of respect for adults</i>	38
2.4.2.3	<i>Inability to delay gratification</i>	39
2.4.2.4	<i>Lack of boundaries</i>	40
2.4.2.5	<i>Inability to play</i>	41

2.4.2.6	<i>Telling lies</i>	43
2.4.2.7	<i>Over-assertiveness</i>	43
2.4.2.8	<i>Bullying</i>	44
2.5	CONCLUSION	45
	CHAPTER 3: PARENTING STYLES	47
3.1	INTRODUCTION	47
3.2	PARENTING	47
3.2.1	<u>Parent's own past experiences as a child</u>	48
3.2.2	<u>Bi-directionality principle</u>	49
3.2.3	<u>Stress</u>	49
3.2.4	<u>Boundaries</u>	50
3.2.5	<u>Culture</u>	51
3.3	TYPES OF PARENTING STYLES	52
3.3.1	<u>Permissive parenting</u>	54
3.3.1.1	<i>Dimension</i>	54
3.3.1.2	<i>Outcome</i>	56
3.3.2	<u>Authoritarian parent</u>	56
3.3.2.1	<i>Dimension</i>	58
3.3.2.2	<i>Outcome</i>	59
3.3.3	<u>Authoritative parent</u>	60
3.3.3.1	<i>Dimension</i>	61
3.3.3.2	<i>Outcome</i>	62
3.4	CONCLUSION	62
	CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY: AN EMPIRICAL PERSPECTIVE AND INTEGRATION OF FINDINGS	64
4.1	INTRODUCTION	64
4.2	RESEARCH PROCESS REVIEWED	64

4.3	MEASURING INSTRUMENTS	65
4.3.1	<u>The parenting styles and dimensions questionnaire (PSDQ)</u>	65
4.3.1.1	<i>Test administration</i>	66
4.3.1.2	<i>Scoring</i>	66
4.3.2	<u>The behavioural questionnaire (BQ)</u>	68
4.3.2.1	<i>Test administration</i>	68
4.3.2.2	<i>Scoring</i>	69
4.4	DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURES	69
4.5	STATISTICAL ANALYSIS	70
4.6	FINDINGS	71
4.6.1	<u>Descriptives of parents rating themselves and one another and teacher rating five-year old behaviour</u>	71
4.6.2	<u>Ratings of boys and girls on the parent questionnaire</u>	76
4.6.3	<u>Ratings of boys and girls on the behavioural questionnaire</u>	81
4.6.4	<u>Correlations between the parenting style and the five-year old behaviour</u>	82
4.7	CONCLUSION	84
	CHAPTER 5: AN INTEGRATED SUMMARY OF CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS	86
5.1	INTRODUCTION	86
5.2	GOAL AND OBJECTIVES REVISITED	87
5.3	SUMMARY OF FINDINGS	88
5.3.1	<u>Parents rating themselves and their spouse</u>	88
5.3.2	<u>Teacher rating five-year old behaviour</u>	89
5.3.3	<u>Paternal and maternal parenting styles on boys and girls</u>	90
5.3.4	<u>The effect of paternal and maternal parenting styles on the behaviour of boys and girls</u>	92

5.4	LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS	93
5.5	CONCLUSION	94
	BIBLIOGRAPHY	96
	ADDENDA	103
	<u>ADDENDUM A:</u> LETTER OF PERMISSION TO THE PARENT FOR THE PARTICIPATION IN THE RESEARCH PROCESS	103
	<u>ADDENDUM B:</u> LETTER OF CONSENT FROM THE PARENT	104
	<u>ADDENDUM C:</u> LETTER OF CONSENT FROM THE PRE-SCHOOL	105
	<u>ADDENDUM D:</u> PARENTING STYLES AND DIMENSIONS QUESTIONNAIRE (PSDQ)	106
	<u>ADDENDUM E:</u> BEHAVIOURAL QUESTIONNAIRE (BQ)	113
	<u>ADDENDUM F:</u> FATHER RATING SPOUSE AND HIMSELF, MOTHER RATING SPOUSE AND HERSELF AND TEACHER RATING FIVE-YEAR OLD BEHAVIOUR	115
	<u>ADDENDUM G:</u> THE DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF BOYS AND GIRLS	117

LIST OF TABLES

Table 2.1: PERSPECTIVES ON DEVELOPMENT IN EARLY CHILDHOOD YEARS	19
Table 2.2: ERIK ERIKSON'S PSYCHOSOCIAL STAGES OF DEVELOPMENT	31
Table 4.3: RESULTS OF NON-PARAMETRIC CORRELATION FOR PARENTING STYLES AND FIVE-YEAR OLD BEHAVIOUR	82

LIST OF FIGURES

FIGURE 4.1: DESCRIPTIVES OF FATHER RATING SPOUSE	72
FIGURE 4.2: DESCRIPTIVES OF FATHER RATING SELF	73
FIGURE 4.3: DESCRIPTIVES OF MOTHER RATING SPOUSE	74
FIGURE 4.4: DESCRIPTIVES OF MOTHER RATING SELF	75
FIGURE 4.5: DESCRIPTIVES OF TEACHER RATING CHILDREN'S BEHAVIOUR AT SCHOOL	76
FIGURE 4.6: RATINGS OF BOYS AND GIRLS ON FATHER RATING SPOUSE	77
FIGURE 4.7: RATINGS OF BOYS AND GIRLS ON FATHER RATING SELF	78
FIGURE 4.8: RATINGS OF BOYS AND GIRLS ON MOTHER RATING SPOUSE	79
FIGURE 4.9: RATINGS OF BOYS AND GIRLS ON MOTHER RATING SELF	80
FIGURE 4.10: RATINGS OF BOYS AND GIRLS ON THE TEACHER RATING BEHAVIOUR	81

CHAPTER 1:

PROBLEM ANALYSIS AND PROJECT PLANNING

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Authorities on child development have generally accepted the assumption that parents, as primary caregivers, exert the original and perhaps the most significant influence on the development of the child's present and future emotional health. (Leslie in Pretorius, 2000:1). A child's development is therefore strongly influenced by the immediate family - particularly by their home environment, their social environment and the culture in which they grow up (Louw, D. A., Louw, A. E. & Van Ede, D. M., 1998:234). The development of children's learned social skills and behaviours is subject to significant moulding and modification by the environments in which they grow and develop.

Therefore the relationship between a parent and child is of utmost importance – the nature of interaction, discipline and dealing with the child's behaviour and emotions have an impact on the developing child. The example set by parents is extremely important as a basis for interpersonal relations and social behaviour. The researcher is therefore of the opinion that child-rearing practices, as an environmentally orientated developmental process, play an important role in the child's development and how children carry themselves in life.

According to Gottman (1997), children have become more nervous and irritable, more sulky and moody, more depressed and lonely, more impulsive and disobedient. This was found by a nationwide random sample of more than two thousand American children, as rated by parents and teachers. The question arises whether similar scenarios occur within the South African context. These abovementioned traits have been observed and identified by the researcher, as well as the teachers from the Evergreen pre-primary environment, situated in Pretoria, South Africa. Brink (2006:37-44) emphasises that there are a variety of behavioural and emotional difficulties experienced by children, especially within the South African context: Lack of responsibility, lack of respect for adults, inability to delay gratification, lack of boundaries, inability to play, lack of motivation, lack of empathy for others and the child being over assertive.

The researcher, as a pre-primary educator, daily observes the behaviour of five-year old children within the pre-primary field as well as the interaction styles between these children and their parents. The researcher is of the opinion that parents do not have the necessary styles to cope with these five-year olds, which causes more problems for the educator. Given the substantial role families play in children's lives, the researcher is of the opinion that this must be further investigated. The current study therefore aims to contribute to existing literature by obtaining better understanding of the parenting styles used on the developing child by focusing on the five-year old group.

The study was done at Evergreen pre-primary in Gauteng and the focus will be on the parents of the five-year old group. The typical stage of development of a five-year old is the early childhood years, which lasts from about the age of two to the age of six. During this stage of development, certain behaviours such as walking, talking or the emergence of a sense of self, occurs (Louw *et al.* 1998:238). This highlights the researcher's opinion that parents are still seen as the role models for their children and that appropriate parenting styles within this age group are vital.

The way in which a parent raises his child is considered a parenting style (Louw *et al.* 1998:351). Several authors (compare Ayers, 2002:151; Gottman, 1997:50-52; Louw *et al.* 1998:351-352) agree upon four styles of parenting namely the *Permissive Parent*, *Authoritarian Parent*, *Uninvolved Parent* and the *Authoritative Parent*. There are different dimensions within each parenting styles and each style is important as it focuses on certain interactional patterns and will be discussed accordingly.

A parent showing little interest in what the child is trying to communicate and ridiculing a child's emotions, believing that children's feelings are irrational, is seen as the *permissive parent*. The permissive parent is also known as the dismissing parent and tends not to problem-solve with the child. (compare Ayers, 2002:151; Gottman, 1997:50-52; Louw *et al.* 1998:351-352.)

Within the *authoritarian*, also known as the disapproving parent, the style used is reprimanding, disciplining or punishing the child for emotional expression, whether the child is misbehaving or not. The parent believes the child uses negative emotions

to manipulate and they believe that negative emotions show bad character traits. (compare Ayers, 2002:151; Gottman, 1997:50-52; Louw *et al.* 1998:351-352.)

The *uninvolved parent* tends to be permissive and does not set limits. This type of parent is also known as the laissez-faire parent who offers little guidance on behaviour and does not teach the child problem-solving skills. (compare Ayers, 2002:151; Gottman, 1997:50-52; Louw *et al.* 1998:351-352.)

The *authoritative parent*, or emotion coach, uses emotional moments as a time to listen to the child. The parent empathizes with the child by using soothing words of affection; helps the child label the emotion he/she is feeling and offers guidance on regulating emotions. (compare Ayers, 2002:151; Gottman, 1997:50-52; Louw *et al.* 1998:351-352.)

For the purpose of the current study, the focus will be on the three main types of parenting styles, namely the *Permissive Parent*, *Authoritarian Parent* and the *Authoritative Parent*. According to Pretorius (2000:6) other parenting styles have been conceptualised, but these three main types are commonly studied.

Specific child-rearing techniques may lead to certain behavioural consequences such as delinquency and aggression among those whose parents are either harsh, excessively lenient or inconsistent. Gottman (1997:101) emphasises the importance of the parents' role by stating that parents need to examine themselves or be more aware of themselves. Farrell (1995:3) describes how parents may have problems in coping with day-to-day life to the extent that there is little space left to devote to being an effective and loving parent. Lerner *et al* (1995) states that values about child-rearing therefore may affect the behaviours developed by a child and can have implications for whether the child survives developmentally. It therefore seems, according to the researcher, that more in-depth investigations about the importance of parental styles are required.

In the following part of the chapter the motivation for the research is discussed, including the definition of the research problem as well as the goal and objectives of

the study. Thereafter the research methodology is described as well as the preliminary inquiry with regards to potential problems and challenges. Finally, the key concepts are defined.

1.2. RATIONALE AND PROBLEM FOR STUDY

1.2.1 Motivation And Problem Statement

There are many books and guidelines for parents on how to deal with their children and how to go about raising their children to ensure good behaviour or coping skills. However, little seems to be known about the nature of the parenting styles used on specifically five-year olds.

The researcher has a social work degree and a pre-school teaching background of eight years. At the moment, the researcher has a teaching position at Evergreen pre-primary. With the researcher's experience of interacting with both the children in the five-year old group and their parents, it was noticed that there is a dire need to research which parenting styles are used on five-year olds that may cause the children to display certain social behaviours.

Louw *et al* (1998:288-290) describes behaviour by dividing it into two components, namely antisocial and pro-social behaviour. Antisocial behaviour is defined as aggressive behaviour - a negative social activity that brings about antagonism in the child's relationship with his environment. From years of experience within the teaching profession, the researcher observed several forms of antisocial behaviour that often occurs within the five-year old group. The behaviour that is displayed tends to be selfishness, taking other children's toys, telling lies and forms of physical aggression. Harris and Liebert (1992:345) state that lying tends to escalate around the age of five. A South African study by Lidell *et al* (1993:551) emphasises that negative activities such as teasing, crying, fighting and refusing to comply, are evident among five-year old boys and girls.

On the other hand, pro-social behaviour as stated by Louw *et al* (1998:288) is characterised by positive social interaction, including cooperation, helpfulness and a willingness to give, for example a child who is willing to share his toys. However, the

researcher is aware that these types of behaviour need to be viewed within the developmental context of the five-year old group and labelling behaviour as pro- or antisocial needs to be considered carefully.

Loxton (2005:126) contributes by stating that the process of positive parental identification promotes the child's sense of competence. A positive parental identification may therefore, according to the researcher, promote pro-social behaviour. Among the five-year old children at pre-school level the researcher has noticed a repeated pattern of certain *less acceptable social behaviours* such as the following: bullying, teasing, pushing, hitting, punching, disturbing the class or disturbing someone else's game. The researcher is of the opinion that these *less acceptable social behaviours* may therefore possibly be related to a less positive parental association.

Erikson, as cited in Louw *et al* (1998:68), views development according to an epigenetic chart, stating that development takes place in accordance with a genetically determined plan. The stage applicable to the five-year old group is the initiative versus guilt stage, which lasts from approximately age three to six. This stage is characterised by the task of learning to show initiative while at the same time overcoming a feeling of guilt. The child is more independent so now he can explore his world. He makes more contact with people around him and learns how to manipulate all sorts of things. The child's achievement of access to society often brings him to situations in which the child acts against society's rules and trespasses other people's domain. The child therefore often has to cope with feelings of guilt (Louw *et al*. 1998:68). The researcher is of the opinion that parents find it challenging to manage this particular behaviour within the five-year old group.

A recent study indicated that general education teachers reported that on average one in five of their students exhibited disruptive/off-task behaviour and one in twenty exhibited aggressive behaviour to the point where intervention was necessary, Lewis (in Clough, 2005:261). Lidell, C., Kvalsvig, J., Shabalala, A., Strydom, N. & Qotyana, P. (1993:557) found in a South African study, when comparing the social aspects of the African five-year old to the Euro-American five-year old, that fidgeting and fighting commonly occur within this age group.

On the other hand, Pretorius (2000:2) states that anxious and fearful children are often well behaved and are typically less disruptive around their parents and teachers than children with externalising behaviour. A further statistic indicated by Gottman (1997) reflects a nationwide random sample of more than two thousand American children. These children were rated by their parents and teachers and the study found a long-term trend for children on average indicating a decline in basic emotional and social skills.

The above statistics form the basis for this study, as behaviours of the students cannot be controlled even by the teacher and actually require intervention. This illustrates the necessity to identify whether the parenting styles have an effect on the child's behaviour, in order to prevent a repeat of unacceptable social behaviour or lead into any form of intervention or detrimental consequences.

The researcher has observed in a school environment that children, especially in the five-year old group, do not know how to handle day-to-day events. They seem to struggle to overcome a problem situation, have a low self-esteem, have difficulty academically or don't get along well with others. Within the developmental context of the five-year old, these traits cause concern and necessities determining the factors that may contribute to these traits.

As Zirpoli (1995:78) states: "Caregivers promote the development of children's consciences and self-control through positive guidance techniques including: setting clear limits in a positive manner; involving children in problem solving or meeting with the children's parents". The caregivers may be there to guide the child only in the school setting but the parent is the role model for the child to be prepared for the greater society.

The researcher is of the opinion that parents are primarily responsible for the socialization of their children, that is, for encouraging them to adapt to the values of society and for facilitating their optimal social and emotional development. These children are the future adults and they need to understand how to behave appropriately and how to cope to succeed in the matters of life - for themselves and others around them. The styles parents utilise to raise their children may have a

significant impact on these facets of children's lives. Therefore, certain parenting styles may contribute towards antisocial behaviours, and certain parenting styles may contribute towards pro-social behaviours. Determining the usage of the more favourable parenting style will assist educators and parents to better manage less acceptable social behaviour.

1.3 Goals and Objectives

1.3.1 Goals

De Vos (2005:404) refers to the goals of a study as being the outcomes that are desired from a specific research project.

The goal of this study is to determine the nature of parenting styles used on five-year olds at Evergreen pre-primary, Gauteng.

1.3.2 Objectives

Objectives, as explained by Fouché (2005:107), are seen as steps taken in achieving the desired research goal.

In order to reach the goal of the study, the following objectives were set:

- a) To do a literature study in order to gain further insight on the topic of parenting styles and gain information on the impact it has on five-year olds, with a specific focus on the different forms of behaviours expressed by this age group.
- b) To use a questionnaire, given to both parents of each child in the five-year old group at Evergreen pre-primary in Gauteng, to identify what types of parenting styles are used.
- c) To use a questionnaire, given to the teacher of the five-year old group at Evergreen pre-primary in Gauteng, to identify what types of social behaviours were displayed in a week by each five-year old.
- d) To provide, analyze and describe results from the completed questionnaires.
- e) To provide conclusions and possible recommendations.

1.3.3 Hypothesis For The Study

Research gives rise to the development of a research problem, which takes on the form of a testable hypothesis. Fouche (2002:16) adds that when using a quantitative approach, as used in this research, a research problem and hypothesis are formed.

A hypothesis is a conjectural statement of the relation between two or more variables. Hypotheses are always in declarative sentence form, and they relate, either generally or specifically, variable to variables. (Kerlinger in De Vos 2002:36.) The hypotheses that guided the study are applicable to the three tests conducted in the research – therefore each hypothesis refers to the pre-, post- and follow-up testing. To avoid repetition, this is not mentioned after each hypothesis.

The following hypothesis guided the study:

Hypothesis 0: Parenting styles do not affect the behaviour of the five-year olds.

Hypothesis 1: Parenting styles do affect the behaviour of five-year olds.

1.4 RESEARCH APPROACH

1.4.1 Quantitative Approach

De Vos (2005:73-74) and Neuman (1997:14) state that the quantitative approach's main aims are to objectively measure the social world, to test hypotheses and to predict and control human behaviour. A quantitative study may therefore be defined as an inquiry into a social or human problem, based on testing a theory composed of variables, measured with numbers and analysed with statistical procedures in order to determine whether the predictive generalisations of the theory hold true.

A quantitative approach will be used for this study to assess the common type of parenting style used among the parents of the five-year old group at Evergreen pre-primary in Gauteng, South Africa.

1.4.2 Type Of Research

The type of research used in this study is applied research, which is aimed at solving specific problems or at helping accomplish tasks (Fouché & De Vos, 2005:105). Applied research focuses on solving problems in practice and correlates with the aim of this study.

The type of applied research used in this study is exploratory. Exploratory research is conducted to gain insight into a situation, community or individual. A “what” question would constitute an exploratory study (Fouché & De Vos, 2005:106).

The researcher, being in the pre-primary environment and noticing a repeated pattern of certain behaviours, felt a need to identify and have a better understanding of the types of parenting styles used on five-year olds. The study therefore aims to provide insight on the parenting styles used by parents on five-year old children at Evergreen pre-primary, Gauteng.

1.5 Research Design

A research design as Strydom (2005:252) defines it, is a plan or blueprint of how research will be conducted. It focuses on the end product, formulates a research problem as a point of departure and focuses on the logic of research. The research design for the proposed study will be a survey.

1.5.1 Survey

A survey is where the researcher asks people questions in a written questionnaire, and then records the answers. The researcher does not manipulate the situation. The researcher summarizes answers to questions in percentages, tables or graphs. According to Neuman (1997:31) surveys give the researcher a picture of what many people think or report doing.

A questionnaire, the Parenting Styles and Dimensions Questionnaire (PSDQ) as developed by Robinson, Mandleco, Olsen and Hart (2001), was used and handed out to both parents of each child within the five-year old group at Evergreen pre-primary. This 32-item questionnaire was designed by the abovementioned authors, to assess constellations of parenting behaviours (styles) that create a pervasive interactional climate over a wide range of situations (Robinson in Pretorius, 2000:14).

The PSDQ was developed to allow responses of a parent concerning his own parenting styles as well as the same parent's opinion of his spouse's parenting style. The PSDQ was used to obtain an overall indication of the parenting styles of the participants. The researcher has gained permission by the author Robinson, to conduct research with the PSD-Questionnaire. Refer to the attached **Addendum D (page 106)** for a copy of the PSDQ.

The Behavioural Questionnaire (BQ) was developed by the researcher. The BQ was used and distributed to the teacher of the five-year old group to rate the behaviour of

each five-year old over the span of four days. Refer to the attached **Addendum E (page 113)** for a copy of the BQ.

1.5.2 Questionnaires Delivered By Hand

The researcher delivered the questionnaires by hand so that respondents could complete them in their own time. The questionnaires were collected again later. According to Delport (2005:168) questionnaires should be collected by no later than 48 hours after delivery. This was strived for and achieved in this study.

Questionnaires were handed out to both parents of each child within the five-year old group at Evergreen pre-primary in order to obtain information. Parents were able to comment on their own parenting styles, as well as their opinion of their spouses' styles.

Questionnaires were also handed out to the teacher of the five-year old group at Evergreen pre-primary in order to obtain information on each child's behaviour within the span of four days.

1.6 RESEARCH AND WORK PROCEDURES

1.6.1 Participants

The population from which the researcher selected the participants were both parents of each five-year old pre-school child at Evergreen pre-primary. Evergreen pre-primary is a nursery school in Gauteng.

16 girls and 9 boys form part of the group of 25 children in the five-year old group. The average medium of communication within the five-year old group is English. The different cultures represented in this group are Japanese, Afrikaans, Israeli, Greek, British, Italian, Danish, Portuguese, American and South African.

The school has been contacted regarding the proposed study and a letter was sent to parents requesting their participation in the study. According to the preference of the participants, the research had to be conducted in English. The researcher was not using assistants to aid in conducting the research.

1.6.2 Procedures

The principal of the relevant school (Evergreen pre-primary) was contacted during which the objectives and procedures of the research were explained to her. A schedule of the research procedure was provided to the principal as well. The principal of the school gave permission for the research to be conducted.

A newsletter was sent out to the parents of the five-year old group explaining the researcher's goal of the study, the procedures of the research and what is required of parents during the study.

In an attempt to consult experts on the feasibility of the study and to obtain additional information, appointments were made with experts working actively within the area of child development and parental guidance. An appointment was made with a clinical psychologist to obtain additional information on the common behaviours of a five-year old. A play therapist was consulted for guidance on methods or styles parents should use to enhance a five-year old child's positive behaviour and coping skills. The PSDQ was handed out to parents. The parents answered the questionnaires in their own environment and brought the questionnaire back to school.

1.6.3 Viability Of Study

The value of this study is to obtain information on the different parenting styles used on five-year olds. This research aims to enlighten parents with information on parenting styles used within this age group. Parents of the particular group being studied will benefit from the results of the proposed research by receiving valuable and practical feedback after completion of the study.

As experts in the field, a play therapist, clinical psychologist and a principal welcomed this type of study. By conducting the study, the researcher gained more knowledge on children's behaviours and parenting styles which can be implemented during her daily interaction with the five-year old group.

1.6.3.1 Literature Study

Literature is needed to gain knowledge and insight on a topic. Theories guided the study before data collection took place. The main literature referred to was Ayers (2002), Baron (1997), Clough (2005), Farrell (1995), Gottman (1997), Louw *et al*

(1998), Loxton (2005) and Zirpoli (1995). Each of these authors focused on the parenting styles referred to in this study.

The primary sources used for the research was taken from Neuman (1997) and De Vos (2005) in order to elaborate exactly the procedure of study carried forward.

1.6.3.2 Consultation With Experts

The following experts were consulted:

- **Dr Marietjie Yssel** is a play therapist with years of experience in the field of her own private practice dealing with children and their parents. Dr Yssel provided guidance to the researcher on methods and styles parents should use to enhance a five-year old child's positive behaviour and coping skills.

- **Mrs Marita Rademeyer** is a clinical psychologist working for Die Kindertrauma Kliniek. Having this as her own business and dealing with children in her practice, she was able to inform the researcher on more detail of the social behaviours of the five-year old.

- **Mrs Louise Stevens** of Evergreen pre-primary, the educator/ principal, has had many years of experience and is a qualified educator as well as a businesswoman in running a business that deals with parents and the behaviour of children. The principal of the school has given the researcher the opportunity for the study to be performed at her school as it can be beneficial to her school and the parents that send their children to Evergreen pre-primary to gain insight on parenting styles.

1.6.3.3 Description Of Universe, Sample And Sampling Techniques

a) Universe

Neuman (1997:122) states that a universe is a group or category of people, organizations or other units. De Vos (2005:193) adds that a universe refers to all potential subjects who possess the attributes in which the researcher is interested.

In this study the universe would be *the parents of all five-year olds in South Africa*.

b) Population

De Vos (2005:193) states: "Population... is a term that sets boundaries on the study units. It refers to individuals in the universe who possess specific characteristics".

The *working universe* or target population is much smaller. It consists of those in the category of interest who could actually be selected for the sample (Neuman, 1997:203 and Hall, 1996:107).

In the researcher's study the population would be *both parents of each child within the five-year old group at Evergreen pre-primary, Gauteng.*

c) Sample And Criteria

Several authors (compare De Vos, 2005:194; Hall, 1996:107 and Neuman, 1997:201) agree that a sample consists of people included in the study who together comprise certain elements or characters valuable to the study. As the population, as discussed above, is so small, the population and sample will be similar. In the researcher's study the sample would therefore be *both parents of each five-year old at Evergreen pre-primary.*

No exclusion criteria was applicable for the purpose of this study. As there is only one class with five-year olds at Evergreen pre-primary, it was a multi-cultural sample, predominantly English speaking.

A cross-cultural South African study by Gerdes *et al* (in Pretorius, 2000:9) found cross-cultural differences regarding different aspects of parental styles, such as task load, role uncertainty, perceptions and degree of involvement. However the study maintained that similarities between cultural groupings outweighed differences between the different groups. Therefore, caution was taken against the generalisation of results obtained in this research, especially concerning the different cultural groups and the possible influence of cultural factors.

Every parent within the five-year old group was included in the study. Fifty parents, both mothers and fathers of each child, therefore completed the questionnaire.

d) Non-Probability Sampling

As De Vos (2005:201) states: "In non-probability sampling the odds of selecting a particular individual are not known..."

Non-probability sampling was used, as not all pupils were at the pre-school on the day that the questionnaires were handed out, due to absenteeism. Therefore, some parents did not receive a questionnaire.

The type of non-probability sampling chosen for this study was the *purposive sampling*. This type of sample is based entirely on the judgement of the researcher, in that a sample is composed of elements that contain the most characteristic or typical attributes of the population (De Vos, 2005: 202 and Neuman, 1997:202).

e) Problems Foreseen

The following problems have been foreseen during the research process:

- Absenteeism of children within the five-year old group;
- Uncooperative parents;
- Parents not answering the questionnaire comprehensively and truthfully;
- Divorce or custody matters resulting in the parent not living with the child;
- Death of a parent;
- Questionnaires not being returned.

1.7 ETHICAL ASPECTS

Ethics is a set of moral principles, suggested by an individual or group, that is widely accepted, and offers rules and behavioural expectations about the most correct conduct towards experimental subjects, respondents and researchers (De Vos 2005:57).

The study did not harm the respondents in any way. Before handing out any questionnaires it was monitored by the supervisor of the research study as well as the principal of the school where the forms were distributed. Nobody should ever be coerced into participating in a research project, because participation must always be voluntary (De Vos, 2005:59).

The researcher gave out a formal letter to the parents to **inform** them of the goal of the investigation and what procedures would follow regarding both questionnaires (PSDQ and BQ). This gave the respondents the opportunity to withdraw if they felt uncomfortable.

Confidentiality indicates the handling of information in a confidential manner (De Vos, 2005:61). The researcher made it clear to the respondents that the questionnaire would be **anonymous** and handled confidentially to ensure the privacy of the respondents.

The researcher ensured that the study ran its course in an ethical manner. Respecting the respondents and following the rules of the research plan were incorporated. The researcher would not have continued with the investigation without the approval of the supervisor and principal. This study was completed with the guidance and co-operation of a supervisor.

The findings of the study must be introduced to the reading public in written form; otherwise even a highly scientific investigation will mean very little and will not be viewed as research (Strydom, 2005:65). The **results and the conclusion of the study** were made available for those interested. Feedback to the parents was done on request.

De Vos (2005:66) states: “**Debriefing** sessions during which subjects get the opportunity, after the study, to work through their experience and its aftermath, are one possible way in which the researcher can assist subjects and minimise harm”. The researcher would be available should there be any parents in need of debriefing. In this case it seemed minimal.

1.8. DEFINITIONS OF TERMS AND KEY CONCEPTS

The following concepts will be defined:

1.8.1 Parenting Styles

Several authors (compare Louw *et al.* 1998:351 and Lopez, 2004) agree upon a parenting style being the way in which parents bring up their children. As the researcher agrees with the above-mentioned authors, the definition of parenting styles for the purpose of this study will be: *The way in which the parents raise their children.*

1.8.2 Five-Year Olds

A five-year old is categorised within the early childhood years of development. Certain behaviours, such as walking, talking and the emergence of a sense of self occur (Louw *et al.* 1998:238). Characteristics identified by Louw *et al.* (1998:249 - 278) as milestones achieved at the age of five:

- Gender identity at the age of five to seven, children begin to understand that their sex never changes.
- Emotional expression is more spontaneous.

- A five-year old is egocentric, therefore viewing the world from his own personal perspective, with limited understanding of someone else's perspective.

For the purpose of this study, a five-year old will be defined as *“a child of five years of age within the early childhood years of development”*.

1.9 RESEARCH REPORT LAYOUT AND TIME SPAN

The study consists of five chapters. The composition of the dissertation will be as follows:

In **chapter one** the arrangement and the nature of the research study are explained. This includes the progress of the research, from the problem formulation to research approach, design, sampling and ethical aspects.

In **chapter two** the development status of pre-school children will be discussed and elaborated and definitions of concepts concerning certain social behaviours among five-year old children will be given.

In **chapter three** information on different parenting styles used will be defined and explained. Acceptable and less acceptable behaviour will be discussed.

In **chapter four**, the empirical research, which includes the analysis and graphic representation of data, will be discussed.

In **chapter five**, the researcher reaches certain deductions and conclusions from the research. Feedback and suggestions concerning parenting styles for the five-year old group will be made.

1.10 CONCLUSION

In this chapter the reader was provided with an introduction to Parenting Styles. Methodology of the research conducted was included, highlighting the intended goals and objectives. Description of the research design was outlined and emphasis was placed on the sample. A brief explanation of the instrument PSDQ (Parenting Styles and Dimensions Questionnaire), to measure parenting styles used by the parents of the five-year old group. An explanation of the instrument BQ (Behavioural Questionnaire) was also given, to measure the behaviour of the five-year old group.

In the following chapter in-depth focus is placed upon the development of the pre-school child.

CHAPTER 2: DEVELOPMENT OF THE PRE-SCHOOL CHILD

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Human development can be defined as the systematic changes and continuities in an individual that occur between conception and death. This implies that there is an orderly, patterned and relatively enduring quality to these changes, whether it is in the individual's structure, thought, behaviour or all of the above (Loxton, 2005:1). For the purpose of this study, development will focus on the pre-school child.

The development of the pre-school child lasts from about the age of two to the age of six (Louw *et al.* 1998:234-269). The terms pre-school years and early childhood years are similar in most aspects, the key factor being that it falls within the three- to six-year old continuum. This study will focus on the five-year old age group. From the researcher's teaching experience the typical five-year old child is usually attending pre-school, interacting with peers and developing relationships as well as developing the required skills to cope in society.

Chapter two aims to describe the development of the pre-school child, specifically the five-year old. As this study aims to encapsulate the social behaviour of the five-year old, a more detailed discussion will follow on providing an understanding of what social behaviour entails, as well as what may be viewed as acceptable social behaviour and less acceptable social behaviour within this age group.

2.2 DEVELOPMENT IN EARLY CHILDHOOD YEARS

The researcher noted that the following developmental theorists categorise the five-year old within the early childhood years: Freud; Erikson; Piaget and Kohlberg. Table 2.1 (page 19), provides a summary of several theories and their perspectives on the early childhood years.

Table 2.1: PERSPECTIVES ON DEVELOPMENT IN EARLY CHILDHOOD YEARS

Developmental perspective/ theory	Theorist	Area of focus	Growth and Development	Most important event
1. Psychoanalytical approach	Freud	Structural Model: Id; ego and super ego Five psycho-sexual stages: Oral; anal; phallic; latent and genital stages	Sexual latency: five-year old identifies with parent of same sex	Parent, peers of same sex
2. Psychosocial approach	Erikson	Eight psychosocial stages (of which only the third stage applies to the five-year old): initiative vs guilt	The five-year old is more assertive and takes more initiative, but may be too forceful, leading to guilt feelings	Independence
3. Cognitive theory	Piaget	Intellectual development in stages according to chronological age	Preoperational stage. The five-year old is more imaginative, egocentric, intuitive, focusing on only one aspect of stimulus	Imaginative Play
4. Sociocultural theory	Vygotsky	Five-year olds are affected by their particular socio-cultural interaction and subcultures	Five-year olds develop through social interaction with significant people in their lives, particularly parents, but also other adults, through interactions the five-year old learns habits of culture and increases independency and skills.	Parents, teacher, friends, culture
5. Moral development theory	Kohlberg	Pre-conventional moral reasoning	Pre-conventional stage. Obedience and punishment orientation Self-interest orientation (<i>what's in it for me?</i>)	Parents, pre-school, friends
6. Behaviourism/ Social learning	Bandura	Conditioning Reinforcement Modelling and observation	The five-year olds' behaviour is learned through observation and modelling of parents who provide the "scaffolding" for future learning. Learning more social skills	Parents
7. Attachment theory	Bowlby	Caretaker is most important	Attachment figure: Secure attachment with a caregiver that provides a secure base and comfort for the five-year old's future exploration	Parents, caregiver, teacher
8. Gestalt theory	Gestalt	Contact with environment.	Awareness: The five-year old developing as a whole by being aware and in contact with the elements of the environment	Environment like parents, significant others and pre-school

(Chart adapted from Austrian: 2002; Burger: 1990 and Louw et al. 1998: 42-80)

A detailed discussion of the theorists and their perspectives, in relation to Table 2.1 (page 19), will be provided accordingly. The discussion will focus on the five-year old.

2.2.1 Freud's Psychoanalytical Approach

Freud formulated the **structural model** (see Table 2.1, page 19) describing it as the structure of human personality, dividing the personality into the *id*, the *ego*, and the *superego*. **Freud** maintained that at birth there is but one personality structure, the **id**. Actions taken by the id are based on the **pleasure principle**. That is, the id is concerned only with what brings immediate personal satisfaction, regardless of any physical or social limitations (Austrian, 2002:12).

As children interact with their environment during the first two years of life, the second part of the personality structure gradually develops. The actions of the **ego** are based on the **reality principle**. That is, the primary job of the ego is to satisfy id impulses, but in a manner that is socially acceptable.

By the time the child is five-years old, the third part of the personality structure, the **superego**, is formed. The superego represents society's - and in particular, the parents' - values and standards. The superego places more restrictions on what we can and cannot do, in other words the superego is also known as the "**conscience**". (compare Austrian, 2002:12-13; Burger, 1990:55-56.)

Austrian (2002:16) states that the superego begins to develop at about five-years of age and is firmly established between ages nine and eleven. The child identifies with and internalizes the standards, morality and prohibitions of the parent. The superego is affected by the conscience that alerts the person to what is unacceptable and includes the ego deal, which **Freud** felt represents what is acceptable according to parental expectations and morals.

Furthermore **Freud** developed five psycho-sexual stages (see Table 2.1, page 19) within the psychoanalytical approach: the oral, anal, phallic, latent and genital stages. The latent stage applies to the five-year old and covers the period from age five to the beginning of puberty. (compare Gerdes, 1998:103; Louw *et al.* 1998:43.)

According to Freud's theory the children in the five-years of age group, develop a sexual attraction for their opposite sex parent. Thus, young boys have strong incestuous desires toward their mothers, while young girls have similar feelings toward their fathers. Children are not without their share of fear about this situation. Boys may develop a fear that their fathers will discover their thoughts and cut off the son's penis (castration anxiety). As for girls, they are said to have penis envy, the desire to have a penis and feelings of inferiority and jealousy because of its absence. Children eventually repress their desire for their opposite sex parent.

Then, as a type of reaction formation, children identify with the parent of the same sex. By identifying with the same sex parent, boys begin to take on masculine characteristics, and girls, feminine characteristics. Identification with the parents is also congruent with the development of the superego. This is the age at which the child adopts the values and standards of the parents, in the form of the superego. Therefore the child passes into the **latent stage**, during which boys and girls seem uninterested in each other. Any playground will verify that boys play with boys and girls play with girls. (compare Burger, 1990:62-63; Louw *et al.* 1998:47.)

This illustrates that a five-year old child develops a conscience, understands what is expected of him or her and at the same time develops same sex relationships, having female or male characteristics relating to one another. This can be observed on most pre-school playgrounds.

2.2.2 Erikson's Psychosocial Approach

The five-year olds begin to devote themselves to learning their gender role. For the first time there is a clear difference between the social behaviour of boys and girls, which brings about the next perspective (Erik Erikson, [sa]).

Erikson's psychosocial approach (see Table 2.1, page 19) indicates that the five-year old is characterised by the task of learning to show initiative while at the same time overcoming a feeling of guilt. The five-year old's greater freedom of movement and autonomy enables them to act more independently than before so that they can now begin to explore their world with a new sense of purpose. The five-year old can make contact with a wider circle of people and learn how to manipulate all sorts of

things or to gain power over their parents (Erikson, 1968:111). Louw *et al.* (1998:53) adds that this stage, specifically for the five-year old, is characterised by the ability to strive for goals purposefully and confidently, without feeling guilty about it and without taking initiative that could be offensive to others.

Erikson (1968:118-119) elaborates on the basic social modalities suggesting enjoyment of competition, insistence on goal, pleasure of conquest. The five-year old develops the prerequisites for masculine or feminine initiative and, above all, some sexual images which will become essential ingredients in the positive and negative aspects of future identity. A deep sense of guilt is awakened by a vastly increased imagination leading to secret fantasies of terrifying proportions. The greater governor of initiative is conscience. The five-year old not only feels afraid of being found out, but they also hear the “inner voice” of self-observation, self-guidance and self-punishment, which divides them radically within themselves, a new and powerful estrangement. This is the cornerstone of morality. The psychosocial approach of **Erikson** will be elaborated on later in this chapter (see Table 2.2, page 31).

In this study, it is discovered that the five-year old portrays more independent skills, enabling them to make more choices on their own, to use their own initiative and at the same time being able to distinguish what is right or wrong, relating to the conscience as discussed in the previous paragraphs.

2.2.3 Piaget's Cognitive Theory

According to **Piaget's** cognitive theory (see Table 2.1, page 19) the five-year old falls under the pre-operational stage (Louw *et al.* 1998:77). **Piaget** divides the pre-operational stage into pre-conceptual thought (2-4 years) and intuitive thought (4-7 years) (Louw *et al.* 1998:77).

Intuitive thought for the five-year old refers to thinking that is not based on logic, but on perceptions from which conclusions are drawn. Intuitive thought is shown in the inability of the five-year old to understand the length, quantity, volume or mass of a substance. The child is acquiring a greater ability to retain symbols. **Piaget** referred to this as the *semiotic function* that enables the child to represent something absent by an object, a word, or a mental symbol. This goes beyond time and space. The

semiotic function uses mental symbols, language and symbolic play. **Piaget** called the ability to use symbols “preoperational intelligence” (Austrian, 2002:56).

Gerdes (1998:96) states: “Many mechanisms are functioning and ready to develop with astonishing speed. For example, at birth the baby’s brain is about one quarter of its adult weight, at six months approximately one half, at two and a half years it is 75 per cent and by age of five it has reached about 90 per cent of adult weight.” Adding to this, Gerdes (1998:105) mentions the simple task of thinking and how the thinking of young children is different from that of adults in specific ways:

- A child acts before he thinks: he learns through doing and the consequences of such doing.
- The distinction between reality and fantasy is blurred in the first few years of life: what the child ‘sees’ in its imagination or dreams is ‘**real**’ for it, so the monster it visualises **exists**.
- Under the age of four children find it difficult to concentrate on more than one thing at a time and are unable to link different events with one another. Piaget, who did pioneering work on the intellectual development of children, suggests that they see things in a rather disconnected way, like seeing each picture separately in a slow motion movie but without grasping the sequence of events or the whole picture. Five-year olds start to grasp this concept.
- The child under four has a very subjective view of the world and assumes that the way he sees the world is also the way it is seen by everyone else. Consequently, a child is unable to see viewpoints other than its own. Piaget refers to this tendency as egocentric.
- Comparisons are not fully understood by pre-schoolers: although they may use the words ‘bigger’, ‘smaller’, and so on, they often do not clearly understand the comparison implied.
- The child believes what he sees. If milk is poured from a jug into three mugs, it cannot yet grasp that the amount of milk has not changed. Change in shape or appearance to it means change in substance or volume.

In order for language to develop appropriately, the cognitive level, one of many tasks, needed to be reached. Language is unique to humans and without it culture and civilisation as we know it, would not exist. The researcher is of the opinion that the development of language is a fundamental part of being human. Like most other development it begins early in rudimentary form and follows a certain sequence.

Small (1990:177) states that early in the pre-school years, children begin to acquire a language. This accomplishment entails several prerequisite cognitive skills. These include knowledge of objects and events, the ability to organise a whole into its parts, the ability to form categories, the ability to learn and manipulate symbols, the ability to use language as a tool, the ability to understand and produce sequences of actions and the intention to communicate with others.

Gerdes (1998:106) gives examples of the sequence of language development. For example, crying is the baby's first form of communication. Gradually **babytalk** is initiated by the child's version of a word, as when a banana is a 'nana'. Pronunciation starts improving, vocabulary increases and words are put together to form simple sentences. By the age of approximately four/ five, a child reaches the '**why**', '**what**', '**how**' stage. Endless questions test a parent's patience, knowledge and ingenuity.

Piaget believed that language from ages two to four is initially egocentric, conveying facts and criticisms, not explaining anything to others, with little sense of causality and based on the assumption that others will agree. While the child from ages four to seven may show a decline in egocentric language, the child's awareness of others' point of view is still limited. The child may also fantasise that words will accomplish what actions have not been able to do. As children interact more with other children, they will repeat what the others say in what Piaget referred to as a collective monologue. By the age of five the child develops the capacity to reason (Austrian, 2002:57).

The above describes how the cognitive level of the five-year old is understanding concepts, having the knowledge and the ability to learn and manipulate symbols. At this age the child can communicate intentions, likes and dislikes and is socially competent.

The five-year old's language skills will be discussed in further detail by looking at the next section of Vygotsky.

2.2.4 Vygotsky's Sociocultural Theory

Piaget's cognitive theory becomes intertwined with **Vygotsky's** sociocultural theory (see Table 2.1, page 19) which indicates the five-year old's ability to use language to communicate needs. He also use language to communicate ideas and to comment on situations. The five-year old is able to also use language to establish and maintain relationships, giving him the opportunity to share his feelings with others.

Piaget characterised the thinking of a small child (3 to 5 years) with two main features: egocentrism and primitivism. The young child's behaviour is characterised by disassociation from the world and concentration on the self, concentration on own interests and pleasure (Knox, 1993:151).

As one theorist's perspective influences another, **Vygotsky's** main contribution to development is his view that the five-year old's cognitive development as reflected by Piaget (see Table 2.1, page 19), is socially mediated and promoted through interaction with competent others. **Vygotsky's** theory (see Table 2.1, page 19) helps explain the wide variation in cognitive skills across cultures. It is therefore important to look at the settings of the five-year old when growing up in order to understand his thinking (Louw *et al.* 1998:89).

Knox (1993:151) refers to how **Vygotsky** talks about the first five years in a child's life as being years of a primitive isolated existence and of establishing the most elementary, most primitive (fundamental, basic, primary) connections with the world. In the initial stages of child development, it does not matter to the child how accurate or efficient his thinking is especially within the first encounter of reality. Often their thinking is not aimed at regulating and organising an efficient adaptation to the external world. Sometimes their thinking does function in this way but they still do so primitively with those imperfect tools that a child has at his disposal and that requires prolonged development to become effective.

Furthermore, Knox (1993:29) states that in **Vygotsky's** work, schooling proves to be a pivotal point in development because it provides many cultural tools, which allows a pre-schooler to perform tasks. Development of literacy and numeric operations and

development of attention and memory- all extremely important within the early childhood development.

Five-year olds may still may continue confusing dreams with reality and may hatch up unusually vivid fantasies, which for them are often a substitute for reality. This feature of primitive psychology is particularly vividly displayed in children's play. For the five-year olds, the primitive picture of the world is undoubtedly a picture where the boundaries between real perceptions and fantasy are erased. Much time has to pass before these two will become differentiated and not confused (Knox, 1993:149).

The study shows how the five-year old is able to also use language to establish and maintain relationships. Developing through social interaction with significant people in their lives gives them the opportunity to share their feelings and learn the different cultures at the same time.

Moral development which entails the boundaries in society will now be discussed.

2.2.5 Kohlberg's Moral Development Theory

Lawrence Kohlberg's research on stages of moral development, which he labelled "cognitive development", was heavily influenced by Piaget's work (Austrian, 2002:97).

According to **Kohlberg's** stages (see Table 2.1, page 19) the **pre-conventional level** of moral development is characteristic from age five right through to the middle childhood. The five-year old at this level conforms to rules in order to avoid punishment and to obtain rewards. (compare Austrian, 2002:59; Louw *et al.* 1998:43.)

Several authors (compare Austrian, 2002:59, Louw *et al.* 1998:377) agree that the pre-conventional level comprises of the following two stages: i) Heteronomous morality – punishment and obedience morality, whereby the five-year old obeys rules to avoid punishment. It is a highly egocentric period based on the child's needs and desire to avoid negative consequences. The child does not really understand or uphold conventional or societal rules and expectations. ii) Individualistic morality –

instrumentational goal and interchange, whereby the five-year old obeys rules to obtain rewards or favours.

Within play, morals are learned along the way, as seen in Table 2.1 (page 19) and according to **Kohlberg's** Moral Development Theory. Moral development relates to the ability to distinguish between right and wrong. Only after the age of two there is a gradual emergence of conscience. Between the ages of 3 and 5 years, the pre-schoolers are focused on the self and most interested in their own needs and pleasures. Their behaviours are labelled as 'good' or 'bad' by others but their own judgements are still immature. They cannot judge their behaviours unless guided by others. By about 5-6 years pre-schoolers begin to act in terms of standards that come from within themselves, having internalised what they have been taught and no longer requiring so much policing of their actions by others. Simply put, the pre-schoolers have learnt to say 'no' to themselves – a difficult thing to do which we as adults still struggle to master (Gerdes, 1998:110-111).

Gonzalez-Mena (2006:60) adds that five-year olds have an internal government that dictates the ideals and standards of behaviour that are required by society. Their guilt serves as a warning sign when their parents or teachers aren't present. Their guilt is not expected to always control their actions. They still need adults close by to help control them when they can't manage.

In the researcher's opinion the five-year old abides to the rules presented most of the time. This compliance is to avoid punishment and therefore their behaviours and mannerisms are according to what they have learnt through others or previous experiences.

2.2.6 Bandura's Behaviourism/Social Learning

Louw *et al.* (1998:43) states that moral behaviour is learnt like any other behaviour, according to the social/behavioural learning theorist **Bandura** (see Table 2.1, page 19).

The social situation as the context wherein the behaviour takes place, is of great significance in the moral development of the five-year old. Several authors (compare

Burger, 1990:352; Louw *et al.* 1998:373) agree with **Bandura's** views that moral values and norms can be acquired through direct instruction. **Bandura** emphasises the indirect way in which moral learning takes place, namely through children's observations of the behaviour of other people in their social environment. This is referred to as modelling or observational learning. This means that the five-year old will usually demonstrate the same behaviour observed in someone else. Socially acceptable and unacceptable behaviour are acquired in particular from significant persons in the five-year old's life, (e.g. parents, members of the family and teachers).

Children's behaviours are actions in response to many internal and external influences. Possible internal influences of behaviour are genes, metabolism, age and gender. External influences of behaviour include general environmental variables such as parental behaviours and peer models. (compare Burger, 1990:350; Zirpoli, 1995:8.)

Burger (1990:351) states further that Bandura emphasises cognitive (internal) influences on behaviour. Instead of children working their way through rewards and punishments in a trial and error fashion every time they face a new problem, they imagine possible outcomes, calculate probabilities, set goals and develop strategies. This is done in their minds without engaging in random actions and waiting to see which will be rewarded or punished. Of course, past experiences or punishments affect these judgements.

Many factors therefore tend to influence development: the temperament and ability of the children, the care they receive from their parents and concerned others, the environment in which they grow up, the opportunities provided, the support available when in need or distress and role models who represent values and goals they can identify with. Parents play a vitally important part in most of these aspects (Gerdes, 1998:9).

The study focuses on how the parental styles affect the social behaviour of the five-year old, therefore the above theorist explains how a five-year old learns certain behaviours through observation and modelling. In the researcher's opinion, parents are therefore the determinants of the child's social skills.

2.2.7 Bowlby's Attachment Theory

Bowlby's theory of attachment (see Table 2.1, page 19) emphasises the importance of the forming of attachment with a primary caregiver, such as a parent or teacher, specifically the security which develops from such a relationship. Attachment is neither a developmental stage nor a system limited by an event. Its continuing set goal is a certain sort of relationship to another specific individual. Attachment is regarded as a behavioural rather than a physiological process (Hamilton, 2000:14).

Hamilton (2000:17) states that a child's pattern of attachment usually correlates with the way his mother treats him. By pre-school age, this matrix will have become a function of himself. In **Bowlby's** terms, the "cognitive map" of attachment may also correlate with the child's participation in the regulation of his care and mothering.

Bowlby (1984:267) mentions four phases that from small beginnings form the basis for all the highly discriminating and sophisticated systems that in later infancy and early childhood, mediate attachment to particular figures. Phase four will be appropriate for this study as it addresses the *formation of goal-corrected partnership*. By observing the mother's behaviour and what influences it, a child comes to understand something of his mother's set-goals and something of the plans she is adopting to achieve them. From that point onwards the child's picture of the world becomes far more sophisticated and his behaviour is potentially more flexible.

Bowlby stresses the over-riding importance of the parameter "familiar/strange" in the development of human beings from the cradle to the grave. From infancy onward, people tend to orientate towards the familiar and away from the unfamiliar, a trait that has survival value for human beings. People change their beliefs with reluctance and would rather stick with the familiar model (Hamilton, 2000:2).

The five-year old at this stage is able to understand the motives of others. Therefore it is suggested that the caregiver gives an explanation just before separating from the child. Interestingly, it is also how a five-year old can influence the behaviour of his caregiver in order for the caregiver to respond to the child's needs. The child may display less acceptable behaviour, such as manipulating the situation to get his way. (compare Hamilton, 2000:18; Louw *et al.* 1998:213-214.)

The above emphasises the importance of the role of the parent in providing a secure and comforting environment for their child and the importance of the relationship developed within the child's life since birth. The manner in which the parent deals with the child will also indicate what parenting style was commonly used.

2.2.8 Gestalt Theory

The **Gestalt** theory of developmental psychology (see Table 2.1, page 19) is very similar to the principles of a person-oriented approach. The Gestalt theory maintains a holistic and organismic point of view. Organismic means that the organism (child) should be seen as a biological entity and holistic means that the focus should fall on the whole organism (child). The Gestalt theory believes that the five-year old develops as a whole and to a large extent in accordance with inherent organic laws (Gestalt in Louw *et al.* 1998:62).

Considerable cognitive development such as showing an understanding of numbers and the principles involved in counting occur during the pre-school years. The memory of the five-year old has the language skills to describe what he remembers and the language skills to express emotions and needs. Drawings improve remarkably and are more recognisable as daily objects or people. By the age of five, the pre-school child's physical-motor development occurs. He is now able to throw and catch a ball; ride a bicycle and do gymnastics, indicating stronger muscles, better physical coordination and improved balance. In addition, the five-year old's personality development occurs whereby he becomes more aware of emotions and others and adept at controlling his own emotions (Louw *et al.* 1998:234-269).

It is evident, in the researcher's opinion, that the developmental tasks of the pre-school child are multi-faceted. The development that takes place during the pre-school period prepares them well for the subsequent adjustments and challenges of middle childhood. The social development of the five-year old, as the main focus of this study, will be focused on in more detail.

2.3 SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT

Literature on social development uses the two terms – psychosocial and social development - interchangeably. However, psychosocial and social development, although different in some aspects, have certain similarities and influences on each

another. To avoid confusion in this study, the two terms will be defined in detail accordingly.

2.3.1 Psychosocial Development

Psychosocial development refers to children's psychological and social development, associating with Erikson's characterisation of personality growth and development, which stresses the interaction between the person and the physical and social environments. Therefore, emphasising that children learn the skills they will need as adults (Reber & Reber in Brink 2006:59). The following table indicates the first three stages of psychosocial development for the early childhood years.

Table 2.2: ERIK ERIKSON'S PSYCHOSOCIAL STAGES OF DEVELOPMENT

Stage	Ages	Basic Conflict	Important Event	Summary
1. Oral-Sensory	Birth to 12 to 18 months	Trust vs. Mistrust	Feeding	The infant must form a first loving, trusting relationship with the caregiver, or develop a sense of mistrust.
2. Muscular-Anal	18 months to 3 years	Autonomy vs. Shame/Doubt	Toilet training	The child's energies are directed toward the development of physical skills, including walking, grasping and rectal sphincter control. The child learns control but may develop shame and doubt if not handled well.
3. Locomotor	3 to 6 years	Initiative vs. Guilt	Independence	The child continues to become more assertive and to take more initiative, but may be too forceful, leading to guilt feelings.

(Erik Erikson, [sa]).

As highlighted in Table 2.2 (page 31), Erikson indicates the psychosocial stage of the five-year old as developing initiative versus guilt-feelings with the development of a sense of responsibility and a budding conscience. The most important event at this stage is **independence**. The five-year old continues to be assertive and takes initiative. Playing and hero worshipping are an important form of initiative for children. The five-year old is eager for responsibility. They begin to judge their own behaviour. They can feel the kind of guilt whose nagging warns them when they are about to violate some behaviour standard and it gives them a sense of remorse when they carry out the action anyway. Their guilt is useful because it helps keep them in

control sometimes. It guides them towards positive and acceptable behaviour (Erik Erikson, [sa]; Erikson, 1998).

Lee (in Brink 2006:18) describes psychosocial development as follows: "This domain includes the growth, change, stability and diversity of human emotions and affect life span, personality traits, self- and social awareness and identity, and the ability to create and maintain positive relationships with others". The researcher agrees with this definition and is of the opinion that psychosocial development is a multi-faceted concept.

2.3.2 Social Development

Social development on the other hand, is described by Louw *et al.* (1998:296) within the pre-school years as changes taking place in the pre-schooler's interaction and relationships with other people. It also involves the influence of society (e.g. pre-primary school) and specific other persons (e.g. parents or caregivers, siblings, peers, pre-primary school teachers) on the child. Social development in the pre-school years includes aspects such as the further development of attachment, the expansion of the pre-schooler's interpersonal contacts, the development of relationships with siblings, other children and adults, the acquisition of socially acceptable and appropriate behaviour as a result of socialisation, moral development and play.

Each subsequent stage of social development builds on the foundation of the previous one. Gerdes (1998:103-104) gives the following as a sequence of social development. The first stage centres on the development of trust (0-2 years). As the child's needs for food, warmth or other caregiver are met, the foundation of **trust** is laid.

From the age of two the second stage is entered, when a child becomes more independent of others. This fosters a sense of **autonomy**. The 'terrible two's' are a sign of the child's budding sense of being an independent person, testing its own will and emerging skills and reacting with temper tantrums when it is unable to control a situation. If the development of a child's autonomy is not promoted, a sense of doubt about its abilities or even a sense of shame might develop (Gerdes, 1998:103-104).

Between three and six years a child learns to perform many tasks by itself. It is able to feed itself, throw and catch a ball, to express itself in words, to name but a few

skills. This leads to a sense of mastery which in turn, encourages a child to use its **initiative** (Gerdes, 1998:103-104).

Stewart-Brown and Edmunds (2003:20) set out an example of how an angry child can make the decision to explain what it is that has made him angry and request whatever it is that he would prefer instead of displaying impulsive aggressive behaviour. This is likely to get a response from others that improves relationships. With this, emotional competence plays an important part in the development of social competence because it enables children and adults to identify and think about their feelings, handle them appropriately and to make a decision about how to behave in the light of both their feelings and their thoughts.

According to Brink (2006:29) children in the early childhood years are exposed to many new social learning experiences that have an impact on their development. Boundary setting by parents is one of the essential elements of social development. This provides an opportunity for children to learn how to negotiate with their social environment.

Another essential part of social development in the early childhood years is that children use their parents as an opportunity to explore and to build confidence so that they can negotiate at pre-school, or with peers and friends. As Brink (2006:32) states: "Parents can unnecessarily and unintentionally undermine their children's confidence in small, insignificant matters that could have a negative impact on their self-esteem".

The five-year old child regularly experiences challenges concerning a variety of things, such as emotional awareness and independent decision-making, social skills interaction among peers and adults which are closely related to the characteristics of social development (Dariotis, Kaugh & McHale in Brink, 2006:2).

From the above definitions of social and psychosocial development, the researcher summarized the following aspects specifically related to the social development within the five-year old group:

- Their motivation in themselves;
- Their level of empathy and respect for others;
- Their ability to take responsibility for their actions;

- Their ability to delay gratification;
- Their ability to deal with boundaries;
- Their ability to play.

In the opinion of the researcher, psychosocial and social development are similar in most aspects, the key factor being the interaction and relationships with other people that the five-year old experiences and how society influences his social behaviour. The next section will elaborate on what society views as acceptable and less acceptable behaviour within the five-year old's behavioural spectrum.

2.4 ACCEPTABLE AND LESS ACCEPTABLE SOCIAL BEHAVIOUR

The following section aims to distinguish between acceptable and less acceptable behaviour within the social context of the five-year old. It is important to differentiate between the acceptable and less acceptable social behaviour as there needs to be an understanding of what is appropriate in society and how society functions.

2.4.1 Acceptable Social Behaviour

Acceptable social behaviour is seen as positive, more appropriate behaviours within society, especially within the pre-school field. In the previous section psychosocial and social development was differentiated, only to come to similar aspects of social development that may be seen as “normal” or acceptable behaviour or mannerisms (Gonzalez-Mena, 2006:168).

Dobson (2002:18) states: “Children’s challenging behaviour is motivated in part by the desire for power that lies deep within the human spirit. From a very early age, they just don’t want anyone telling them what to do. They are also great admirers of strength and courage.” This admiration for power also makes children want to know how tough their leaders are. They will occasionally disobey adults for the purpose of testing their determination and courage (Dobson, 2002:18).

It may seem obvious to state, but it is true that many behaviours are learnt by observing the behaviour of other people and by watching what consequences it produces for them. Imitation therefore appears to be at the heart of observational learning. If people did not have the ability to imitate, observational learning would be unlikely to occur. Furthermore it is important to bear in mind that almost invariably, people do not imitate others they do not like. This is likely to apply to children as well

as to adults. Imitation is a cognitive ability and a deficit in the child's ability to imitate would have an impact on his overall intellectual development. In other words, imitation plays a crucial role in children's acquisition of new skills and behaviours from opportunities naturally available to them. Imitation is therefore an important developmental skill and people continue to learn by imitation even as they get older (Gupta and Theus, 2006:85).

Dobson (2002:16) states: "With or without bad associations, children are naturally inclined toward rebellion, selfishness, dishonesty, aggression, exploitation and greed. They don't have to be taught these behaviours. They are natural expressions of their humanness".

The researcher is of the opinion that children in the pre-school years are more assertive and test boundaries. They take more initiative, only to discover their own capabilities, unique traits and what is accepted or not in society and are becoming aware of how they fit into the world and how society functions around them.

In the next section the researcher will focus on the less acceptable social behaviour.

2.4.2 Less Acceptable Social Behaviour

Less acceptable social behaviour, or anti-social behaviour as it can also be termed, is the opposite to the "acceptable behaviour" as discussed in the above section. Instead of the positive behaviour, this behaviour is seen as negative, not appropriate or not acceptable within society (Gonzalez-Mena, 2006:174-176).

Gerdes (1998:40) highlights that there have always been rebellious children. Unfortunately there is no longer certainty to what children are rebelling against. The following are various remarks made by parents in South Africa which highlight the reasons for children's negative mannerisms or less acceptable social behaviour (Brink, 2006:35):

- "Children learn too much about adult stuff too early on in life";
- "... children are much more assertive and have more 'attitude' towards their parents than in my days";
- Children don't respect their elders anymore and have very high expectations for material goods";
- "people don't value high morals anymore";

- "... there are too high a tolerance for drugs, crime and fighting".

In agreement with the above reasons for the occurrence of less acceptable social behaviour among children, are the respondents from Brink's (2006:39) study of *Gestalt Guidelines Assisting Parents to Enhance Psychosocial Development in Children*, whereby respondents agreed that children do not seem to have the same respect for adults that they as children used to have. This may be seen as a positive aspect for children's new found assertiveness, but in other cases it could also be seen as a negative aspect to development.

Gregan (in Brink, 2006:34) states that parents nowadays are seldomly laying the proper foundation for affection, love and attachment at home. As a result, children in their socialising, look for affection and even negative attachments outside of the home and family.

In the researcher's opinion, parents who are stressed, easily tend to become annoyed and irritated with their children. Within this context, even a five-year olds' minor departures from acceptable behaviours can appear magnified to parents. These feelings of negativity may result in making parents feel even more stressed – which may cause these parents to deal with the five-year old in a way that exacerbates the situation. This may evoke a destructive cycle between children and parents. Should this cycle continue, the situation may escalate.

A variety of factors influence behaviour. In addition to unknown factors, there could be ongoing factors such as underprivileged housing, mental illness, reconstituted family situation, lack of family involvement, family dysfunction, influence of peers, influence of school, the negative experience of the way the parents were brought up by their own parents, the child's and the parents' own early history and so on. All these factors interact and can be further compounded by the way people think, feel and construe things (Gupta & Theus, 2006:29).

To summarize, researchers suggest that children who have been experiencing any of the above factors, show disruptive behaviours when they are of kindergarten age and are likely to manifest far more serious problems - delinquency, school failure, substance abuse - later (Gupta & Theus, 2006:33).

With the above factors influencing behaviour as suggested by Gupta and Theus (2006:29), following are a few examples of social behaviour commonly found among five-year olds which can be seen as anti-social behaviour.

2.4.2.1 Lack Of Responsibility

The Oxford Dictionary of Philosophy (2005) defines “responsibility” as those things for which they are accountable; failure to discharge a responsibility renders one liable to some censure or penalty. A job, or profession, or social role will be partly defined in terms of the responsibilities it involves. The extent of responsibility not just for oneself but for others is a central topic for political and ethical theory.

An important task of parents is to strive for a balance between dependence and independence. The younger the child, the less developed its motor skills and other skills, the more help it requires. A two-year old cannot tie shoe laces or make a bow. This skill is only acquired after the age of five. Once a child is able to carry out a task on its own it should be encouraged to do so. Parents are too often inclined to perform a task long after a child has learnt to do it reasonably well because it is quicker and easier for them to do it (Gerdes, 1998:99).

The researcher is of the opinion that should tasks be regularly performed for the child, the child is deprived of the opportunity to learn a skill, become more independent and especially, to gain self-confidence. It could also result in children having a lack of responsibility.

Dobson (2002:30) states that mothers and fathers often prevent their children from carrying any responsibility that could result in a mess or a mistake. Mothers and fathers find it easier to do everything for their children than to clean up afterwards. In order for the children to learn, they have to experience mistakes made. Parents are therefore urged not to fall into the trap of doing everything for their children.

Five-year olds are often reluctant to take responsibility for their actions. Brink’s (2006:38) study of *Gestalt Guidelines Assisting Parents to Enhance Psychosocial Development in Children*, showed various respondents remarking that they resort to blaming, name-calling or trying to be bribed when they do not get what they want. The ability to take responsibility for their actions and not resort to such behaviour is one of the essential aspects of a five-year old’s psychosocial development.

Santrock (2004:325) states that five-year olds who are over-controlled and not allowed to learn from their mistakes, feel inferior, lack responsibility and are inhibited in their creativity. Too much control or the unwillingness of parents to teach them responsibility, may therefore be a cause for the lack of responsibility they display. Weeldon (in Brink 2006:38) adds that not only will the five-year old feel inferior, but may also never learn how to be responsible as adults.

The researcher is of the opinion that if the parent is not allowing the five-year old to be responsible or to take initiative for tasks, the five-year old will feel inadequate and will give up on performing anything, therefore not only disrespecting others but also themselves.

2.4.2.2 Lack Of Respect For Adults

Respect is due to every rational being and must be distinguished from liking, or admiration, or even esteem. It is best understood through what it forbids, which is treating a person as a mere means to an end of one's own: ignoring their personhood or their humanity (The Oxford Dictionary of Philosophy, 2005).

Dobson (2002:129) states that respect is the critical ingredient in all human relationships and just as parents should insist on receiving it from their children, they are obligated to model it in return.

Brink (2006:39) observed that some five-year olds tend to approach adult teachers with a superior attitude and they act in a self-centred way. The five-year old is however strongly influenced by its parents as to who is deserving of their respect. Schoeman (2004) adds further that there should be a mutual respect between adults and children and that it is not only children's responsibility to show respect. Parents respect children by giving them choices and allowing them to take responsibility for their actions.

Eisenberg (in Brink, 2006:44) mentions that a lack of empathy, generosity and helpfulness are mannerisms that bring about extreme self-centredness and that this can be enhanced in five-year olds if their parents model these behaviours. On the other hand, the amount of empathy parents are modelling, as well as parental explanations about the consequences of certain actions and discussions of emotions, all foster empathy and would therefore enhance psychosocial development in five-year olds.

At the core of bad manners lies irresponsible social and interpersonal skills, namely showing no consideration and respect toward others. The common factor is to insult and hurt others and promoting behaviour which makes living together more uncomfortable for all. Bad manners are part of a lack of discipline. Ill-mannered children and adults are generally not popular (Gerdes,1998:46).

Moral development relates to the ability to distinguish between right and wrong. It includes honesty, goodness, self-control and the development of a conscience. Morality relates to values, rules and standards about how people should behave towards others. However, the development of conscience does not happen by itself. There are two major requirements for the development of conscience to start in childhood. First, the child's intellectual, language and social development must have progressed sufficiently for some understanding to be possible. The child has to learn what acceptable behaviour is, what is 'good' and what is considered 'bad'. In the beginning moral development rests on control by others by means of reward and punishment which mainly take the form of approval and disapproval by the parents. A child learns to obey because this is what parents expect from him (Gerdes, 1998:110).

A lack of respect indicates that certain morals are out of place. If the five-year old is unable to have self-respect and respect for others, they are unable to abide by rules set out by their family and by society. A lack of respect for others would also entail that the five-year old child would not be able to delay gratification- immediately requiring everything.

2.4.2.3 Inability To Delay Gratification

The Encyclopaedia of Psychology (2007) defines "delayed gratification" as follows: The ability to forgo an immediate pleasure or reward in order to gain a more substantial one later. In other words the ability to delay gratification is often a sign of emotional and social maturity. Young children for example, find it more difficult to delay gratification than older children. When kindergartners in one study were offered a choice between getting a small candy bar immediately or a larger one later, 72% chose the smaller candy bar. This number decreased to 67% among first and second graders and 49% for third and fourth graders. By the fifth and sixth grades it had fallen to 38%, nearly half the rate for kindergartners.

Gregan (in Brink,2006:40) mentions an interesting point. He attributes the inability to delay gratification to the electronic society, with its inherent focus on instant gratification – and its conditioning effect on five-year olds. Imbesi (1999:45) states otherwise, holding parents responsible for the five-year old's inability to delay gratification by stating that poor impulse control and poor frustration tolerance can be attributed to parents' inability to be firm.

Bowlby (1984:267) states that in a society of self gratification, parents need to set an example to their five-year old in how to delay gratification in order for it not to lead into manipulation. This relates to Bowlby's attachment theory whereby the caregiver always responds immediately to the five-year old's needs (see Table 2.1, page 19).

Brink (2006:40) adds that all children have to learn to tolerate delays in gratification and to develop impulse control. The author concludes that parents need to be firm with their children in order to experience maturity and achievement in certain areas.

Calkins and Campbell (in Gupta & Theus, 2006:33) conducted studies which indicated that young children from before the age of six years, who are not good at delaying gratification, who have difficulty in inhibiting impulsive behaviour and who do not respond to task situations in a planned manner, are at risk of developing a range of behavioural, social and academic difficulties during childhood and adolescence.

A five-year old's relationship with his parents provides the basis for his attitude toward every other form of authority he will encounter. It becomes the cornerstone for his later outlook on school officials, law-enforcements, future employers and the people he will eventually live and work with (Dobson, 2002:36).

In the researcher's opinion, a child's acceptance of the values of a parent, especially during adolescence, depends on the parent showing respect for the child during the younger years. Which leads the discussion to boundaries and the lack thereof.

2.4.2.4 Lack Of Boundaries

A "boundary" is defined as something that indicates a border, limit or rules (The American Heritage Dictionary of the English Language: 2006). Brink (2006:41) is of the opinion that the lack or disrespect of boundaries displayed by five-year olds can primarily be attributed to the personal example that parents set in their deficient exercise of discipline, and secondly, to the changing values in the community, for

instance in taking greater risks. If the five-year olds lack the ability to set boundaries for themselves they would not be able to negotiate as they should within their relationships and environment. In this manner, they could either jeopardise their own safety or isolate themselves as social beings.

There is security in defined limits. Five-year olds need to know precisely what the rules are and who's available to enforce them. Whenever a strong-willed child senses that the boundaries may have moved, or that his parents may have lost their nerve, he will often precipitate a fight just to test the limits again. The five-year old may not admit that they want the parent as the boss, but they breathe easier when the parent proves that they are (Dobson 2002:19-20).

Clearly, there is security for all in defined boundaries. That's why a five-year old child will push a parent to the point of exasperation at times. The child is testing the resolve of the mother and the father and exploring the limits of its world. The very fact that the five-year old has accepted the boundaries set by the parents tells the parents that the child respects them. The child will still test the outer limits occasionally to see if the "fence" is still there (Dobson, 2002:125).

The researcher emphasises that rules apply to everything in life. Laws in society are examples. Rules need to be followed for order to take place, for a sense of security and better social interaction. Even in the medium of play, rules apply.

2.4.2.5 Inability To Play

In the International Dictionary of Psychoanalysis (2005), "children's play" is defined as mental and physical activity which gradually become more structured in the course of a child's development. This activity bears witness to a psychic capacity for "concentration" within a personal mental sphere of illusion where objects and phenomena in the external world are transformed in accordance with the subject's wishes, so serving the internal world and augmenting pleasure.

Gonzalez-Mena (2006:61) defines play as an arena where children learn new skills and practice old ones, both physical and social. Through play they challenge themselves to new levels of mastery. They gain competence in all areas of development, increasing language, social skills, and physical skills.

Santrock (2004:325) states that the five-year old's creativity seems to be more inhibited by the toys and electronic equipment chosen for them. In the current era, electronic entertainment such as television and computer games dictates play choices to children – and to adults as well. In order to help children become more creative they should be surrounded by an environment that stimulates creativity.

Frost, Worthman and Reifel (in Gonzalez-Mena, 2006:62) describe play in great detail as it also provides for cognitive development, which is tied in with physical and social interaction in the pre-school years as children are constructing a view of the world and discovering concepts. There's nothing passive about play-even if the body is passive, the mind is working. Children at play are active explorers of the environment as they create their own experience and grow to understand it. In this way they grow to participate in their own development. Through play, children work at problem-solving, which involves mental, physical and social skills. While playing, they can try pretend solutions and experience how those solutions work. If they make mistakes, those mistakes don't hurt them as they would in real life. They can reserve power roles and be the adult for a change, telling other children what to do. They can even tell adults what to do, if the adults are willing to play along. Play enables children to sort through conflicts and deal with anxieties, fears and disturbing feelings in active an active, powerful way.

The researcher is of the opinion that play provides a safety valve for feelings. When they pretend, children can say or do things that they can't do in reality. Play makes children feel powerful and gives them a sense of control as they create worlds and manipulate them.

Louw *et al.* (1998:350) mention that children today spend more time away from home than in the earlier years. They also spend far less time with their parents. Nevertheless, the child's home is still the place that offers the most security and the family is still the pivot on which his life hinges.

From the latter information the researcher has noticed that there are various factors influencing a five-year old's play at school, for instance the size of the class, the family situation, the environment in which he is growing up, the feedback he gets from people around him, parenting styles and the child's personality.

The following behaviour discussed in the next section will be on telling lies.

2.4.2.6 Telling Lies

In the International Dictionary of Psychoanalysis (2005), a lie is described as the intent to deceive and support self-interest. A lie, the dissimulation or wilful deformation of the contents of a thought that the subject deems to be true, can be practiced only either vis-à-vis another person or by means of a split in the subject—in which case the subject lies "to him- or herself."

Children in their early childhood years may or may not fully comprehend the difference between lies and the truth. There is a very thin line between fantasy and reality in the mind of a pre-school boy or girl. Before a parent reacts in a heavy-handed manner, the parent must know what he understands and what his intent is (Dobson, 2002:26).

The researcher agrees that lying is a problem every parent must deal with. All five-year old children tend to distort the truth from time to time and some become inveterate liars.

Many five-year olds have a vivid imagination. They may even express their fears through play which at times may be realistic to them and also a way of expressing emotions as well as exercising its emerging abilities and skills (Gerdes, 1998:108-109) which to the adult mind is not understood and is interpreted as lies.

Responding appropriately is a task that requires an understanding of child development and the characteristics of a particular individual and therefore not undermining a five-year olds' intrinsic motivation and self-confidence (Grolnick, 2003:34). As in the researcher's opinion it may result in lowering the child's self-esteem which may cause him to revert to lying in order to feel empowered.

In the next section the researcher highlights another difficulty parents and teachers might have with their children, namely assertiveness, which can be positive in some ways but may be used in a negative manner too.

2.4.2.7 Over-Assertiveness

The American Heritage Dictionary of the English Language (2006) gives "assertiveness" as confidently aggressive or self-assured; positive: aggressive; dogmatic.

Assertiveness can be defined as affirming an individual's right to personal views, opinions and goals (Gerdes, 1998:208). In Brink's (2006:44) opinion it is healthy for a five-year old to have a balanced sense of confidence but not to be so assertive that they do not allow input from the environment. This will be an essential attribute during psychosocial development, because children have to negotiate their greater autonomy with their expanding environment.

Being over-assertive would lead to the five-year old being forceful therefore leading to guilt feelings as discussed and shown in Table 2.2 (page 31). In other words, the researcher is of the opinion that over-assertiveness could lead to a type of bullying, where the person's intent is to be harmful to others by excluding someone, name calling or physically hurting someone.

The following section will be on bullying.

2.4.2.8 Bullying

Several authors (compare Brink, 2006:47 and Pauw, 2007) agree that "bullying" can be defined as intentional, repeated, systematic hurtful acts, words or other behaviour by an individual or individuals against another individual or individuals.

Boys often bully through physical attacks. Girls tend to be over-assertive. They are more likely to use relational aggression, involving social exclusion and rumour spreading which can be destructive to any child (Brink, 2006:47). Irrespective of the culture and children's age and gender, bullying may occur in pre-schools and the community. Bullying may be influenced by an inner aggression the child might have (Gonzalez-Mena, 2006:70). As bullying may be due to aggressive inner tendencies, the researcher will include a discussion on aggressiveness.

Aggressiveness may be a way of attracting attention or a way of venting built-up frustration. Aggressiveness is more readily expressed towards other children than adults, and parents may become aware of this when observing their child in a group (Gerdes, 1998:130).

There are many possible reasons for a child's aggressive behaviour- some simple and fairly easy to solve, and some much more complex. It could simply be that the child has just not learned any other way to behave. In that case he needs to be taught. Or it could be that the child was rewarded for this behaviour in the past and is continuing to be rewarded for it, so he continues his aggressive behaviour. It could

also be that the child's behaviour is the result of bottled-up emotions which for example, may be caused by something occurring at home, with the child feeling very upset by it. He may then be letting off steam at school. His behaviour might even stem from a physical source – either his own body chemistry or influences of the environment interacting with his physical makeup. Or his aggression can come from extreme defensiveness (Gonzalez-Mena, 2006:69).

2.5 CONCLUSION

Within this chapter, the following eight developmental perspectives applicable specifically on the five-year old were discussed: psychoanalytical approach; psychosocial approach; cognitive theory; sociocultural theory; moral development theory; behaviourism attachment theory and gestalt theory.

To summarise, the five-year old plays mainly with peers of the same sex, takes more initiative and gains independence. The five-year old is more imaginative in play and therefore develops the social skills and abilities in order to interact with significant people in their lives. At the same time the five-year old through play, learns moral reasoning and may model the important people in their lives such as the parents to which they have a secure attachment. The five-year old develops as a whole when being in contact and aware of his environment.

Since the study focuses on the social behaviour of the five-year old, the social development has been differentiated from the psychosocial development. Most child theorists would agree with Erikson that psychosocial development in early childhood is characterised by a greater sense of initiative versus guilt, mastering of new roles in the family and surrounding others, whereby the important event in the child's life is the parents. This of course, comes along with increased socialisation as the children's world of pre-school, friends and community expands. Although friends start becoming a more influential factor in the children's lives, parents still have an important role and responsibility to play in allowing them to explore their wider social environment and to encourage the development of acceptable social skills.

It is essential for children in early childhood to develop the skills needed for adulthood. These include acceptable social behaviours as mentioned in the chapter, the ability to delay gratification, taking responsibility for their actions, motivation to play, empathy and respect for others and an understanding of rules. The less

acceptable social behaviours also known as the anti-social behaviours were also discussed in the chapter.

The next chapter will focus on the different parenting styles used on the five-year old and the effects of the different styles on the five-year old's behaviour.

CHAPTER 3: PARENTING STYLES

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Parenting is an important part of loving and caring for the child. Several authors (compare Louw *et al.* 1998:310; Pretorius, 2000:1) agree that parents as primary caregivers are the most important socialisation agents in a child's life. Parents teach children by telling them what to do and what not to do, as well as being models for children to imitate and to identify with.

To be an effective parent means ensuring the physical wellbeing of a child, stimulating the child's intellectual development, encouraging socially acceptable and responsible behaviour, providing emotional security and giving moral and spiritual direction (Gerdes, 1998:65). Bornstein (1991:69) states: "Parenting manifestly influences the course and outcome of children's cognitive and communicative achievements as well as their social and emotional adjustment". Parenting is about providing a warm, secure home life, helping the child to learn the rules of life (for example, how to share, respecting others, etc.) and to develop good self-esteem. A child may have to be stopped from doing things they shouldn't be doing, but it is just as important to encourage them to do the things a parent wants them to do (Royal College of Psychiatrists, 2004).

Parenting is possibly the most important job to do and role to play for any human being. It is very time consuming but brings about very rewarding fruits in the long run (Gerdes, 1998:64). The way in which a parent raises his child is considered a parenting style (Louw *et al.* 1998:351). The following parenting styles are covered within this chapter: permissive, authoritarian and authoritative. This chapter will also elaborate on how the different parenting styles affect the behaviour and other developmental stages of the child.

In order to understand parenting styles, the researcher will be explaining the concept of parenting first.

3.2 PARENTING

As mentioned above, parenting is one of life's most challenging and demanding roles. It is also the role of which one is likely to be the least prepared for: there is no clear job description or selection or training for parenthood. Most new parents are

amateurs who learn largely through on-the-job training, and by a great deal of trial and error. This may be difficult for both parent and child (Gerdes, 1998:95).

Deater-Deckard and Petrill (in Gupta & Theus, 2006:21) mention how a number of theorists have proposed that problems in the emergence of coherent, well-regulated and mutually rewarding parent-child interactions in early childhood may contribute to the development of behavioural and emotional problems. On the other hand, when the relationship is warm and caring, it can have a positive effect on children's developing self-perception, self-esteem, general mental health, as well as on positive peer relationships.

Gerdes (1998:22) states that there is unfortunately, no single or perfect recipe for parenting. It is very difficult to strike a balance between the needs and rights of the parents and those of the child. Parenting changes with the age and development of the child and of the parent.

Interesting aspects highlighted by Gupta and Theus (2006:30-33) and further authors' contributions show that the following aspects influence the way in which the parent raises his child and the relationship the parents' have with their five-year old and which in turn has an effect on the child's behaviour: **parent's own past experiences as a child; bi-directionality; stress; boundaries and culture** to name but a few. The researcher aims to highlight these aspects in this section.

3.2.1 Parent's Own Past Experiences As A Child

Parents have an effect on their children's behaviour. Standards and expectations which parents themselves have acquired and internalised as a result of their interactions with their own parents when younger normally play a role in how they parent their own children. Therefore parenting behaviour was determined by unconscious emotional reactions parents had to the way they themselves had been parented, with these unconscious reactions having an effect on their own, conscious, attitudes (Deater-Deckard & Bullock as quoted by Gupta & Theus, 2006:32).

Several authors agree (compare Gupta & Theus, 2006:19; Royal College of Psychiatrists, 2004) that different parents employ different ways to discipline and control their children. In many cases their methods of dealing with their children have been greatly influenced by their own experiences of the way they were treated by their own parents. Therefore it is not uncommon if a parent was treated in a punitive

manner that they too practice that method on their children as they didn't see it as having any harm on themselves. There is of course the total opposite, whereby parents who received harsh treatments when younger by their own parents, they then try to become more loving, warm and affectionate towards their children compared to the way their parents were towards them.

3.2.2 Bi-Directionality Principle

Another aspect as mentioned before that has an influence on how parents deal with their children, can be described as the bi-directionality principle, i.e. as with any relationship, the behaviour of one influences the behaviour of the other. This would suggest that either children learn to act aggressively from their parents or that parents respond by being physically punitive to their children's aggressive behaviours (Gupta & Theus, 2006:31).

The following paragraph explains further how one behaviour influences another in a short term way.

Parents and children arouse behaviours and emotions in one another. For example, parents dealing with an angry child will have the task of containing their own behaviour and also the anger displayed by the child. There are times when parents can be caught up in the moment and as a result are not able to think properly and react in the same angry manner (Burke, 1997:87-89).

One's behaviour can also influence another in a longer term. Some of these parental behaviours may be at first influenced by their children's over activity; the children's behaviour in turn is influenced by their parent's reactions to them. On the whole, parents' influence is likely to be greater in shaping their children's behaviour than the other way round. Parental influence has an effect not only on their children's overt behaviour but also on the way they start internalising standards and expectations, which they have absorbed as a result of their interactions with their parents. Having internalised these behaviours, children then often generalise them in other situations and relationships (Mash & Johnston as quoted by Gupta & Theus, 2006:32).

3.2.3 Stress

As a result, a common aspect that occurs is stress or pressures within the family setting. Parents attempt to analyse the possible reasons for their children's problem behaviours and are making errors to the possible underlying reasons for their

children's behaviours. There are situations where parents fail to accept that there could be stress factors which could well be contributing to their children's problems, but the situation rarely changes and parents invariably continue to have problems with their children (Gupta & Theus, 2006:15).

Several authors (compare Gerdes, 1998:193; Grolnick, 2003:84) agree that in the same way pressures or stress can undermine children, pressures or stress can undermine parent's abilities to support autonomy in children. Therefore, if parents are able to cope with stress fairly effectively, they are likely to be able to help their children cope with theirs and to serve as role models showing children how to cope with difficult situations.

Most parents would know that dealing with a child from the early childhood years involves children's temper tantrums, aggressive and non-compliant behaviours, moodiness, sulkiness, bad attitude, violent outbursts and so on. This can be emotionally and physically draining for parents. When they have to deal with such behaviours, parents feel psychologically and physically stressed (Gupta & Theus, 2006:54).

3.2.4 Boundaries

Timoney (in Brink, 2006: 2) states that some childhood pressures and parents' stressors are more easily withstood and dealt with when parents have a set of guidelines, rules and values, enjoy healthy, open relationships with their children and discuss with them the reasons why certain boundaries are set.

Within boundaries there is also discipline. Several authors (compare Gerdes, 1998:39; Gonzalez-Mena, 2006:164) agree that discipline is a mental and moral training, a system of rules of conduct, corrections and training towards obedience and order within a particular system, such as the family or the community. The purpose of such discipline is to prepare a person to fit into the existing social order.

Adding to this, children can become overassertive and unaware of their human limitations as a result of parents' struggle to set clear boundaries (Imbesi, 1999:42). Several authors (compare Boeree, 1997; Schoeman, 2005) agree that children cannot learn responsibility if they are given unrestricted freedom and no sense of limits. If adults do things for children that they themselves are able to do, this would also undermine their sense of responsibility. Children at the age of 3-6 years are

already learning to take initiative, resulting in them having a positive response to the world's challenges, taking on responsibilities, learning new skills and feeling purposeful. Parents are a crucial factor in the development of initiative in their children by encouraging them to try out new ideas, by showing respect to their children, by giving them choices and allowing them to take responsibility by facing the consequences of their actions. At the same time parents should accept and encourage fantasy, curiosity and imagination.

3.2.5 Culture

As discussed before, discipline prepares a person to fit into the existing social order. The social order naturally also depends on the culture within the family. It is widely accepted that parents in different cultures adopt some similar and some different approaches to childrearing and that parenting is a principal reason why individuals in different cultures are who they are and are often so different from one another. Yet, when people set up residence in a new country, they are faced with the task of adapting their customs to new codes of social conduct. Their parenting behaviours must change in order to integrate with their new living conditions. Parents might have to change their styles of educating and socialising their child. Their concepts and practices related to child-rearing as well as their modes of interaction will be affected. These changes are not always achieved harmoniously. In societies where there is strong pressure to assimilate and when there is little or no social cohesion in the immigrant group, the rupture with traditions may be so sudden that a loss of identity and of any reference point may result. Parents feel overwhelmed in this situation. (compare Bornstein, 1991:3/47 and Gupta & Theus, 2006:33.)

Gonzalez-Mena (2006:318) elaborates further on the above point. Pre-school readiness is one issue closely linked to classroom behaviour. Pre-school teachers depend on parents to send their children with ingrained behaviours that allow them to perform according to the rules and that enable them to learn in the style the school sees as appropriate to the group size and the ratio of children to teachers. Some parents manage to comply with this expectation. And some children, even in spite of their parents or their home life, are willing and able to conform to what school requires. But other children aren't or can't. Expected school behaviour may be quite alien and social skills taught at home may not work in pre-school.

To summarize, parenting shapes the coming generations and the way the next generation will behave, affecting the world around them. History has taught that

parenting without a proper foundation has always and will definitely lead to confusion for any developing child. That is why the attempt of trying to be a successful parent is so important and will be the most important job of one's life (Lopez, 2004).

Parenting is a challenge learnt along the way and influenced by certain aspects. However it is still playing the most important role in shaping the children in their behaviour towards others and in developing their self-esteem. The way in which the parent raises their child will be elaborated further as parenting styles.

3.3 TYPES OF PARENTING STYLES

The study conducted by the researcher investigates the relationship between parenting styles and the possible impact on the social behaviour of a five-year old. Grolnick (2003:68) states that there probably is no such thing as universally “good” parenting but rather that parenting depends on the positive impact it has on the child and his development as whole.

Several authors (compare Grolnick, 2003:31; Gupta & Theus, 2006:21) agree that the way parents deal with issues related to their children's behaviour and generally interact with them, has come to be known as parenting style. Parenting style is defined as : “a general pattern of care giving that provides a context for specific episodes of parental childrearing behaviours, but it does not refer to a specific act or specific acts of parenting” (Gupta & Theus, 2006:21). Parenting style involves a relationship between parent and child, which may involve respect or a lack of respect for the child. It can be warm and connected, or it can be disengaged. It can coerce the child, or it can display respect for the child's autonomy. According to Louw *et al.* (1998:351) the way in which parents bring up their children is considered a parenting style. The researcher agrees with the above-mentioned authors. The definition of parenting styles for the purpose of this study will be: *The way in which the parents raise their children.*

It is likely that many parents would use different parenting styles at different times and under different circumstances. A culturally relative position suggests that groups have different values and that it is impossible to tell what is going to be effective in families without knowing the specific values of a culture. Questions may be asked of whether the same types of parenting, for example authoritarian or authoritative, have the same effects in different cultural groups (Bornstein, 1991:47).

Dornbusch *et al.* (in Grolnick, 2003:71) conducted a study on group differences in children's reporting of parental styles. The following cultures were part of the study: Asian, African American, Hispanic and White. In particular, Asian, African American, and Hispanic families were higher on the authoritarian index than White families. Families of Asian, Hispanic, and African American children were lower on authoritative index than White families. For permissiveness, compared to Whites, African Americans were lower, Hispanics were higher and Asians were slightly higher. This shows some evidence that there may be a difference in cultural groups regarding the parental styles used.

Parenting styles may be influenced by the temperament of the parents and the quality of their relationship with their children; it is believed to create an emotional climate for the parent-child relationship. This emotional climate can have a significant influence on the child's behaviour and personality. There is a considerable body of evidence which proposes that the absence or lack of warmth and mutually rewarding relationships between children and parents can lead to emotional and behavioural problems in children (Gupta & Theus, 2006:21).

Contributing to these statements, Mayseless (2006:82) adds that parents also concern themselves with the nature of the relationship they have with their children, attempting to achieve dyadic harmony and mutual satisfaction in contentious interactions. Moreover, what they hope to achieve determines the actions they direct toward the child. These parents reported that their parent-centred goals were more likely to be associated with punishment or threats of punishment, child-centred with reasoning and relationship with negotiation, compromise and acceptance.

Some parents believe that those children who behave badly intentionally deserve more punishment than those whose bad behaviour was unintentional. When attributions are accurate, then parenting practices should be optimal, that is, children who know that an action is wrong need strong interventions to motivate compliance and those who do not know that it is wrong, need explanations and guidance. When the attributions are incorrect, however, it leads to maladaptive parenting because parents are using motivation when they should be using explanation and guidance or they are using explanation and guidance when they should be using motivation (Mayseless, 2006:84).

In the researcher's opinion, when parents support children's opinions they facilitate children's motivation to master their environments. They also increase children's sense of competence and their control over their worlds and they increase children's ability to regulate their own behaviour. Conversely, parenting styles that control children's behaviour induce children to feel that their successes and failures are in the hands of others rather than their own and undermine children's motivation and feelings of competence.

Baumrind (in Grolnick, 2003:6) formulated a categorisation for parenting styles by dividing these styles into four types: *authoritative* (demanding and responsive), *authoritarian* (demanding but not responsive), *permissive* (more responsive than demanding) and *rejecting/neglecting* (neither responsive nor demanding).

For the purpose of this study, only the following three parenting styles will be investigated: permissive; authoritarian and authoritative. The questionnaire used for data-gathering, the Parenting Styles and Dimensions Questionnaire (PSDQ) only incorporates these three. The nature and the outcome of each parenting style will also be focused on.

3.3.1 Permissive Parent

A parent showing little interest in what the child is trying to communicate and ridiculing a child's emotions, believing that children's feelings are irrational, is seen as the *permissive parent*. The permissive parent is also known as the dismissing parent and tends not to problem-solve with the child (compare Ayers, 2002:151; Gottman, 1997:50-52; Louw *et al.* 1998:351-352). Grolnick (2003:4) states that the permissive parent includes fewer restrictions and the enforcement tends to be less firm.

The dimension or nature of the permissive parent will be discussed accordingly.

3.3.1.1 Dimension

Several authors (compare Gerdes, 1998:27; Gonzalez-Mena, 2006:208; Grolnick, 2003:6; Gupta & Theus, 2006:24) agree that the permissive approach refers to parents whose ideas about their children's behaviour and discipline are relaxed and liberal. Such parents do not establish clear guidelines and boundaries. The parent tends to be non-punitive, accepts the child's impulses and is unlikely to intervene. They also tend to avoid confrontation. This parent imposes few demands and the

child therefore has few household responsibilities. Often the permissive parent does not enforce rules firmly and tends to ignore or excuse misbehaviour.

The permissive style, as the name suggests, allows a wide range of behaviour on the part of the children, which would previously not have been tolerated. The children don't accept authority because the adult doesn't take any power into his own hands. He grants all the power to the children. Permissive parents fail to display self-respect, their children win conflicts with them but emerge dissatisfied. It's uncomfortable to be out of control and find few or no limits (Dobson, 2002:34).

However, some children overpower their parents. Brink's (2006:29) study shows, one parent who responded with: "When my children want things, I have to give it because they wouldn't stop nagging", thereby questioning the parents' ability to be in charge of their family because the children are altering the situation at home according to their own likes and dislikes. Brink (2006:29) is of the opinion that parents are easily manipulated because they do not spend enough quality time with their children and therefore too readily give into demands out of feelings of guilt.

The researcher is of the opinion that when a child takes control instead of the parent in any situation or wants things their own way and the parent avoids embarrassment, or avoids confrontation, or has a fear of not being liked by their children and immediately reacts to the children's wants, the parent is then acting permissively, allowing the children to behave in a manipulating manner and fulfilling the children's wants, without delaying gratification as mentioned in chapter two.

Permissive parenting can be appropriate for the five-year old, as there are times when being permissive within reason and certain situations allows for the child to explore ways of dealing or being confronted with social relationships. Ginott (in Gottman, 1997:102) discusses how parents ought to set rules for children based on their own values and offers some guidance regarding permissiveness, which is defined as "accepting the childishness of children". For example, that a clean shirt on a five-year old will not stay clean for long.

The above explains how permissiveness can be used within reason and does not necessarily always have to have a negative outcome.

Possible behavioural outcomes, when the permissive parenting style is used, will now be discussed.

3.3.1.2 Outcome

Several authors (compare Gerdes, 1998:28; Gonzalez-Mena, 2006:208; Grolnick, 2003:6; Gupta & Theus, 2006:24) agree that the permissive parenting style has a negative effect on pre-school children's educational level and on their behaviours at school. These children lack self-control, respect and consideration for others; they lack creativity; motivation and self-reliance and are therefore low in achievement. Grolnick (2003:6) adds that by ages 8 and 9 children are described as low in both social and cognitive competence because of their lack of impulse control, their self-centredness and low achievement motivation caused by permissive parenting.

Gottman (1997:52) adds that the effects of this parenting style on the five-year old is that they don't learn to regulate their emotions, they have trouble concentrating, forming friendships and getting along with other children.

In the researcher's opinion, when children learn to use manipulation at home, they will also use this as a means of negotiating in their greater social environment to get what they want. Permissive parents will often give into their children's manipulation, as this is much easier than being strict and refusing their requests. This is of course a disadvantage to the child's social interaction in the long run, as they may create or get involved in a relationship for the wrong reasons or create a negative self-esteem. They may think that this is the only way to receive and not having to give in to no-one.

The next parenting style discussed will be the authoritarian parenting style, its dimensions and outcomes.

3.3.2 Authoritarian Parent

The authoritarian approach is the "do-as-I-say" way of relating to children. Authoritarians see their power as inherent in their position. In conflicts, they see win-lose solutions- and it's important that they win. As this is the way they keep their authority. The strict authoritarian parent demands uncompromising obedience. Rules are established and infractions punished. Parental needs and desires come before the child's needs and desires. Authoritarian parents may have much self-respect but

often lack respect for the child. (compare Gonzalez-Mena, 2006:208; Grolnick, 2003:17.)

Gupta and Theus (2006:49-50) introduce a case study which illustrates the authoritarian parenting style:

Mark is a 15-year old boy whose father, Robert, used to be very aggressive towards him. Robert decided to change his interactional approach towards his son after receiving some advice from clinicians. As a part of this change, Robert decided to be a little more laid-back, more accepting, more rewarding and less punitive compared to what he used to be. Robert mentioned that as a result of bringing about this change in his own behaviour towards Mark, Robert had noticed a considerable change in Mark's attitude and behaviour towards his father. For instance, Mark had been very upset that a young girl, whom he fancied a lot, was not responding in the way he expected her to. Mark went to his father and asked if he could discuss a personal problem with him. Far from discussing anything with his father, Mark always made sure that he kept away from him and gave him the feeling that he hated him. This brief vignette suggests that when parents are able to change their parenting styles, almost invariably, changes in children follow as well. Clinicians Gupta and Theus (2006:50) have witnessed this happening regularly.

Therefore reasoning while punishing children for bad behaviour and feeling irritated and angry with their children can be very destructive, especially if parents have uncontrolled aggression. Limited and purposeful discussion is critically important for the effectiveness of discipline, because talking, yelling and vehement arguing can only make the situation worse (Brink, 2006:31).

Gupta and Theus (2006:54-55) add that parents who are quite authoritarian in their approach and resent having to do things for their children seem to be the parents that suffer more stress than others. The wear and tear, as a result of the conflicts that parents have with their children and the manner in which they deal with them, are greater on them than on children. Some parents experience more stress following their children's oppositional behaviours than others.

The dimension or nature of the authoritarian parenting style will be discussed accordingly.

3.3.2.1 Dimension

Several authors (compare Gerdes, 1998:27; Grolnick, 2003:5) agree that the authoritarian parent attempts to shape, control and evaluate the child using set standards. This parent values obedience most and uses forceful measures to inculcate desired behaviour. This parent does not encourage negotiation but prefers that the child accept authority. This type of parent tends to enforce rules firmly, confronts and sanctions negative behaviour on the part of the child and discourages independence and individuality.

Gupta and Theus (2006:23) state: "Parents who often use an authoritarian style are invariably strict and have fixed ideas about discipline and behaviour... Such parents are inclined to use set standards to control and evaluate their children's behaviour and attitudes".

Parents should be encouraged not to hold grudges after episodes of negative behaviour to avoid negative mind reading, blaming, sulking or abusing their children physically or verbally when disciplining (Carr, 1999:357).

In the authoritarian style the emphasis is placed on the absolute authority of the parents. It is assumed that they know best and children should obey them unquestioningly (Gerdes, 1998:27). The researcher agrees that there are still many parents who strongly emphasise their authority and see their role as that of decision-making and controlling parent. They tend to be strict disciplinarians, enforcing rules they have made.

Mussen, Conger, Kagan and Huston (in Gupta & Theus, 2006:23) add that parents adopt this approach 'out of feelings of hostility or because they cannot be bothered with explanations and arguments', while some other parents may use this approach because they subscribe to the view that by adopting an authoritarian style they may be developing respect for authority in their children.

Control refers to the limits, rules and restrictions placed on children's behaviour (Grolnick 2003:4). Over-parenting, meaning excessive corrective, cautionary or disciplinary comments made by parents to children, produces a negative affect, as it undermines their children's confidence and will cause anger through incompetence (Phelan as quoted by Brink, 2006:31).

As Gottman (1997:55-56) states, it is not that the authoritarian parent lacks sensitivity for their children, it is in fact that they feel quite deeply for their children and are simply reacting out of parents' natural urges to protect their offspring. In other words they believe that the negative behaviours are "toxic" and believe that it is unhealthy to dwell on it. They also feel that it needs to be dealt with as quickly and as effectively as they know best, remembering that these parents express what they experienced as children themselves.

Following is the outcome of the child's behaviour when the authoritarian parenting style is used.

3.3.2.2 Outcome

Dobson (2002:34) states that lasting characteristics of dependency, deep abiding anger and serious adolescent rebellion often result from oppressive parental authority on the child when younger. Baumrind (in Grolnick, 2003:6) found that the pre-school children of authoritarian parents were moody and unhappy, relatively aimless, and did not get along well with other children. By age 8 and 9, these same children, particularly the boys, were low in achievement motivation and social assertion. Several authors (Gerdes, 1998:27; Gonzalez-Mena, 2006:208) agree that extreme authoritarianism may lead to social inhibition, and a lack of confidence. The children often are discontented and distrustful of others.

Children of parents who routinely use an authoritarian approach tend to be moderately competent and responsible, but they also tend to be socially withdrawn and lack spontaneity. The effect of authoritarian parenting style on girls is that it is likely to create dependency on their parents and adversely affects their achievement motivation, while boys tend to become more aggressive compared to the ones who have not experienced authoritarian parenting style. A few studies have found some association between authoritarian parenting style and low self-esteem. A further consequence of such an approach is that children can begin to feel resentment against their parents when such an approach is used indiscriminately. Children who experience authoritarian upbringing are likely to perceive their parents as not loving, rejecting, unreasonable or wrong in their expectations and demands (Gupta & Theus, 2006:23).

When children are pushed by their parents or teachers to be high achievers without having time just to be children, it may lead to a maladaptive tendency. Children could

also become compulsive if they experienced too much shame and doubt as toddlers (see Table 2.2, page 31). Erikson states that compulsive children, like children who are pushed to achieve, feel that everything must be done perfectly (Brink, 2006:63).

Brink (2006:31) adds that the parents' task in parenting is to enhance their children's self-esteem by giving them greater independence and autonomy and if this opportunity is not given then their psychosocial development will be inhibited.

The next parenting style to be discussed is the authoritative parent and thereafter the dimension and outcomes of this parenting style will be addressed.

3.3.3 Authoritative Parent

It is a known fact that from the information thus far, the authoritative approach differs from the authoritarian approach. Authoritative parents listen to children's justifications and requests and make decisions with consideration to the needs of the child. They provide limits and control when necessary and they believe in mutual respect.

Authoritative parents derive their authority from the fact of their experience, size and ability. They know that they have lived in the world longer than their children and have expertise their children don't have. They see their role as using reason to guide, protect and facilitate development. Authoritative parents have firm standards but employ a flexible approach. They are concerned about their children's needs and also about their own needs. Due to the flexible approach resolutions leave both parties satisfied (Gonzalez-Mena, 2006:208).

The mannerism portrayed from an authoritative parent is warm and accepting (Grolnick, 2003:2). The parent gives information in a way that conveys the parent's understanding of the child's wish to play longer, with a rationale for why it is important to come in, without the controlling locution (Grolnick, 2003:17). The following quote describes exactly the authoritative parenting style. Dobson (2002:35) states: "Children tend to thrive best in an environment where these two ingredients, love and control, are present in balanced proportions".

The dimension or nature of the authoritative parenting style will be discussed accordingly.

3.3.3.1 Dimension

In authoritative parenting, also known as democratic parenting, parents' approach show willingness and preparedness to explain and discuss their ideas about behaviour and discipline with their children. These parents combine a judicious mixture of 'control with acceptance and child-centred involvement. The parents encourages verbal give and take, provides reasons for their decisions and solicit the child's opinions. With this type of parenting style, parents often discipline children by setting clear goals for them and take active interest in their progress. When children succeed, they often receive positive responses from their parents. Their approach to parenting shows warmth, nurturance and two-way communication. The emphasis is on control, encouragement and agreement rather than on punitive discipline. (compare Gerdes, 1998:28; Grolnick, 2003:4-5; Gupta & Theus, 2006:23.)

Many kids just like to run things and seem to enjoy picking fights. However, there is security in defined limits. They need to know precisely what the rules are and who's available to enforce them. Whenever a strong-willed child senses that the boundaries may have moved, or that his parents may have lost their nerve, he will often precipitate a fight just to test the limits again. They may not admit that they want the parent to be the boss, but they breathe better when the parent proves that they are (Dobson, 2002:19-20).

In the researcher's opinion the similarity between the authoritative parent and the authoritarian parent, is to firmly enforce rules and both are willing to confront misbehaviour, yet, in contrast, the authoritative parent also encourages independence and individuality.

Bee and Boyd (in Brink, 2006:28) concur by affirming that the authoritative parenting style, where both parents are warm-hearted, have firm control, set clear limits, expect and reinforce socially mature behaviour and at the same time respond to the children's individual needs, can consistently show more positive results regarding their children.

The researcher agrees that even when parents do discipline, they find it hard to be consistent in setting boundaries, yet this is essential in parenting and for sound social behaviour in the five-year old group.

The following is the outcome of the child's behaviour when the authoritative parenting style is used.

3.3.3.2 Outcome

Several authors (compare Gonzalez-Mena, 2006:209; Gupta & Theus, 2006:24) agree that parents who use an authoritative parenting style often have a good relationship with their children. The research shows that such a parenting style tends to promote in their children independence, self-reliance, responsibility and strong motivation to achieve. They are both socially and intellectually successful; they tend to be popular with their peers and are often cooperative towards their parents. Parents who are accepting of their children's behaviours and feelings are likely to promote in them tolerance of negative affects which is likely to reduce their sensitivity to anxiety. In other words, such an approach is helpful to their children's emotional well-being.

The amount of empathy children show varies in relation to both their ability to regulate their own emotions and the way they have been reared. For example, children who have been reared in an authoritative environment with warmth, security and strong attachments may display more empathy for others than children who were reared permissively with no strong attachments. Emotional reliability, security and a strong attachment therefore seem essential in the development of empathy (Bee & Boyd as quoted by Brink, 2006:66). Grolnick (2003:6) states: "...the pre-school children of authoritative parents were energetic, socially outgoing and independent. The 8- and 9-year olds were highly achievement oriented, friendly, and socially responsive".

In the researcher's opinion, the authoritative parenting style stands out positively amongst them all, as children seem more stable and secure within themselves emotionally, socially and intellectually even after the pre-school years.

The following is the conclusion, summing up parenting as a role and the three different parenting styles.

3.4 CONCLUSION

This chapter, included a discussion on the researcher discussed what the concept of parenting with reference to three different parenting styles – Permissive, Authoritarian and Authoritative. Each parenting style was looked at in more detail by

describing the dimension of each parenting style and the outcome each parenting style has on the five-year old's behaviour.

The permissive parent often gives into the child's manipulation resulting in a negative self-esteem for the five-year old. The authoritarian parent has a more strict style where demands are laid down and the five-year old has no say. This style creates a weaker self-esteem and a characteristic of dependency or even anger in the five-year old. The authoritative parent seems to be the more effective parenting style which includes developing and clarifying clear expectations, the parent staying calm in the midst of turmoil when the children get upset, being consistent and following through with positive and negative consequences, being a positive role model, role playing corrective behaviours and lastly, praising children for their acceptable behaviour. The future generations of the world will prosper when devotion and effort is put into their upbringing. The five-year old with authoritative parents is more energetic, socially outgoing, independent and has a greater sense of achievement.

Chapter four encapsulates the empirical research. In this chapter the researcher attempts to interpret all the relevant data obtained from the questionnaires. The results of the teacher's questionnaire as well as the Parenting Styles and Dimensions Questionnaire will be discussed accordingly.

CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY: AN EMPIRICAL PERSPECTIVE AND INTEGRATION OF FINDINGS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter four presents the empirical findings of the research. The goals and objectives guiding the study, as stated in Chapter one, introduce the discussion. The research approach and methodology of the study are briefly reviewed whereafter the findings related to the **Parenting Styles and Dimensions Questionnaire (PSDQ)** and the **Behavioural Questionnaire (BQ)**, the instruments used, as well as related findings are discussed. Graphical representations, with reference to the research methodology of the findings, conclude this chapter.

4.2 RESEARCH PROCESS REVIEWED

In order to place the empirical results presented in this chapter into context, it is necessary to revisit the **exploratory** research process as discussed in Chapter one, with particular reference to the goals and objectives.

The research was conducted according to the **quantitative** approach. De Vos, (2005:73-74) and Neuman (1997:14) state that the quantitative approach's main aims are to objectively measure the social world, to test hypotheses and to predict and control human behaviour. A quantitative study may therefore be defined as an inquiry into a social or human problem, based on testing a theory composed of variables, measured with numbers and analysed with statistical procedures in order to determine whether the predictive generalisations of the theory hold true.

The main goal of this study was to determine the nature of parenting styles used on five-year olds at Evergreen Pre-Primary, Gauteng.

To achieve the above goal, the following objectives were formulated:

- a)** To do a literature study in order to gain further insight on the topic of parenting styles and gain information on the impact it has on five-year olds, with a specific focus on the different forms of behaviours expressed by this age group.

b) To use a questionnaire, given to both parents of each child in the five-year old group at Evergreen Pre-Primary in Gauteng, to identify what types of parenting styles are used.

c) To use a questionnaire, given to the teacher of the five-year old group at Evergreen Pre-Primary in Gauteng, to identify what types of social behaviours were portrayed within a week by each five-year old.

d) To provide, analyze and describe results from the completed questionnaires.

e) To provide conclusions and possible recommendations.

The following hypothesis guided the study:

Hypothesis 0: Parenting styles do not affect the behaviour of five-year olds.

Hypothesis 1: Parenting styles do affect the behaviour of five-year olds.

It is necessary to confirm the methods and procedures of data collection before the empirical results are presented. Data was collected within this study by means of a **survey**. The survey was conducted with two questionnaires – firstly, the **Parenting Styles and Dimensions Questionnaire (PSDQ)** as developed by Robinson, Mandleco, Olsen and Hart (2001). Secondly, the **Behavioural Questionnaire (BQ)**, as developed by the researcher. The PSDQ was used and distributed to both parents of each child within the five-year old group at Evergreen Pre-Primary. The BQ was used and distributed to the teacher of the five-year old group to rate the behaviour of each five-year old over the span of four days.

4.3 MEASURING INSTRUMENTS

4.3.1 The Parenting Styles And Dimensions Questionnaire (PSDQ)

This questionnaire forms part of the measuring instruments used in the study. In order for the reader to understand the empirical results, the following will be clarified:

4.3.1.1 Test Administration

This 32-item questionnaire was designed by the abovementioned authors, to assess constellations of parenting behaviours (styles) that create a pervasive interactional climate over a wide range of situations (Robinson in Pretorius, 2000:14).

The PSDQ was developed to allow responses of a parent concerning his own parenting styles, as well as, the same parent's opinion of his spouse's parenting style. The PSDQ was used to obtain an overall indication of the parenting styles of the participants. The researcher has gained permission by the author to conduct research with the PSD-Questionnaire (refer to Addendum D, page 106 for a copy of the PSDQ). The parents had two days to complete the questionnaires and to return it to school where the researcher collected it. The questionnaires were scored by a research psychologist.

In this study, the PSDQ was used to obtain an overall indication of the parenting styles of the participants. The three main typologies differentiated by the PSDQ are the authoritarian, authoritative and permissive parenting styles.

4.3.1.2 Scoring

Instead of identifying parents according to a specific parenting style, the PSDQ indicates scores on the utilization of all three parenting styles. The test was scored by a research psychologist. In an attempt to aid comprehension of the scoring, Anastasi and Urbina (1997) define the following terms used with scores given:

- **Cronbach's alpha:** is the variance for each item and the variance for the sum scale. In other words, values must be larger than 0.75 for Alpha coefficient to be regarded as acceptable (Cronbach's Alpha, 1984-2008).
- **Factor loadings:** correlations between variables are called factor loadings, in other words values larger than 0.3 for factor analysis are usually seen as acceptable (Factor Loadings, 1984-2008).

As mentioned in the literature study, it was necessary to explore the different parenting dimensions (nature) in order to discover the outcomes it has on the five-year old's behaviour. In accordance to this, the study also focused on the exploration of the following dimensions with each parenting style included in the PSDQ.

a) Authoritative Parenting Style (Factor 1)

According to the PSDQ (refer to Addendum D, page 105 for a copy of the PSDQ) the authoritative parenting style has the following three dimensions:

- A connection dimension with warmth and support as characteristics of which 5 items or questions are related to this dimension in the questionnaire.
- A regulation dimension with reasoning or induction as characteristics of which 5 items or questions are related to this dimension in the questionnaire.
- An autonomy granting dimension with democratic participation as characteristics of which 5 items or questions are related to this dimension in the questionnaire.

Factor loadings for the 15 items that constitute the authoritative dimension range from 0.43 to 0.78 with a Cronbach's Alpha of 0.86 (Robinson *et al.* 2001). As mentioned above, values larger than 0.75 for Alpha are usually regarded as acceptable. Since this alpha coefficient value is 0.86, the scale may be said to have an acceptable level of reliability. The factor loadings in this analysis are larger than 0.3 and can therefore also be seen as acceptable. The implication is that construct can be clearly distinguished.

b)Authoritarian Parenting Style (Factor 2)

According to the PSDQ, the authoritarian parenting style has the following three dimensions:

- A physical coercion dimension with physical punishment as a characteristic of which 4 items or questions are related to this dimension in the questionnaire.
- A verbal hostility dimension with anger and criticism as a characteristic of which 4 items or questions are related to this dimension in the questionnaire.
- A non-reasoning/punitive dimension whereby the parent punishes with no justification as a characteristic of which 4 items or questions are related to this dimension in the questionnaire.

Factor loadings for the 12 items that constitute the authoritarian dimension, range from 0.43 to 0.85 with a Cronbach's Alpha of 0.82 (Robinson *et al.* 2001). This Alpha coefficient value is 0.82. Therefore the scale may be said to have an acceptable level of reliability. The factor loadings in this analysis are larger than 0.3 and therefore can also be seen as acceptable. The construct can therefore be clearly distinguished.

c)Permissive Parenting Style (Factor 3)

According to the PSDQ, the permissive parenting style has the following dimension:

- An indulgent dimension whereby parent states punishment but does not follow through. This is seen as a characteristic of which 5 items or questions are related to this dimension in the questionnaire.

Factor loadings for the 5 items that constitute the permissive dimension range from 0.37 to 0.78 with a Cronbach's Alpha of 0.64 (Robinson *et al.* 2001). This Alpha coefficient value is 0.64. As the value is less than 0.75, the scale may be said to have an unacceptable level of reliability. The factor loadings in this analysis are larger than 0.3 and can therefore be seen as acceptable. The implication is that the construct can be clearly distinguished.

4.3.2 The Behavioural Questionnaire (BQ)

The following questionnaire also forms part of the measuring instruments used in the study - the **Behavioural Questionnaire (BQ)**. The BQ was formulated by the researcher in observation of common social behaviours that occur during school time among peers and others (refer to Addendum E, page 113 for a copy of the BQ).

4.3.2.1 Test Administration

The BQ consists of 30 items used to measure 5 subscale (common) behaviours occurring within the five-year old group, measuring on a scale of 1 being *never*, 2 being *occasionally* and 3 being *always*.

a) The Five Subscale Behaviours

The class teacher of the five-year old group observed the behaviour of the five-year olds for a period of four days. From this observation, the five most common behaviours displayed by the five-year olds among each other, were the following:

- Aggression: physical attacks or over-assertiveness (Brink, 2006:47).
- Disrespect: a lack of empathy, generosity and helpfulness (Eisenberg, in Brink, 2006:44).
- Hyperactivity: lacks boundaries; disruptive; impulsive.
- Detached: shy; withdrawn; lacks motivation; quiet; follower.
- Acceptable Social Behaviour: positive, more appropriate behaviours in the society (Gonzalez-Mena, 2006:168).

Both measuring instruments (PSDQ and BQ) were handed out on the same day to the respective participants. The total number of parents in the five-year old group

consisted of 50 parents (N=50) (mother and father of each child). Only 30 parents (N=30), 15 mothers (n=15) and 15 fathers (n=15) filled out and returned their PSD questionnaires after 48 hours as stipulated. Therefore within the PSDQ only 4 boys (n=4) and 11 girls' (n=11) parents could be analysed effectively to determine what parenting styles were utilized on the five-year old. Although the sample group for the BQ turned out to be 24 pupils (N=24), where 9 boys (n=9) and 15 girls (n=15) were present at school for the four days of sampling.

4.3.2.2 Scoring

Within the BQ there are five subscale behaviours of which each behaviour was rated on a scale of 1 to 3. The number 1 rating being "never", 2 being "occasionally" and 3 being "always". From the scoring an average was determined for each behaviour of which a mean was calculated.

The following section details the data collection procedures.

4.4 DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURES

During the study the following procedures were followed:

- Evergreen Pre-primary was approached and the research was presented to the principal. Permission was requested and received from the school to conduct the research there.
- The five-year old group was identified by the researcher to fit the sample and their parents were sent an information sheet and consent form along with the PSD-Questionnaire. The completed consent forms and questionnaires were returned to the researcher within 48 hours (Addendum D, page 106).
- The researcher met with the teacher of the five-year old group whereby the Behavioural Questionnaire was explained. The teacher filled out the questionnaire according to behaviours observed among the five-year old group in the school environment. Observation took place over four days in order to fill out the questionnaire (Addendum E, page 113).
- The themes were discussed and a literature study was conducted (chapter 2 and 3).
- The analysis and results were described from the completed questionnaires (chapter 4).

- The implications of the research and suggested areas for further research were considered as well as providing conclusions and recommendations (chapter 5).

4.5 STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

Statistical analyses were performed due to the quantitative nature of the study. Statistical analysis was performed with the statistical programme SPSS 15.0 (SPSS Inc, 2006). Descriptive statistics were used to analyze and interpret the research results. When data is not normally distributed and the measurements at best contain rank order information, computing the standard descriptive statistics (e.g., mean, standard deviation) is sometimes not the most informative way to summarize data. This is then seen as a descriptive statistic (Nonparametric statistics, 1984-2008).

The nature of the paternal and maternal parenting was described using descriptive statistics such as frequencies, means, standard deviations and minimum and maximum values for parenting styles and dimensions as well as the behaviours of the five-year olds. Furthermore, inferential statistics as given by Fouché and De Vos (2005:242) were applied as the final step in all statistical analyses. In other words, probability statements were made concerning the populations from which the samples were drawn. It leads to statements where the researcher mentions a certain percentage, for example, 30% of fathers and mothers tend to use the authoritative parenting style the most. Inferential statistics were therefore used to compare subgroups in order to address the supporting research differences between paternal and maternal parenting, how mother rates father and herself and father rates mother and himself, as well as the rating of the five-year old's behaviour.

Specific inferential methods used were the non-parametric *Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test* (Anastasi & Urbina, 1997) for repeated samples and parametric paired samples T-tests. The Wilcoxon Signed Ranks test is designed to test hypotheses about the location (median) of a population distribution. A difference (d) score is calculated between the scores in an attempt to determine the distribution of the scores (Burns & Grove, 2001).

These were done to determine whether the mean differences between subgroup scores (such as a mother's self rating and father's self rating on the same scale) were significant. The reason for using both parametric and non-parametric statistics

is that the sample size is fairly small. Using both parametric and non-parametric methods ensures that significant differences are not overlooked.

Non-parametric correlation studies calculating *Spearman's Rho* (Anastasi & Urbina, 1997), the rank order of correlation coefficients were done to determine the correlation between scores on parenting styles and the scores provided by the teacher about five-year olds' behaviour. This, in essence, answers the research question of this study.

4.6 FINDINGS

In an attempt to clarify the findings, Anastasi and Urbina (1997) state that the **significance value** has to be less than 0,05 in order to obtain a significant difference between the groups on a scale. When interpreting **inferential statistics**, a significance value of less than 0,05 implies that there is a 95% chance that the null hypothesis may be rejected, implying that there is a statistically significant difference between the groups on a scale.

The results of the statistical analysis that addressed each of the research questions will be discussed following a general description of parenting and the five-year olds' social behaviour.

4.6.1 Descriptives Of Parents Rating Themselves And One Another And Teacher Rating Five-Year Old Behaviour

In order to describe the nature of parenting and the type of behaviour displayed by the five-year olds observed by the teacher among the 24 pupils in the five-year old group, a descriptive statistic (mean score) was performed. As mentioned before, statistical calculation was done by utilizing means of the raw scores to obtain a profile of parenting styles characteristic of the parents included in this research as well as the common behaviour displayed by the five-year old observed and rated by the teacher of the group. The means of each parenting style and dimensional differentiations were calculated on a five-point scale according to specific prescriptions of Robinson *et al.* (2001). Descriptive statistics were calculated with regard to all of the subscales of the Parent questionnaire as well as the Behavioural questionnaire.

Results can be referred to in Addendum F, page 115 of the descriptive statistic depicting the means of how the father rates his spouse and himself; how the mother

rates her spouse and herself; and the teacher rating the behaviour of the five-year old. The following section provides the descriptive statistics of the sample included in the study. Visual presentations of the total sample (N=15) divided into the following constructs are provided: father rating spouse, father rating self, mother rating spouse, mother rating self and teacher rating the behaviour of the five-year old.

From Addendum F, page 115 and presentation below (Figure 4.1) it can be seen that fathers rated their spouse as using the Authoritative Style more (Factor 1) ($\bar{x}=4.02$) of which a higher rate was for the subscale connection dimension (warmth and support) ($\bar{x}=4.41$). The lower mean was calculated as the Authoritarian Style (Factor 2) for father rating mother ($\bar{x}=1.92$). However, the father rated his spouse as using less of the physical coercion dimension ($\bar{x}=1.73$).

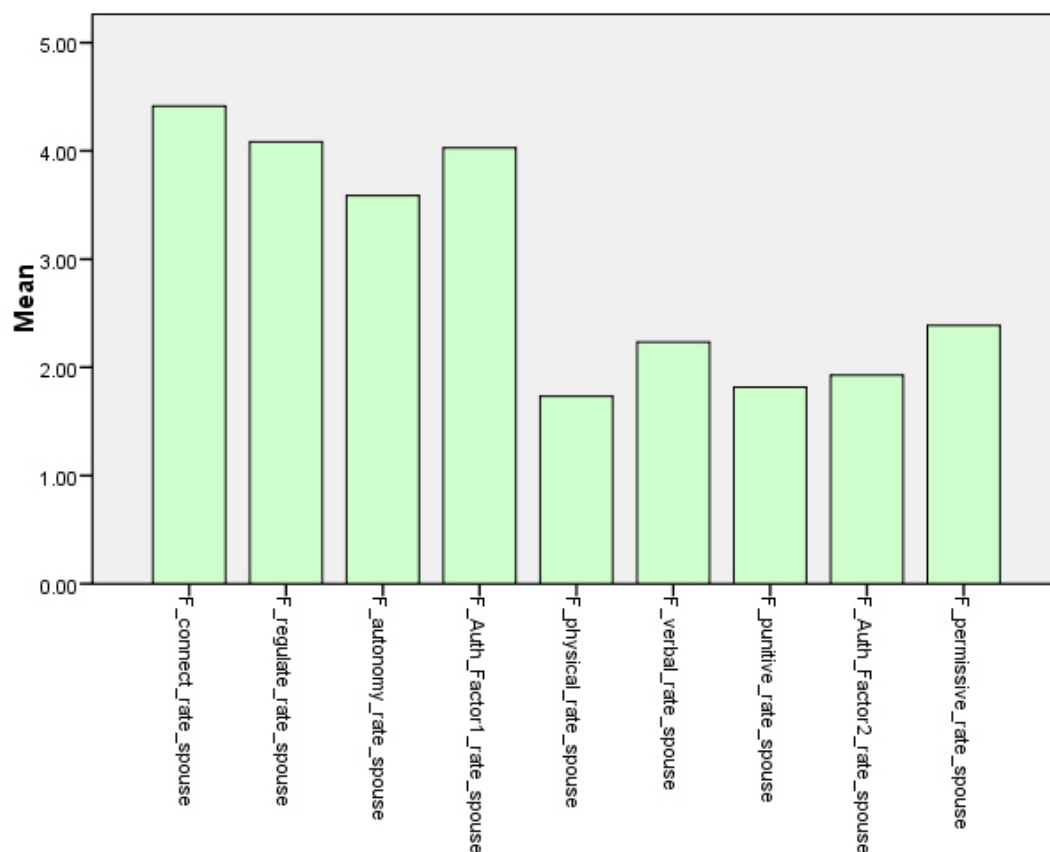


Figure 4.1 Descriptives Of Father Rating Spouse

From Addendum F, page 115 and presentation below (Figure 4.2) it can be seen that fathers rated them self as using the Authoritative Style more (Factor 1) (\bar{x} =3.91) of which a higher rate was for the subscale connection dimension (warmth and support) (\bar{x} =4.20). The parenting style used the least by the father himself as seen as the lower mean was calculated as the Authoritarian Style (Factor 2) (\bar{x} =1.86). Within that parenting style the father rated himself as using less of the punitive dimension (\bar{x} =1.65).

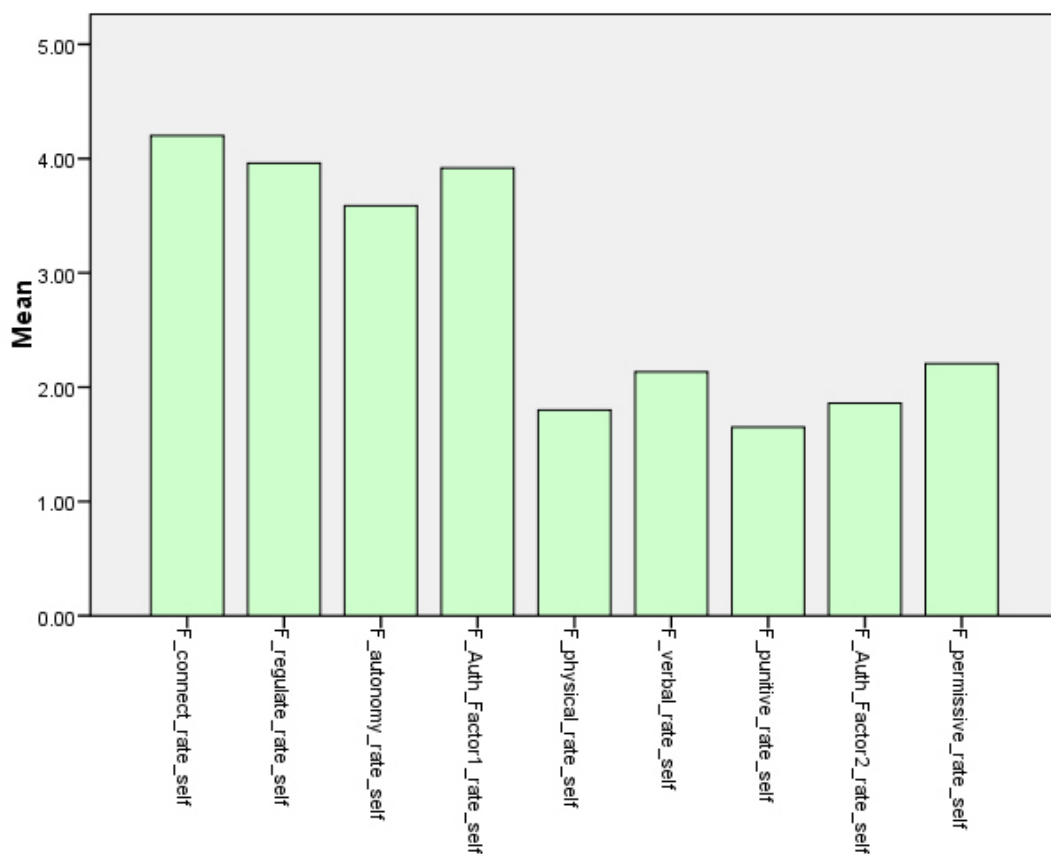


Figure 4.2 Descriptives Of Father Rating Self

Similarly, as seen in Addendum F, page 115 and presentation below (Figure 4.3) the mother rated the spouse as using the Authoritative Style more (Factor 1) ($\bar{x}=3.82$) of which a higher rate was for connection dimension (warmth and support) ($\bar{x}=4.22$). The lower mean was calculated with the mother rating her spouse as the father using less of the Authoritarian Style (Factor 2) ($\bar{x}=1.79$). Interestingly, the mother rated the spouse as using the physical coercion dimension less ($\bar{x}=1.83$).

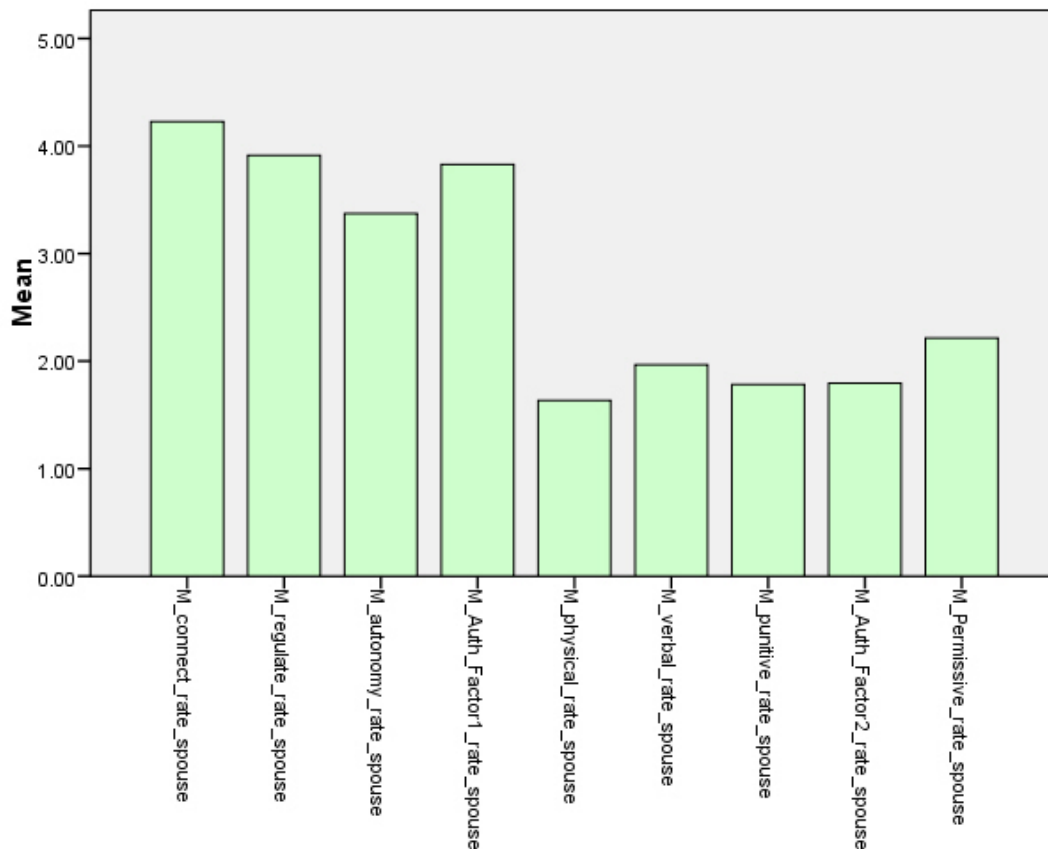


Figure 4.3 Descriptives Of Mother Rating Spouse

In Addendum F, page 115 and presentation below (Figure 4.4) the mother rated herself as using mostly the Authoritative Style (Factor 1) ($\bar{x}=4.04$) of which again a higher rate was for connection dimension (warmth and support) ($\bar{x}=4.54$). The lower mean, being mother rating herself, was calculated as the Authoritarian Style (Factor 2) ($\bar{x}=2.07$). Within that Authoritarian Parenting Style, the mother rated herself as using less of the physical coercion dimension ($\bar{x}=1.83$).

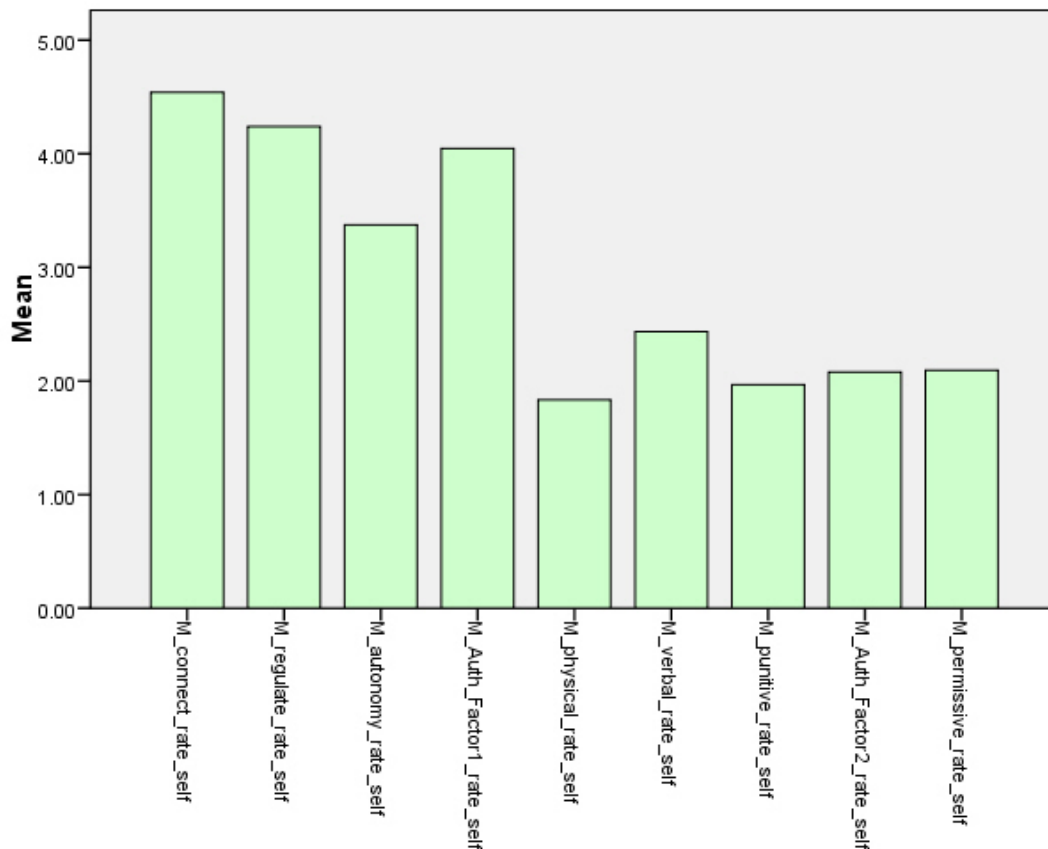


Figure 4.4 Descriptives Of Mother Rating Self

Following, as seen in Addendum F, page 115 and the presentation below (Figure 4.5) is the teacher's rating of the children's behaviour at school of which acceptable social behaviour is at the highest mean score ($\bar{X}=2.57$), with hyperactivity not far off ($\bar{X}=1.88$), following aggression ($\bar{X}=1.69$), then detached ($\bar{X}=1.64$). The lowest mean score is disrespect ($\bar{X}=1.57$).

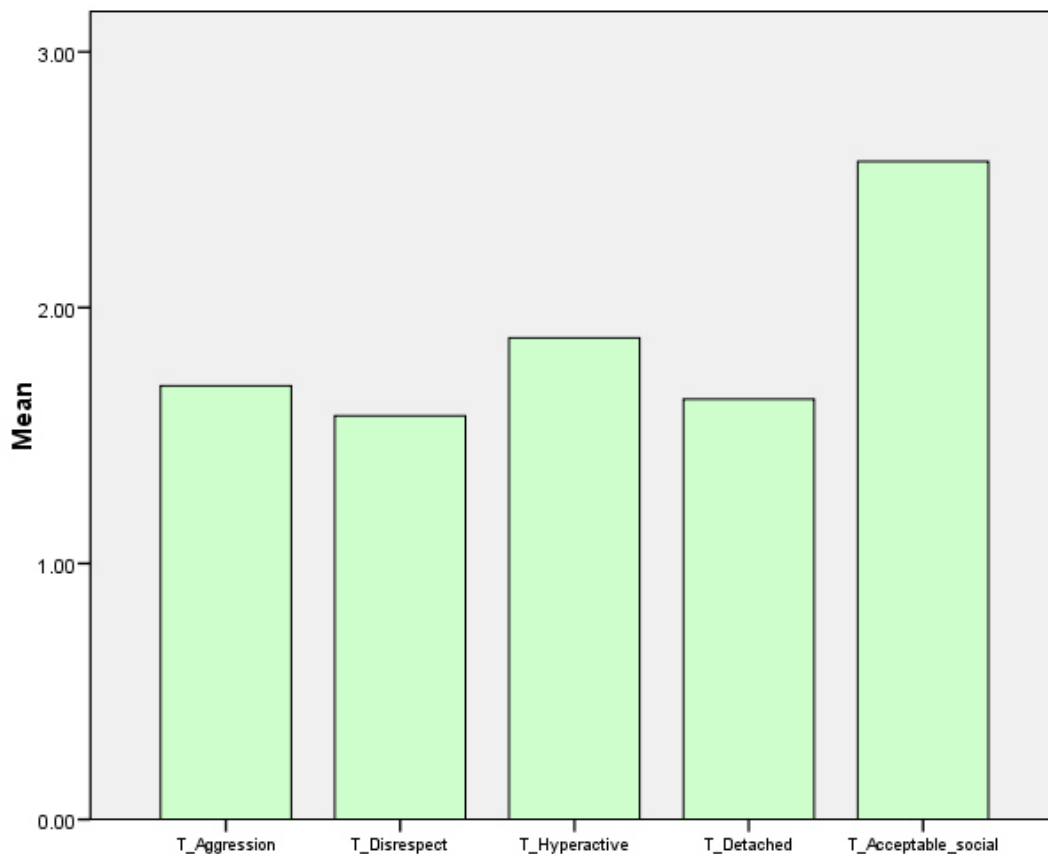


Figure 4.5 Descriptives Of Teacher Rating Children's Behaviour At School

In conclusion, within the descriptive statistics it showed that the most common parenting style rated by each parent (mother and father) for themselves and for their spouse was the Authoritative Style (Factor 1) of which acceptable social behaviour is the outcome of the five-year old at school as rated by the teacher.

4.6.2 Ratings Of Boys And Girls On The Parent Questionnaire

A statistical analysis was done to explore the existence of significant differences in parenting concerning the 15 PSD questionnaires (N=15) returned of five-year old boys (n=4) and girls (n=11). Statistical analysis concerning parenting and gender of the child was performed with the statistical programme SPSS (SPSS Inc, 2006).

Visual presentations of the sample of boys (N=4) and sample of girls (N=11) divided into the following constructs are provided: father rating spouse, father rating self, mother rating spouse and mother rating self. Addendum G, page 117 shows the mean difference and standard deviation differences between boys and girls on the parent questionnaire.

In Addendum G, page 117 and presentation below (Figure 4.6) fathers rated their spouse as using mostly the Authoritative Style (Factor 1) for both boys ($\bar{x}=4.10$) and girls ($\bar{x}=4.00$). The parenting style used the least by the mother among the boys ($\bar{x}=2.00$) and the girls ($\bar{x}=1.90$) was the Authoritarian Style (Factor 2) whereby the father rated the mother as being more physical towards the boys ($\bar{x}=1.81$) and more punitive towards the girls ($\bar{x}=1.84$).

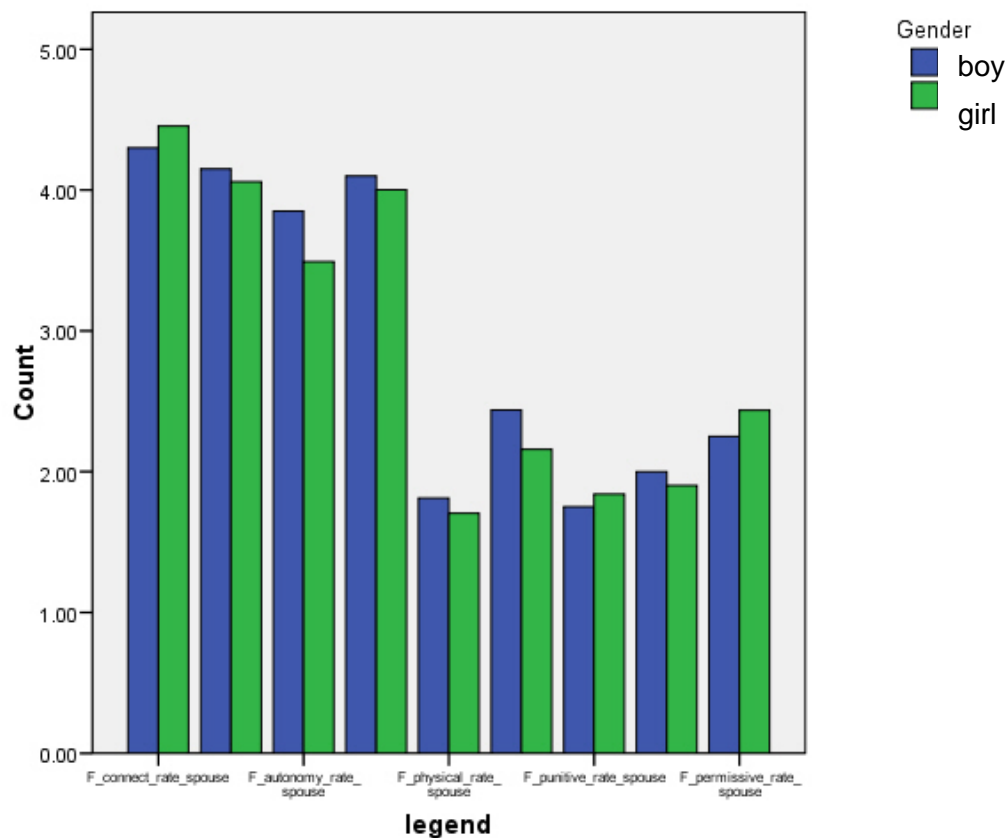


Figure 4.6 Ratings Of Boys And Girls On Father Rating Spouse

Interestingly, below in Figure 4.7 and in Addendum G, page 117 it shows how fathers rate themselves as using all three parenting styles more strongly towards the boys (\bar{x} =4.00; 2.52; 2.06) than towards the girls (\bar{x} =3.88; 2.09; 1.78). Although the regulation dimension (reasoning/induction) was used on both the boys (\bar{x} =3.95) and the girls (\bar{x} =3.96) almost equally.

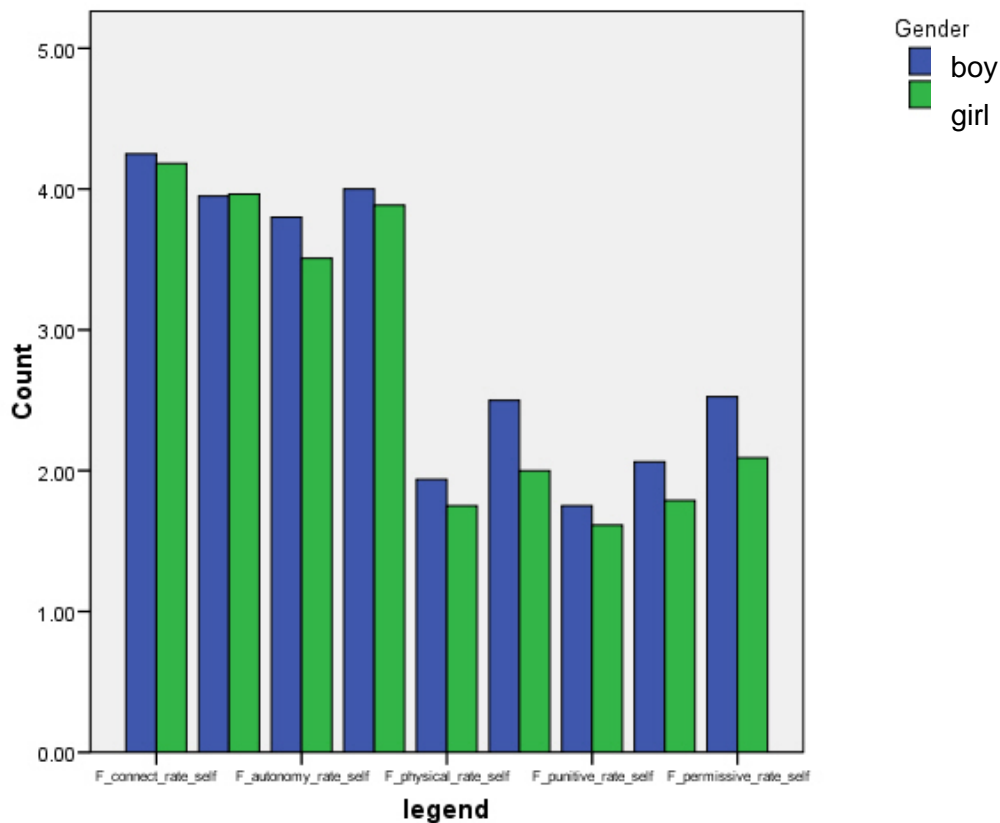


Figure 4.7 Ratings Of Boys And Girls On Father Rating Self

As seen in the visual presentation below (Figure 4.8) the mother on the other hand, rated the husband as using the Authoritative Style more (Factor 1) mostly towards the girls ($\bar{x}=3.90$) than boys ($\bar{x}=3.61$) and the Authoritarian Style (Factor 2) more towards the boys ($\bar{x}=2.27$) than girls ($\bar{x}=1.62$).

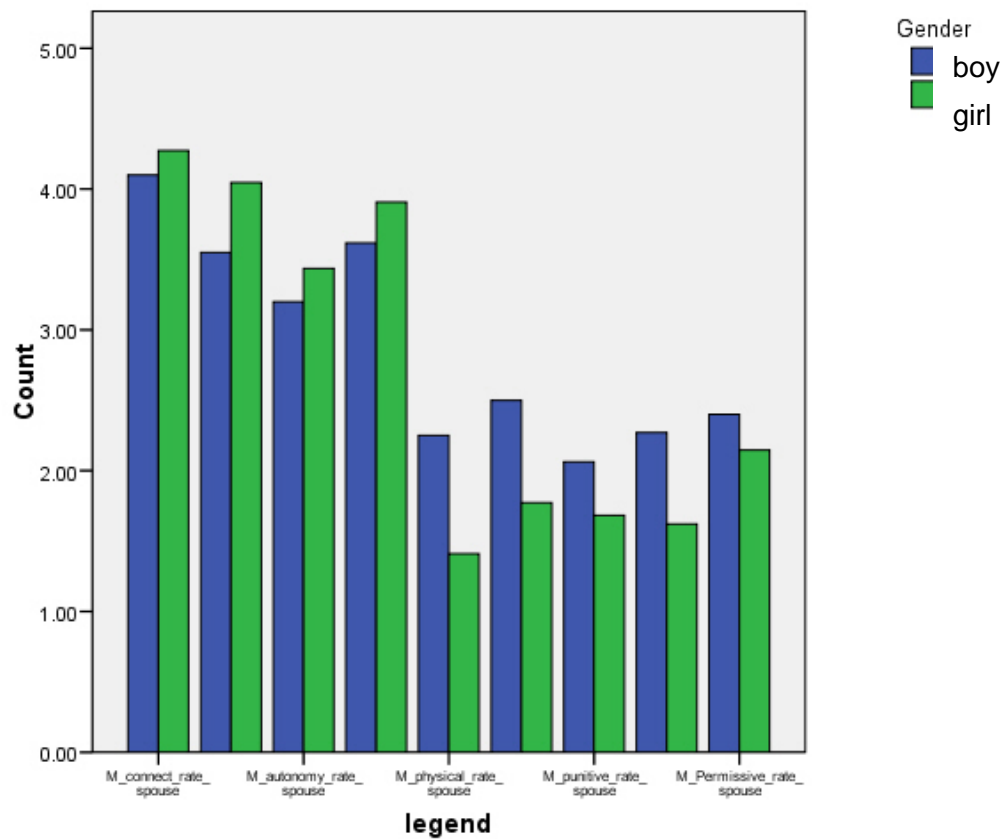


Figure 4.8 Ratings Of Boys And Girls On Mother Rating Spouse

From Figure 4.9 there does not seem to be a significant difference in the mother rating herself.

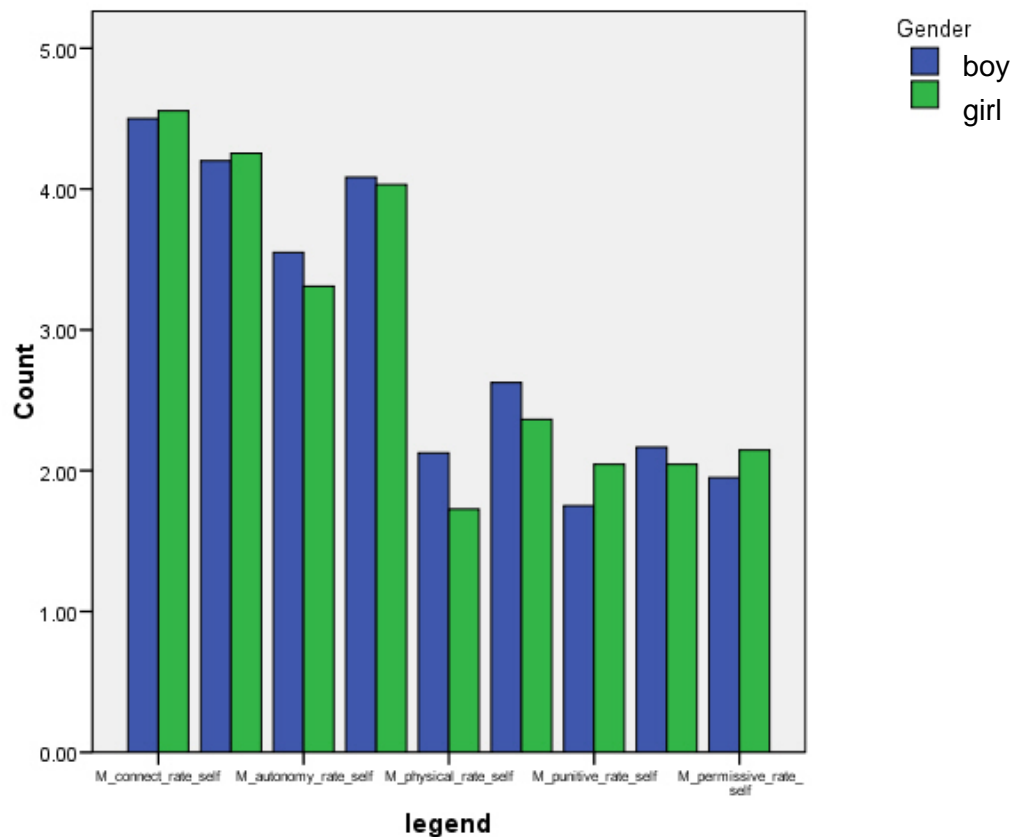


Figure 4.9 Ratings Of Boys And Girls On Mother Rating Self

There was a significant difference found when rating boys and girls with regard to which parenting style was used the most with a specific gender and which was used the least. As seen in Addendum G, p117 the father rated his spouse as using more the Authoritative Style (Factor 1) on boys ($\bar{x}=4.10$), while mothers rated them self as also using the Authoritative Style (Factor 1) more but mostly on the girls ($\bar{x}=4.03$). With this, it is seen that the mother uses mainly the connection dimension (warmth and support) with both boys and girls respectively.

Interestingly, the father rated himself and the mother rated her spouse as using the Authoritarian Parenting Style (Factor2) the least for both the boys and girls respectively. Regarding the dimensions, mothers rated spouse using the punitive dimension for boys ($\bar{x}=2.06$) the least. For the girls ($\bar{x}=1.40$) the least dimension used was the physical coercion dimension. But the father rated himself as using the punitive dimension the least on both the boys ($\bar{x}=1.75$) and girls ($\bar{x}=1.61$)

respectively. The sample shows that the father uses mostly the verbal hostility dimension (anger and criticism) with both boys and girls respectively.

4.6.3 Ratings Of Boys And Girls On The Behavioural Questionnaire

A statistical analysis and a visual presentation was done to explore the existence of significant differences in the teacher rating of the behaviour of the 24 five-year old boys (n=9) and girls (n=15) present at school during the teacher's four day observation. Statistical analysis concerning the teacher's rating of behaviour and gender of the child was performed with the statistical programme SPSS (SPSS Inc, 2006).

Addendum G, page 117 and Figure 4.10 shows the mean difference and standard deviation differences between boys and girls within the 5 scales. Both the boys and the girls were rated as showing more acceptable social behaviour and the least behaviour rated was disrespect. Interestingly though, significant differences appeared in aggression and hyperactive behaviour whereby aggression ($\bar{x}=1.96$) and hyperactivity ($\bar{x}=2.29$) was higher in boys than girls.

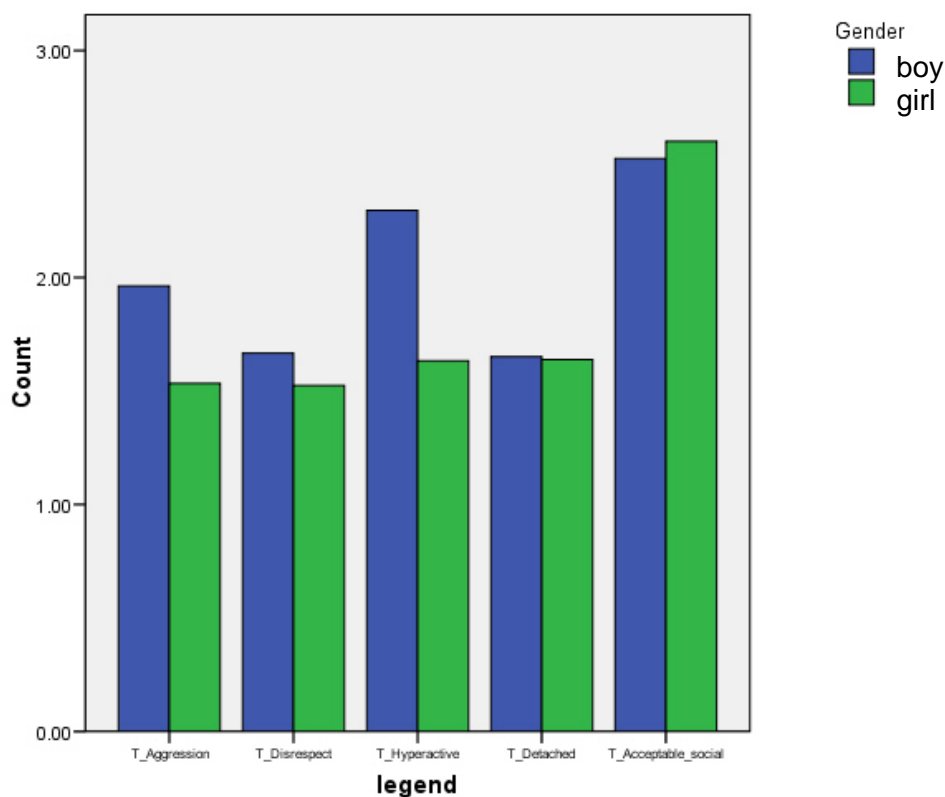


Figure 4.10 Ratings Of Boys And Girls On The Teacher Rating Behaviour

4.6.4 Correlations Between The Parenting Style And The Five-Year Old Behaviour

The Non-Parametric correlation coefficient was calculated to establish the correlations between the three parenting styles respectively, and the common behaviours displayed by the five-year olds (N=14). Table 4.3 shows results of the following significant correlations.

Table 4.3: RESULTS OF NON-PARAMETRIC CORRELATION FOR PARENTING STYLES AND FIVE-YEAR OLD BEHAVIOUR

		Aggression	Disrespect	Hyperactive	Detached	Acceptable social
F_connect_rate_spouse	Correlation Coefficient	0.11	0.23	-0.13	-0.03	0.12
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.60	0.28	0.53	0.86	0.56
F_regulate_rate_spouse	Correlation Coefficient	0.10	-0.26	0.13	-0.02	-0.25
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.64	0.21	0.53	0.90	0.24
F_autonomy_rate_spouse	Correlation Coefficient	0.17	-0.09	0.03	-0.02	0.17
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.41	0.65	0.86	0.90	0.41
F_Auth_Factor1_rate_spouse	Correlation Coefficient	0.13	-0.05	0.08	0.03	0.02
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.52	0.78	0.69	0.86	0.90
F_physical_rate_spouse	Correlation Coefficient	0.07	-0.07	0.32	-0.16	-0.14
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.72	0.73	0.12	0.45	0.52
F_verbal_rate_spouse	Correlation Coefficient	0.19	-0.03	-0.02	-0.12	0.38
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.38	0.86	0.91	0.56	0.08
F_punitive_rate_spouse	Correlation Coefficient	0.29	0.41	-0.01	-0.25	0.18
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.18	0.05	0.95	0.24	0.41
F_Auth_Factor2_rate_spouse	Correlation Coefficient	0.20	0.02	0.14	-0.16	0.22
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.35	0.91	0.50	0.45	0.30
F_permissive_rate_spouse	Correlation Coefficient	0.18	0.17	-0.20	0.01	0.34
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.38	0.40	0.34	0.95	0.12
F_connect_rate_self	Correlation Coefficient	0.31	0.39	-0.08	-0.22	0.37
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.14	0.06	0.69	0.29	0.09
F_regulate_rate_self	Correlation Coefficient	0.11	-0.15	-0.07	0.01	-0.17
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.60	0.46	0.73	0.95	0.42
F_autonomy_rate_self	Correlation Coefficient	0.18	-0.03	-0.17	-0.11	0.28
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.41	0.86	0.42	0.59	0.19
F_Auth_Factor1_rate_self	Correlation Coefficient	0.25	0.06	-0.09	-0.08	0.23
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.23	0.73	0.65	0.68	0.27
F_physical_rate_self	Correlation Coefficient	0.01	-0.33	0.30	0.17	0.09
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.95	0.12	0.16	0.44	0.68
F_verbal_rate_self	Correlation Coefficient	0.12	-0.24	0.10	0.01	.459(*)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.56	0.26	0.61	0.95	0.03
F_punitive_rate_self	Correlation Coefficient	0.40	0.41	0.05	-0.30	0.34
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.07	0.05	0.81	0.17	0.12
F_Auth_Factor2_rate_self	Correlation Coefficient	0.02	-0.30	0.22	0.05	0.28
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.90	0.15	0.28	0.81	0.20
F_permissive_rate_self	Correlation Coefficient	0.17	0.08	0.13	0.07	0.37
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.42	0.69	0.53	0.72	0.08
M_connect_rate_spouse	Correlation Coefficient	0.14	0.22	-0.18	-0.03	0.13
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.52	0.30	0.39	0.86	0.55
M_regulate_rate_spouse	Correlation Coefficient	-0.01	-0.05	-0.37	0.17	0.03
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.95	0.77	0.08	0.41	0.86
M_autonomy_rate_spouse	Correlation Coefficient	-0.07	-0.14	-.431(*)	-0.08	0.25
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.72	0.49	0.04	0.68	0.24
M_Auth_Factor1_rate_spouse	Correlation Coefficient	0.10	0.05	-0.29	0.06	0.12
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.64	0.77	0.16	0.77	0.56
M_physical_rate_spouse	Correlation Coefficient	0.13	0.01	.550(*)	0.23	0.11
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.55	0.95	0.01	0.28	0.59
M_verbal_rate_spouse	Correlation Coefficient	0.19	0.05	0.21	0	.466(*)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.445(*)	0.81	0.32	1	0.04
M_punitive_rate_spouse	Correlation Coefficient	.445(*)	0.32	0.23	-.458(*)	0.40
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.04	0.13	0.28	0.04	0.07

		Aggression	Disrespect	Hyperactive	Detached	Acceptable social
M_Auth_Factor2_rate_spouse	Correlation Coefficient	0.14	-0.04	0.32	0	0.24
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.49	0.82	0.11	1	0.25
M_Permissive_rate_spouse	Correlation Coefficient	-0.02	-0.04	0.06	-0.06	0.19
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.90	0.82	0.77	0.77	0.38
M_connect_rate_self	Correlation Coefficient	0.05	0.06	-0.20	0.09	0.13
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.81	0.77	0.35	0.67	0.55
M_regulate_rate_self	Correlation Coefficient	-0.21	-.422(*)	-0.14	0.12	-0.22
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.32	0.04	0.49	0.56	0.29
M_autonomy_rate_self	Correlation Coefficient	-0.18	-0.22	-0.02	0.40	-0.05
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.38	0.28	0.91	0.06	0.81
M_Auth_Factor1_rate_self	Correlation Coefficient	-0.15	-0.21	-0.09	0.30	-0.08
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.49	0.31	0.65	0.16	0.68
M_physical_rate_self	Correlation Coefficient	-0.07	-0.14	.454(*)	0.16	-0.22
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.72	0.49	0.03	0.44	0.32
M_verbal_rate_self	Correlation Coefficient	0.13	0.07	-0.03	-0.16	0.22
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.52	0.73	0.86	0.45	0.30
M_punitive_rate_self	Correlation Coefficient	0.07	0.06	-0.26	-0.18	0.06
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.72	0.77	0.22	0.41	0.76
M_Auth_Factor2_rate_self	Correlation Coefficient	0.14	-0.036	0.10	-0.10	0.14
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.52	0.86	0.61	0.64	0.52
M_permissive_rate_self	Correlation Coefficient	0.03	0.13	-0.20	-0.12	0.11
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.86	0.53	0.33	0.55	0.59

As can be seen in Table 4.3, the higher the father rates the spouse to be punitive (Authoritarian Style: Factor 2), the higher the teacher rates disrespect ($r=0.41$) among the five-year old. Interestingly though, the higher the father rates himself as using verbal hostility dimension (Authoritarian Style: Factor 2), the higher the teacher rates acceptable social behaviour ($r=.459^*$) among five-year olds. Further, the higher the father rates himself as using the punitive dimension (Authoritarian Style: Factor 2), the higher the teacher rates disrespect ($r=0.41$) among the five-year olds.

As for the mothers' ratings, the higher the mother rates her spouse using autonomy granting (Authoritative Style: Factor 1), the lower the teacher rates the five-year old to be hyperactive ($r=-.431$). The higher the mother rates her spouse using the physical coercion dimension (Authoritarian Style: Factor 2), the higher the teacher rates the five-year old to be hyperactive ($r=.550^*$). Interestingly again, it seems that when the father uses verbal hostility (Authoritarian Style: Factor 2) as rated now by the mother, the higher the teacher rates the five-year old to have acceptable social behaviour ($r=.466^*$).

Other significant correlations indicate that the higher the mother rates her spouse as using the punitive dimension (Authoritarian Style: Factor 2), the higher the teacher rates the five-year old as showing aggression ($r=.445^*$) and at the same time the

lower the teacher rates the five-year old as being detached ($r=-.458^*$). Furthermore, the higher the mother rates herself as using regulation dimension (Authoritative Style: Factor 1), the lower the teacher rates the five-year old to show disrespect ($r=-.422^*$). Finally, the higher the mother rates herself using the physical coercion dimension (Authoritarian Style: Factor 2), the higher the teacher rates the five-year old showing hyperactivity ($r=.454^*$).

There seemed to be more of a significant correlation in the paternal parenting style (father rating himself as well as mother rating father) especially the parenting dimensions within the Authoritarian Parenting Style (Factor 2) and child's behaviour as compared to the maternal parenting styles used on the five-year old, since there were only two significant correlations with the mother's rating of herself.

It is for this reason that the null hypothesis, as stated at the beginning of the chapter, is rejected accepting the alternative hypothesis, proving that:

Parenting styles do affect the behaviour of five-year old children.

4.7 CONCLUSION

The main aim of this study along with existing literature was to investigate the affect of the parenting styles on the five-year old children's behaviour at Evergreen Pre-primary in Gauteng. In this study, the statistical analysis and visual presentations, as reported by the parents in the sample indicate that the parenting style most utilized, is the Authoritative Parenting Style (Factor 1) which has a positive relationship with socially acceptable behaviour shown by the five-year olds as rated by the teacher. This study also reveals though that the Authoritative Parenting Style (Factor 1) is complemented by high levels of connection dimension (warmth and support) and low levels of the autonomy granting dimension (democratic participation) from the mother and the father for both the boys and girls.

The parenting style least utilized was the Authoritarian Parenting Style (Factor 2), mainly by the father (father rating himself and mother rating father) for both the boys and the girls. The mother seemed to lean more towards the Permissive Parenting Style as the least used, mainly towards the boys. The Authoritarian Parenting Style (Factor 2) is complemented by high levels of the verbal hostility dimension (anger and criticism) for boys and girls and low levels of the physical coercion (physical punishment) for girls and low levels of punitive dimension (non-reasoning) for boys.

Both the boys and the girls were rated as showing more acceptable social behaviour and the least behaviour rated was disrespect. Interestingly though, significant differences appeared in aggression and hyperactive behaviour whereby aggression and hyperactivity was higher in boys than girls. Interestingly, it has been found that parents using more warmth and support in the bringing up of their children result in socially acceptable behaviour.

A more detailed discussion of the results presented in this chapter, as well as conclusions, limitations and recommendations will be presented in Chapter five.

CHAPTER 5:

AN INTEGRATED SUMMARY OF CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

In the previous chapter the empirical results of the study were discussed. Firstly, this chapter aims to evaluate to what extent the goal and objectives of this research study have been achieved and to then formulate conclusions. Secondly, limitations of the study will be suggested. Thirdly, recommendations will be deduced from the findings of the research study.

Chapter 1 defined a parenting style as the way in which a parent raises his child (Louw *et al.* 1998:351). Several authors (compare Ayers, 2002:151; Gottman, 1997:50-52; Louw *et al.* 1998:351-352) agreed on four styles of parenting, namely the *Permissive Parent*, *Authoritarian Parent*, *Uninvolved Parent* and the *Authoritative Parent*. There are different dimensions in these parenting styles. For the purpose of the current study, the focus was on the three main types of parenting styles, namely the *Authoritative Parent*, *Authoritarian Parent* and the *Permissive Parent*. According to Pretorius (2000:6) other parenting styles have been conceptualised, but these three main types are commonly studied.

Chapter 2 discussed the development of the pre-school child. The child's pre-school years last from about the age of two to the age of six (Louw *et al.* 1998:234-269). The terms pre-school years and early childhood years are similar in most aspects, the key factor being that it falls within the three- to six-year old continuum. This study focused on the five-year old age group. In chapter 2 the researcher described that the typical five-year old child attends pre-school, interacts with peers and develops relationships. The typical five-year old also develops the required skills necessary to cope in society. Gupta and Theus (2006:85) add that imitation is an important developmental skill and children continue to learn by imitation even when they get older. Imitation therefore plays a crucial role in children's acquisition of new skills and behaviours from opportunities naturally available to them. It may seem obvious many behaviours are learnt by observing the behaviour of other people and by watching the consequences it produces.

The reasons underlying a particular behaviour are complex and stem from a number of factors other than imitation (Gupta & Theus, 2006:30). With or without negative associations, children are naturally inclined toward rebellion, selfishness, dishonesty, aggression, exploitation and greed. They don't have to be taught these behaviours, it seems to be natural expressions of their humanness (Dobson, 2002:16).

As discussed in Chapter 3, the manner in which a five-year old behaves is also influenced by the way parents deal with their five-year old. A possible factor may be stress. Parents are more stressed and may often become more irritable. Stress may then impact their parenting style. Therefore stressed parents could be more punitive, more demanding and perhaps even more authoritarian, and may have unrealistic expectations of their children. The opposite could also be true when parents are less stressed. When parents exhibit more punitive, demanding and authoritarian behaviour, it may cause children to be more difficult and to react negatively to that type of parenting behaviour, with less acceptable social behaviour (Gupta & Theus, 2006:26).

The following section will be revisiting the goals and objectives in an attempt to provide more clarity on what has been achieved in this study.

5.2 GOAL AND OBJECTIVES REVISITED

The main goal of this study was to *determine the nature of parenting styles used on five-year olds at Evergreen Pre-Primary, Gauteng.*

To achieve the above goal, the following objectives were formulated:

a) To do a literature study in order to gain further insight on the topic of parenting styles and gain information on the impact it has on five-year olds, with a specific focus on the different forms of behaviours displayed by this age group. In order for the researcher to have achieved the first objective, a literature study was conducted as reflected in Chapter 2 and 3. The terms "parenting styles" and the behaviour of a five-year old were discussed in these chapters.

b) To use a questionnaire, given to both parents of each child in the five-year old group at Evergreen Pre-Primary in Gauteng, to identify what types of parenting styles are used. For an example of the questionnaire see Addendum D, page 106.

c) To use a questionnaire, given to the teacher of the five-year old group at Evergreen Pre-Primary in Gauteng, to identify what types of social behaviours were portrayed in four days by each five-year old. For an example of the questionnaire see Addendum E, page 113. For the achievement of the second and third objective the researcher sent out questionnaires to the sample group of parents and the teacher.

d) To provide, analyze and describe results from the completed questionnaires. The analysis and interpretations of the findings were discussed in Chapter 4. As part of the fourth objective, the questionnaires were analyzed by a qualified psychometrist and results were produced, as discussed comprehensively in Chapter 4.

e) To provide conclusions and possible recommendations for further research. This has been addressed in Chapter 5. The last objective to be achieved was to formulate conclusions from the study and address any limitations and recommendations for further study, as seen in the present chapter (Chapter 5).

From achieving the above objectives, the following summary of findings will indicate that the goal of the study has been achieved.

5.3 SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

To achieve the goal of this study, the researcher explored the common parenting style used among the sample of pre-school parents and the common behaviour shown by the sample of five-year olds. There are four sections to the findings that will be discussed. Firstly, how spouses rate themselves and each other as parents. Secondly, how the teacher rates the five-year olds' behaviour. Thirdly, according to the parents' rating, the parenting styles that both the mother and father use on both boys and girls. Fourthly, the effect the paternal and maternal parenting style has on the five-year olds' behaviour.

Following is the first section of findings related to how parents rated their spouse and themselves.

5.3.1 Parents Rating Themselves And Their Spouse

In this study the parenting style most used, as rated by the fathers and mothers included in the sample respectively, is the Authoritative Parenting Style (see Addendum F, page 115 and Figure 4.1- Figure 4.5). The most used dimension within

the Authoritative Parenting Style was the connection dimension, which has the characteristics of warmth and support. The mannerism portrayed from an authoritative parent is warm and accepting (Grolnick, 2003:2).

The least used parenting style as rated by the fathers and mothers included in the sample respectively, is the Authoritarian Parenting Style (see Addendum F, page 115 and Figure 4.1- Figure 4.5), of which the verbal hostility dimension was utilized the most, with characteristics such as anger and criticism. Reasoning while punishing children for bad behaviour and feeling irritated and angry with their children can be very destructive, especially if parents have uncontrolled aggression. Limited and purposeful discussion is critically important for the effectiveness of discipline, because talking, yelling and vehement arguing can only make the situation worse (Brink, 2006:31).

Following is the findings of the teacher's observation of the five-year olds' behaviour.

5.3.2 Teacher Rating Five-Year Old Behaviour

From the above findings of the parents rating themselves and their spouses it was suggested that the Authoritative Parenting Style, with the dominant characteristics of warmth and support, is mostly used. During the rating of the children's behaviour done by the teacher, the teacher rated acceptable social behaviour as the behaviour most displayed among the five-year olds. Gonzalez-Mena (2006:168) defines acceptable social behaviour as positive, more appropriate behaviours within the society. It may also be seen as "normal" or acceptable behaviour or mannerisms.

Several authors (compare Gonzalez-Mena, 2006:209; Gupta & Theus, 2006:24) agree that parents who use an authoritative parenting style often have a good relationship with their children. The research shows that such a parenting style tends to promote in their children independence, self-reliance, responsibility and strong motivation to achieve. They are successful socially as well as intellectually; they tend to be popular with their peers and are often cooperative towards their parents.

Gregan (in Brink, 2006:34) on the other hand states that parents nowadays are seldom laying the proper foundation for affection, love and attachment at home. As a result, children in their socialising look for affection and even negative attachments outside of the home and family. Other behaviours displayed by the five-year olds in

this study and rated by the teacher as acceptable social behaviour, were hyperactivity, aggression, detached behaviour and disrespect.

A variety of factors influence behaviour. In addition to the type of parenting style used, there could be ongoing factors such as underprivileged housing, mental illness, reconstituted family situation, lack of family involvement, family dysfunction, influence of peers, influence of school, the negative experience of the way the parents were brought up by their own parents, the child's and the parents' own early history and so on. All these factors interact and can be further compounded by the way people think, feel and construe things (Gupta & Theus, 2006:29).

To summarize, researchers suggest that children who have been experiencing any of the above factors, show disruptive behaviours when they are of kindergarten age and are likely to manifest far more serious problems - delinquency, school failure, substance abuse - later (Gupta & Theus, 2006:33). Within this study, the researcher discovered that not only is it the above factors discovered by other researchers that influence the five-year olds' behaviour but also certain parenting styles used.

Following is the third section of findings that indicate specifically what parenting styles are used on boys and girls by the mother and the father respectively.

5.3.3 Paternal And Maternal Parenting Styles Used On Boys And Girls

Although the Authoritative Parenting Style as mentioned above was most used on the five-year olds in general, it is interesting to discover what different parenting styles are used on boys and girls separately.

When referring to Addendum G, page 117 and Figure 4.6- Figure 4.9 it is seen that the characteristics "warmth" and "support" from the Authoritative Parenting Style was most used by both the mothers and fathers, almost equally on boys and girls. Whereas the least used characteristic within the Authoritative Parenting Style was democratic participation.

The following findings show the least used parenting style on both the maternal and paternal side for both boys and girls:

- a) Paternal Parenting For Boys:** Interestingly though, the mothers rated the fathers as using the Permissive Parenting Style (stating the punishment and not following through) the least on boys whereas the fathers rated themselves as using Authoritarian Parenting Style the least on boys (punishing with no

reasoning the least and anger and criticism the most). (See Figure 4.7 and Figure 4.8). Gupta and Theus (2006:49-50) introduce a case study which illustrates the authoritarian parenting style. For example, Mark is a 15-year old boy whose father, Robert, used to be very aggressive towards him. Robert decided to change his interactional approach towards his son after receiving some advice from clinicians. As a part of this change, Robert decided to be a little more laid-back, more accepting, more rewarding and less punitive compared with what he used to be. Robert mentioned that as a result of bringing about this change in his own behaviour towards Mark, Robert had noticed a considerable change in Mark's attitude and behaviour towards his father.

b) Paternal Parenting For Girls: As for the girls, the mothers rated the fathers and fathers rated themselves as using the Authoritarian Parenting Style the least. Mothers rated fathers as using more anger and criticism and less physical punishment on the girls. The fathers rating themselves towards girls, indicated more anger and criticism but less punishment with no reasoning (see Figure 4.7 and Figure 4.8). Gupta and Theus (2006:54-55) add that parents who are quite authoritarian in their approach and resent having to do things for their children seem to be the parents that suffer more stress than others.

c) Maternal Parenting For Boys: Further conclusions show that the fathers rated the mothers and mothers rated themselves as using the Permissive Parenting Style (stating the punishment and not following through) the least on boys (see Figure 4.6 and Figure 4.9). Grolnick (2003:4) states that the permissive parent includes fewer restrictions and the enforcement tends to be less firm. Mothers used less of the permissive parenting style on the boys, therefore stating the punishment and following through with it.

d) Maternal Parenting For Girls: As for the girls the fathers rated the mothers as using the Authoritarian Parenting Style the least from which anger and criticism is used the most compared to physical punishment. The strict authoritarian parent demands uncompromising obedience. Rules are established and infractions punished. Parental needs and desires come before the child's needs and desires. (compare Gonzalez-Mena, 2006:208; Grolnick, 2003:17.) In this case the mothers used less of the Authoritarian Parenting Style and mothers rated themselves as using the Permissive Parenting Style (stating the punishment and not following through) the least on girls (see Figure 4.6 and

Figure 4.9). Therefore the mothers have a good deal of self-respect but also respect for the child.

The above four findings of the least used parenting style highlights specifically the characteristics that the mothers and fathers used on boys and girls. From this, the following section shows the type of behaviour that boys and girls portray from the type of parenting style used on them.

5.3.4 The Effect Of Paternal And Maternal Parenting Styles On The Behaviour Of Boys And Girls

The following conclusion is illustrated in Figure 4.10 and Table 4.3. Both the boys and girls mostly portrayed acceptable social behaviour in the four days of being observed. This can be ascribed to the fact that both the mothers and fathers used the Authoritative Parenting Style (warmth and support) the most. The girls showed only slightly more acceptable social behaviour than the boys (see Figure 4.10).

The second highest behaviour portrayed as seen in Figure 4.10 and Table 4.3, was hyperactivity among boys and girls. Boys showed more hyperactive behaviour than girls, due to the parenting style being more authoritarian (physical punishment) from both the mothers and the fathers. The girls' hyperactive behaviour was almost equal to detached behaviour. It can be concluded that physical punishment (given equally by the mothers and the fathers) and punishing with no justification (from the fathers only) may be the cause of this behaviour (see also Table 4.3).

Lastly, the behaviour portrayed the least among boys and girls as seen in Figure 4.10 and Table 4.3 was aggression, with boys showing more aggression than girls. This may be due to the parenting style being more authoritarian (punishing with no justification) from both the mothers and the fathers. Aggression may be a way of attracting attention or a way of venting frustration that has built up. Aggression is more readily expressed towards other children than adults and parents may become aware of this when observing their child in a group (Gerdes, 1998:130). The aggressive behaviour among girls was on par with disrespect, therefore punishing with no justification (given equally by the mothers and fathers) and reasoning (from the mothers only) were mainly used (see also Table 4.3). Brink (2006:39) observed that some five-year olds tend to approach adult teachers with a superior attitude and act in a self-centred way.

The findings concluded that the common parenting style used in this study was the Authoritative Parenting Style (connection dimension) with the characteristics warmth and support, of which acceptable social behaviour is portrayed as the common behaviour among both boys and girls within the five-year old group. Gonzalez-Mena (2006:208) states that authoritative parents have firm standards but employ a flexible approach. They are concerned about their children's needs and also about their own needs. Due to the flexible approach, resolutions leave both parties satisfied.

From the above findings the following limitations and recommendations can be derived.

5.4 LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The researcher found certain limitations in the study and suggests recommendations as aspects of areas for further study:

- Since the sample in the study was small, only three main global typologies of parenting styles, namely the authoritative, authoritarian and permissive parenting styles were focused on. This led to the exclusion of other typologies conceptualized by Baumrind, including rejecting-neglecting, non-conforming, authoritative-nonconforming and authoritarian-rejecting-neglecting (Baumrind, 1989; Robinson *et al.* 1995). A possible recommendation could be to include more parenting styles in future studies and to apply them to a bigger sample group, including more than just the Gauteng area.
- In Chapter 1 possible problems were highlighted such as absenteeism of children and uncooperative parents. These problems did occur in the study and had an effect on the results obtained. A possible recommendation could be to ensure that the observation of children takes place over a longer period (to ensure all children are observed) and that the questionnaires not returned, are followed up telephonically.
- Parenting styles as seen from the literature study in chapter 3 are influenced by other aspects such as stress or mood of the parent. Therefore, type of parenting style used varies daily. A possible recommendation for further study would be to make suggestions or

provide guidelines for parents on how to deal with their stress and at the same time how to cope with their five-year old's behaviour in using a parenting style or strategy that would benefit both moods.

- Another possible recommendation would be that, while doing the handing out of the questionnaires, the researcher must make him/herself available to the parents and the teacher to answer any queries or clarify any terms that the parents and teacher may find difficult.
- A further recommendation would be to identify other aspects that may influence the five-year olds' behaviour other than the parenting styles, such as the environment, personality, history or medical aspects. A more comprehensive study with regards to the five-year olds' behaviour could be investigated.

Despite the above limitations and recommendations, the researcher is able to draw up the final conclusion of the study.

5.5 CONCLUSION

This study contributes to the existing literature by revealing the three main existing parenting styles and the development of the pre-school child, specifically the five-year old.

The three parenting styles discussed and focused on in this study were the Authoritative, Authoritarian and Permissive Parenting Styles. Each parenting style has its own dimension/s describing it with certain characteristics. For example, the Authoritative Parenting Style (connection dimension), was the most used style and dimension in the study. This style has the characteristics of warmth and support and was rated by the parents as the most used on their five-year old children.

This study focused on the five-year old children who fall within the early childhood years and the pre-school level. To understand this age group better it was also important to bring in the eight developmental perspectives: psychoanalytical approach, psychosocial approach, cognitive theory, sociocultural theory, moral development theory, behaviourism attachment theory and gestalt theory. Knowing from the study that the five-year old learns moral reasoning and social skills through

play and may model the aspects on the important people in their lives such as the parents. It is important to note that parents still have an increasingly important role and responsibility to play in allowing them to explore their wider social environment and to encourage the development of acceptable social skills.

The researcher has concluded that the parents of the five-year old group in Evergreen Pre-primary in Gauteng have an effect on all the aspects of development of a five-year old. How the parents teach and influence or neglect to teach their five-year old by way of disciplining, consistency and role modelling are the values the five-year old will learn or will have to do without. If the five-year old displays less acceptable social behaviour due to the type of parenting style used, it might have a negative impact in all other areas of development, for instance their educational development. Parents should therefore establish and agree among themselves on the parenting style with the most values and be consistent in teaching or influencing their five-year old, such as taking responsibility for their actions or respecting others, in order to safeguard the five-year olds from less acceptable social behaviour which could lead to inconsistency and insecurity.

The Authoritative Parenting Style most used by the parents of the five-year old group of Evergreen Pre-primary, in Gauteng therefore may lead to more acceptable social behaviour among the five-year olds.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Anastasi, A. & Urbina, S. 1997. *Psychological Testing*. USA: Prentice-Hall, Inc.
- Austrian, S. G. 2002. *Developmental Theories Through The Life Cycle*. New York: Columbia University Press.
- Ayers, H. & Prytys, G. 2002. *An A To Z Practical Guide To Emotional And Behavioural Difficulties*. London: David Fulton Publishers
- Baron, R. A. & Byrne, D. 1997. *Social Psychology*. Eighth Edition. Boston: Allyn and Bacon
- Baumrind, D. 1989. Rearing competent children. In W. Damon (Ed.), *Child Development Today and Tomorrow* (pp.349-378). San Francisco: Josey Bass Inc., Publishers
- Boeree, C. G. 1997. Erik Erikson, 1902-1994. Available:
<http://www.ship.edu/~cgBoeree./erikson.html>
Accessed 2006/07/26
- Bornstein, M. H. 1991. *Cultural Approaches To Parenting*. Hillside, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Publishers
- Bowlby, J. 1984. *Attachment*. Attachment and Loss: Vol. 1. Great Britain: Pelican Books
- Brink, M. E. 2006. *Gestalt Guidelines Assisting Parents to Enhance Psychosocial Development in Children*. Unpublished MDIAC (Play Therapy) dissertation. University of South Africa.
- Burger, J. M. 1990. *Personality*. Belmont, California: Wadsworth Publishing Company
- Burke, R. & Herron, R. 1996. *Common Sense Parenting*. Nebraska: Boys Town Press

Burns, N., & Grove, S.K. 2001. *The Practice of Nursing Research: Conduct, Critique & Utilization*. 4th edition. United States of America: WB Saunders Company

Carr, A. 1999. *Child and Adolescent Clinical Psychology, A Contextual Approach*. London: Brunner-Routledge

Child's Play and Lie. Int. Dictionary of Psychoanalysis. 2005. [O]. Available:

<http://www.enotes.com/psychoanalysis-encyclopedia/lie>

Accessed on 2007/10/24

Clough, P.; Garner, P.; Pardeck, J. T. & Yuen, F. 2005. *Handbook Of Emotional And Behavioural Difficulties*. London: SAGE

Cronbach's Alpha. 1984-2008. [O]. Available:

<http://www.statsoft.com/textbook/stathome.html?stcanan.html&1>

Accessed on 2008/02/08

Delpont, C. S. L. 2005. Quantitative data-collection methods. In De Vos, A. S.; Strydom, H.; Fouché, C. B. & Delpont, C. S. L. *Research At Grass Roots*. Third Edition. Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers

De Vos, A. S.; Strydom, H.; Fouché, C. B. & Delpont, C. S. L. 2005. *Research At Grass Roots*. Third Edition. Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers

De Vos, A. S. 2005. Intervention Research. In De Vos, A. S.; Strydom, H.; Fouché, C. B. & Delpont, C. S. L. *Research At Grass Roots*. Third Edition. Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers

De Vos, A. S. 2005. Scientific theory and professional research. In De Vos, A. S.; Strydom, H.; Fouché, C. B. & Delpont, C. S. L. *Research At Grass Roots*. Third Edition. Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers

Dobson, J. 2002. *Parents' Answer Book*. Wheaton, Illinois: Tyndale House Publishers, Inc.

Erikson. [Sa]. *Erik Erikson's 8 Stages of Psychosocial Development*. [O]. Available:

<http://web.cortland.edu/andersmd/ERIK/sum.html>

Accessed on 2007/07/27

Erikson, E. H. 1968. *Identity. Youth and Crisis*. London: Norton & Company Inc.

Erikson, M. T. 1998. *Behaviour Disorders Of Children And Adolescents*. Assessment, etiology, and intervention. Third Edition. New Jersey: Prentice Hall

Factor Loadings. 1984-2008. [O]. Available:

<http://www.statsoft.com/textbook/stathome.html?stcanan.html&1>

Accessed on 2008/02/08

Farrell, P. 1995. *Children With Emotional And Behavioural Difficulties*. Strategies For Assessment And Intervention. London: The Falmer Press

Fouché: Fouché, C.B. 2002. Selction of a Researchable Topic, in *Research at Grass Roots: For the Social Sciences and Human Service Professionals*, edited by A.S. De Vos. 2nd edition. Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.

Fouché, C. B. 2005. Writing the research proposal. In De Vos, A. S.; Strydom, H.; Fouché, C. B. & Delport, C. S. L. *Research At Grass Roots*. Third Edition. Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers

Fouché, C. B. & Delport, C. S. L. 2005. Introduction to the research process. In De Vos, A. S.; Strydom, H.; Fouché, C. B. & Delport, C. S. L. 2005. *Research At Grass Roots*. For The Social Sciences And Human Sciences Professions. Third Edition. Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers

Fouché, C. B. & De Vos, A. S. 2005. Quantitative research designs. In De Vos, A. S.; Strydom, H.; Fouché, C. B. & Delport, C. S. L. *Research At Grass Roots*. Third Edition. Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers

Fouché, C.B. & De Vos, A. S. 2005. Problem Formulation. In De Vos, A. S.; Strydom, H.; Fouché, C. B. & Delport, C. S. L. 2005. *Research At Grass Roots*. For The Social Sciences And Human Sciences Professions. Third Edition. Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers

Gerdes, L. 1998. *Bringing Up Parents And Children*. Pretoria: University of South Africa

Gonzalez-Mena, J. 2006. *The Young Child In The Family And The Community*. Fourth Edition. New Jersey: Pearson, Merrill Prentice Hall

Gottman, J. 1997. *The Heart Of Parenting*. How To Raise An Emotionally Intelligent Child. London: Bloomsbury

Grolnick, W. S. 2003. *The Psychology of Parental Control*. How well-meant parenting backfires. London: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Publishers.

Gupta, R. M. & Theus, F. C. 2006. *Pointers For Parenting For Mental Health Service Professionals*. England: John Wiley & Sons, Ltd

Hall, D. & Hall, I. 1996. *Practical Social Research*. Project Work in the Community. London: Macmillan Press Ltd

Hamilton, L. M. 2000. *Facing Autism, Giving Parents Reason for Hope and Guidance for Help*. Colorado Springs: Waterbrook Press

Harris, J. H. & Liebert, R. M. 1992. *Infant and Child*. Development from birth through middle childhood. New Jersey: Prentice Hall Inc.

Imbesi, L. 1999. The Making of a Narcissist. *Clinical Social Work Journal*, 27, Spring:41-54

Kerlinger in De Vos: De Vos, A.S. 2002. Scientific Theory and Professional Research, in *Research at Grass Roots: For the Social Sciences and Human Service Professionals*, edited by A.S. De Vos. 2nd edition. Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers

Knox. 1993. In Vygotsky, L. S. *Studies on the History of Behaviour: Ape, primitive and child*. Hillsdale: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates

Lerner, R.M. Castellino, D.R., Terry, P.A. Villarruel, F.A., & McKinney, M.H. 1995. Developmental contextual perspective on parenting. In M.H. Bornstein (Ed),

Handbook of Parenting. Volume 2. Biology and Ecology of Parenting (pp. 285-309).
New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum associates, Inc. Publishers

Lidell, C., Kvalsvig, J., Shabalala, A., Strydom, N. & Qotyana, P. 1993. An
Observational Study of 5-Year-old South African Children in the Year Before School.
International Journal of Behavioural Development, 16 (4): 537-561.

Lopez, W. 2004. AllPsych Journal. *Successful Parenting Skills that Shape Children's
Behaviors* (1) [O]. Available:

<http://allpsych.com/journal/parentingskills.html>

Accessed on 2006/07/26

Louw, D. A., Louw, A. E. & Van Ede, D. M. 1998. *Human Development*. Pretoria:
KAGISO Tertiary

Loxton, H. 2005. Human Development Introduction and Concepts. In Wait, Meyer &
Loxton. 2005. *Human Development-a psychosocial approach*. 2005. Third
Publication. Parow East: Ebony Books

Loxton, H. 2005. Early School-Age. In Wait, Meyer & Loxton. 2005. *Human
Development-a psychosocial approach*. 2005. Third Publication. Parow East: Ebony
Books

Mayseless, O. 2006. *Parenting Representations*. Theory, research and clinical
implications. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press

Mental Health and Growing Up, Third Edition. Good Parenting.

2006. [O]. Available:

<http://www.rcpsych.ac.uk/mentalhealthinformation/mentalhealthand...html>

Accessed on 2006/07/26

Neuman, W. L. 1997. *Social Research Methods*. Qualitative and Quantitative
Approaches. Third edition. Boston: Allyn and Bacon

Nonparametric statistics. 1984-2008. [O]. Available:

<http://www.statsoft.com/textbook/stathome.html>

Accessed on 2008/01/29

Pauw, I. 2007. *Health 24*. [O]. Available:

<http://www.health24.com/child/Abuse/833-859.36766.asp>

Accessed on 2007/07/18

Pretorius, N. 2000. *Aspects of Parenting Styles and the Expressed Fears of a Selected Group of Pre-school Children*. Unpublished M.A. (Counselling Psychology) thesis. University of Stellenbosch.

Robinson, C. C., Mandleco, B. L., Olsen, S. F., & Hart, C. H. 1995. *Authoritative, Authoritarian and Permissive Parenting Practices: Development of a new measure*. Psychological Reports, Vol.77:819-830.

Robinson, C.C., Mandleco, B., Olsen, S.F., & Hart, C.H. 2001. The Parenting Styles and Dimensions Questionnaire (PSDQ). In Perlmutter, B.F., Touliatos, J., & Holden, G.W., *Handbook of Family Measurement Techniques: Vol 3*. Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Royal College of Psychiatrists. 2004. [O]. Available:

<http://www.rcpsych.ac.uk/mentalhealthinformation/mentalhealthandgrowingup/2goodparenting.aspx>

Accessed on 2006/07/26

Santrock, J. W. 2004. *Life-span Development*. 9th Edition. New York: McGraw-Hill

Schoeman, J. P. 2004. *Play Therapy*. An important skill in child therapy. A learning experience that will add value. [Sa]

Small, M.Y. 1990. *Cognitive Development*. USA: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, Publishers

SPSS Inc. 2006. *SPSS Base 15 for Windows User's Guide*. SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL.

Stewart-Brown, S. & Edmunds, L. 2003. Assessing Emotional and Social Competence in Preschool and Primary School Settings: A review of instruments. *Perspectives in Education*, Volume 21 (4): 17-40

Strydom, H. 2005. Ethical aspects of research in the social sciences and human services professions. In De Vos, A. S.; Strydom, H.; Fouché, C. B. & Delport, C. S. L. *Research At Grass Roots*. Third Edition. Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers

Strydom, H. 2005. Writing the research report. In De Vos, A. S.; Strydom, H.; Fouché, C. B. & Delport, C. S. L. *Research At Grass Roots*. Third Edition. Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers

The American Heritage Dictionary of the English Language. 2006. Fourth Edition. Houghton Mifflin Company. [O]. Available:

<http://dictionary.reference.com/browse/boundaries>

Accessed on 2007/12/02

The Oxford Dictionary of Philosophy. 2005. *Philosophy Dictionary definition of "responsibility" and "respect"*. Oxford University Press: Published by Oxford University Press.

The Encyclopaedia of Psychology. 2007. *"Delay of Gratification"*. Second Edition. Bonnie R. Strickland: Gale Group, Inc.

Vygotsky, L. S. & Luria, A. R. 1993. *Studies on the History of Behaviour: Ape, Primitive and Child*. Edited and Translated by Golod, V. I. & Knox, J. E. Hillside, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Association Publication

Zirpoli, T. J. 1995. *Understanding and Affecting the Behaviour of Young Children*. New Jersey: Prentice-Hall Inc.

.

ADDENDUM A:
**LETTER OF PERMISSION TO THE PARENT FOR THE PARTICIPATION IN THE
RESEARCH PROCESS**

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

This questionnaire is part of the research done by Natacha Latouf, student number 32483856, for the degree MDIAC in Play Therapy at the Huguenot College, UNISA.

Several authors (compare Louw, 1998:351 and Lopez, 2004) agree upon a parenting style being the way in which parents bring up their children.

The aim of this research questionnaire is to determine what parenting styles are used on their five-year old. It is therefore of importance that both parents of each five-year old group complete this questionnaire in order to be able to come to conclusions in this regard and make suggestions for practice. Should you want feedback you are welcome to contact the researcher.

The researcher aims to choose the Grade 00 pupils (five-year old group) at Evergreen pre-primary by means of a non-probability/ purposive sampling.

The anonymity of the respondents will be ensured throughout the study. The information gathered through the study will be treated as confidential and will only be published for academic purposes.

If there are any enquiries, the student can be contacted at:

POSTAL ADDRESS: 602 Glenwood Park Flats
74 Ilkey Road
Lynnwood Glen
Pretoria
0081

CONTACT NUMBER: 083 447 4507 (c)

Your Participation in this study will be highly appreciated.

Yours truly,



Natacha Latouf
Researcher

**ADDENDUM B:
LETTER OF CONSENT FROM THE PARENT**

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

I, _____ (full name and surname) hereby give permission to participate in the research process by completing a questionnaire.

I take note of the following aspects:

1. All the information gathered through this study will be treated as highly confidential and with the necessary respect and responsibility;
2. No personal information will be mentioned throughout the study;
3. The information gathered through this study will be stored in a safe place for a minimum of five years and
4. The information contributes to the research process and is part of the research study done by the student.

Signature

Date

Witness

NB: Parents please take note.

There is a form for the father to fill out and a separate form for the mother to fill out. Both have an instruction page and two pages as a questionnaire. Therefore three pages each.

Thank you for your time.

ADDENDUM C:

LETTER OF CONSENT FROM THE PRE-SCHOOL



'Evergreen allows me to be me'

127 / 129 Bronkhorst Street
New Muckleneuk
Pretoria
0181
012-4608356
0823714797

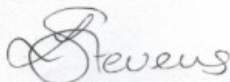
2 March 2007

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

RE: NATACHA CARINA DUARTE SEQUERA LATOUF

On behalf of Evergreen Pre-primary, we hereby give permission for Natacha Latouf to do her dissertation at our school. Title "A Survey on Parenting Styles for Parents of Five-Year-Olds". We will give her our support wherever possible.

Yours sincerely



Louise Stevens
(Principal)

ADDENDUM D:

PARENTING STYLES & DIMENSIONS QUESTIONNAIRE

(PSDQ)

Directions:

This questionnaire is designed to measure *how often* you exhibit certain behaviours towards your child _____ (name).

Example:

Please read each item on the questionnaire and think about *how often* you exhibit this behaviour and place your answer on the line to the left of the item.

 3 1. I allow my child to choose what to wear to school.

I EXHIBIT THIS BEHAVIOR:

- 1 = Never
- 2 = Once in Awhile
- 3 = About Half of the Time
- 4 = Very Often
- 5 = Always

FATHER'S FORM: INSTRUCTION PAGE

PARENTING STYLES & DIMENSIONS QUESTIONNAIRE (PSDQ)

Directions:

This questionnaire is designed to measure (1) *how often your spouse/partner* exhibits certain behaviors towards your child _____ (name) and (2) *how often you* exhibit certain behaviors towards this child.

Example:

(1) Please read each item on the questionnaire and think about *how often your spouse/partner [She]* exhibits this behavior and place your answer on the **first** line to the left of the item.

[She] [I]

 3 1. **[She allows]**[I allow] our child to choose what to wear to school.

SPOUSE EXHIBITS THIS BEHAVIOR:

- 1 = Never
- 2 = Once in Awhile
- 3 = About Half of the Time
- 4 = Very Often
- 5 = Always

(2) Then rate *how you [I]* exhibit this behaviour and place your answer on the **second** line to the left of the item.

[She] [I]

 3 2 1. [She allows][**I allow**] our child to choose what to wear to school.

I EXHIBIT THIS BEHAVIOR:

- 1 = Never
- 2 = Once in Awhile
- 3 = About Half of the Time
- 4 = Very Often
- 5 = Always

FATHER'S FORM: QUESTIONNAIRE

REMEMBER: Make two ratings for each item; (1) rate how often your spouse exhibits this behavior with your child and (2) how often you exhibit this behavior with your child.

SPOUSE EXHIBITS BEHAVIOR:

- 1 = Never
- 2 = Once In Awhile
- 3 = About Half of the Time
- 4 = Very Often
- 5 = Always

I EXHIBIT THIS BEHAVIOR:

- 1 = Never
- 2 = Once In Awhile
- 3 = About Half of the Time
- 4 = Very Often
- 5 = Always

[She] [I]

- | | | | |
|-------|-------|-----|--|
| _____ | _____ | 1. | [She is] [I am] responsive to our child's feelings and needs. |
| _____ | _____ | 2. | [She uses] [I use] physical punishment as a way of disciplining our child. |
| _____ | _____ | 3. | [She takes] [I take] our child's desires into account before asking the child to do something. |
| _____ | _____ | 4. | When our child asks why he/she has to conform, [she states] [I state]: because I said so, or I am your parent and I want you to. |
| _____ | _____ | 5. | [She explains] [I explain] to our child how we feel about the child's good and bad behavior. |
| _____ | _____ | 6. | [She spans] [I spank] when our child is disobedient. |
| _____ | _____ | 7. | [She encourages] [I encourage] our child to talk about his/her troubles. |
| _____ | _____ | 8. | [She finds] [I find] it difficult to discipline our child. |
| _____ | _____ | 9. | [She encourages] [I encourage] our child to freely express himself/herself even when disagreeing with parents. |
| _____ | _____ | 10. | [She punishes] [I punish] by taking privileges away from our child with little if any explanations. |
| _____ | _____ | 11. | [She emphasizes] [I emphasize] the reasons for rules. |
| _____ | _____ | 12. | [She gives] [I give] comfort and understanding when our child is upset. |
| _____ | _____ | 13. | [She yells or shouts] [I yell or shout] when our child misbehaves. |
| _____ | _____ | 14. | [She gives praise] [I give praise] when our child is good. |
| _____ | _____ | 15. | [She gives] [I give] into our child when the child causes a commotion about something. |
| _____ | _____ | 16. | [She explodes] [I explode] in anger towards our child. |

[She] [I]

- | | | |
|-------|-------|---|
| _____ | _____ | 17. [She threatens] [I threaten] our child with punishment more often than actually giving it. |
| _____ | _____ | 18. [She takes] [I take] into account our child's preferences in making plans for the family. |
| _____ | _____ | 19. [She grabs] [I grab] our child when being disobedient. |
| _____ | _____ | 20. [She states] [I state] punishments to our child and does not actually do them. |
| _____ | _____ | 21. [She shows] [I show] respect for our child's opinions by encouraging our child to express them. |
| _____ | _____ | 22. [She allows] [I allow] our child to give input into family rules. |
| _____ | _____ | 23. [She scolds and criticizes] [I scold and criticize] to make our child improve. |
| _____ | _____ | 24. [She spoils] [I spoil] our child. |
| _____ | _____ | 25. [She gives] [I give] our child reasons why rules should be obeyed. |
| _____ | _____ | 26. [She uses] [I use] threats as punishment with little or no justification. |
| _____ | _____ | 27. [She has] [I have] warm and intimate times together with our child. |
| _____ | _____ | 28. [She punishes] [I punish] by putting our child off somewhere alone with little if any explanations. |
| _____ | _____ | 29. [She helps] [I help] our child to understand the impact of behavior by encouraging our child to talk about the consequences of his/her own actions. |
| _____ | _____ | 30. [She scolds or criticizes] [I scold or criticize] when our child's behavior doesn't meet our expectations. |
| _____ | _____ | 31. [She explains] [I explain] the consequences of the child's behavior. |
| _____ | _____ | 32. [She slaps] [I slap] our child when the child misbehaves. |

MOTHER'S FORM: INSTRUCTION PAGE

PARENTING STYLES & DIMENSIONS QUESTIONNAIRE (PSDQ)

Directions:

This questionnaire is designed to measure (1) *how often your spouse/partner* exhibits certain behaviors towards your child _____ (name) and (2) *how often you* exhibit certain behaviors towards this child.

Example:

(1) Please read each item on the questionnaire and think about *how often your spouse/partner [He]* exhibits this behavior and place your answer on the **first** line to the left of the item.

[He] [I]

 3 1. **[He allows]**[I allow] our child to choose what to wear to school.

SPOUSE EXHIBITS THIS BEHAVIOR:

- 1 = Never
- 2 = Once in Awhile
- 3 = About Half of the Time
- 4 = Very Often
- 5 = Always

(2) Then rate *how you [I]* exhibit this behavior and place your answer on the **second** line to the left of the item.

[He] [I]

 3 2 1. [He allows]**[I allow]** our child to choose what to wear to school.

I EXHIBIT THIS BEHAVIOR:

- 1 = Never
- 2 = Once in Awhile
- 3 = About Half of the Time
- 4 = Very Often
- 5 = Always

MOTHER'S FORM: QUESTIONNAIRE

REMEMBER: Make two ratings for each item; (1) rate how often your spouse exhibits this behaviour with your child and (2) how often you exhibit this behaviour with your child.

SPOUSE EXHIBITS BEHAVIOUR:

- 1 = Never
- 2 = Once In Awhile
- 3 = About Half of the Time
- 4 = Very Often
- 5 = Always

I EXHIBIT THIS BEHAVIOUR:

- 1 = Never
- 2 = Once In Awhile
- 3 = About Half of the Time
- 4 = Very Often
- 5 = Always

[He] [I]

- | | | |
|-------|-------|--|
| _____ | _____ | 1. [He is] [I am] responsive to our child's feelings and needs. |
| _____ | _____ | 2. [He uses] [I use] physical punishment as a way of disciplining our child. |
| _____ | _____ | 3. [He takes] [I take] our child's desires into account before asking the child to do something. |
| _____ | _____ | 4. When our child asks why he/she has to conform, [he states] [I state]: because I said so, or I am your parent and I want you to. |
| _____ | _____ | 5. [He explains] [I explain] to our child how we feel about the child's good and bad behaviour. |
| _____ | _____ | 6. [He spans] [I spank] when our child is disobedient. |
| _____ | _____ | 7. [He encourages] [I encourage] our child to talk about his/her troubles. |
| _____ | _____ | 8. [He finds] [I find] it difficult to discipline our child. |
| _____ | _____ | 9. [He encourages] [I encourage] our child to freely express himself/herself even when disagreeing with parents. |
| _____ | _____ | 10. [He punishes] [I punish] by taking privileges away from our child with little if any explanations. |
| _____ | _____ | 11. [He emphasizes] [I emphasize] the reasons for rules. |
| _____ | _____ | 12. [He gives] [I give] comfort and understanding when our child is upset. |
| _____ | _____ | 13. [He yells or shouts] [I yell or shout] when our child misbehaves. |
| _____ | _____ | 14. [He gives praise] [I give praise] when our child is good. |
| _____ | _____ | 15. [He gives] [I give] into our child when the child causes a commotion about something. |
| _____ | _____ | 16. [He explodes] [I explode] in anger towards our child. |

[He] [I]

- | | | |
|-------|-------|---|
| _____ | _____ | 17. [He threatens] [I threaten] our child with punishment more often than actually giving it. |
| _____ | _____ | 18. [He takes] [I take] into account our child's preferences in making plans for the family. |
| _____ | _____ | 19. [He grabs] [I grab] our child when being disobedient. |
| _____ | _____ | 20. [He states] [I state] punishments to our child and does not actually do them. |
| _____ | _____ | 21. [He shows] [I show] respect for our child's opinions by encouraging our child to express them. |
| _____ | _____ | 22. [He allows] [I allow] our child to give input into family rules. |
| _____ | _____ | 23. [He scolds and criticizes] [I scold and criticize] to make our child improve. |
| _____ | _____ | 24. [He spoils] [I spoil] our child. |
| _____ | _____ | 25. [He gives] [I give] our child reasons why rules should be obeyed. |
| _____ | _____ | 26. [He uses] [I use] threats as punishment with little or no justification. |
| _____ | _____ | 27. [He has] [I have] warm and intimate times together with our child. |
| _____ | _____ | 28. [He punishes] [I punish] by putting our child off somewhere alone with little if any explanations. |
| _____ | _____ | 29. [He helps] [I help] our child to understand the impact of behaviour by encouraging our child to talk about the consequences of his/her own actions. |
| _____ | _____ | 30. [He scolds or criticizes] [I scold or criticize] when our child's behaviour doesn't meet our expectations. |
| _____ | _____ | 31. [He explains] [I explain] the consequences of the child's behaviour. |
| _____ | _____ | 32. [He slaps] [I slap] our child when the child misbehaves. |

**ADDENDUM E:
BEHAVIOURAL QUESTIONNAIRE (BQ)**

TEACHER'S FORM

This questionnaire is designed to measure how often a child in the five-year-old group exhibits certain aspects of social behaviour at school. The questionnaire will be completed by the relevant class educator after observing the child over a period of a week.

Child's name:

Ethnic Group or Race:

Child's Gender: Boy / Girl

Please read each item on the questionnaire and think about how often the child exhibits this behaviour. Indicate your answer on the line to the left of the item.

CHILD EXHIBITS BEHAVIOUR

1= *Never*

2= *Occasionally*

3= *Always*

- _____ 1. Shows off / clowning (making funny sounds or actions, falls purposefully, throws sand over own head)
- _____ 2. Impulsive behaviour (throwing a toy up in the air, walking past a table and pushing over the box of pencils)
- _____ 3. Lethargic during activities (lying on the mat during listening of a story, resting head on table while drawing)
- _____ 4. Hyperactive (can't sit still during an activity, rocking on the chair, fidgeting).
- _____ 5. Manipulative to teacher (got praise for task completed only to find out that he got someone else to do it for him)
- _____ 6. Disregard for authority (does not greet, walks off or ignores when being spoken to).
- _____ 7. Assertiveness (back chatting teacher, immediately saying no when asked to do something).
- _____ 8. Disobedience / breaks school rules.
- _____ 9. Cruelty, bullying, teasing or meanness to others.
- _____ 10. Gets teased by others.
- _____ 11. Deliberately harms others/ physically attacks others.
- _____ 12. Destroys/ spoils things/ games belonging to others.
- _____ 13. Shouts at peers and calls them names.
- _____ 14. Shows remorse when misbehaving.
- _____ 15. Lying / cheating.

- _____ 16. Completes tasks in appropriate time set out (20 minutes or 30 minutes).
- _____ 17. Disruptive in class(screams for no reason, makes a noise for others, distracts others by constantly talking instead of focusing on activity).
- _____ 18. Distracted(can't focus attention on activity, gets sidetracked by others playing or talking).
- _____ 19. Is generally happy.
- _____ 20. Concentration: pays attention for longer than 20 minutes.
- _____ 21. Daydreams.
- _____ 22. Introverted and lonely (prefers to be by themselves and watches others playing from a distance instead of taking part).
- _____ 23. Talkative.
- _____ 24. Plays with same gender peers.
- _____ 25. Plays with opposite gender peers.
- _____ 26. Quiet (talks softly and communicates very little to others)
- _____ 27. Cries easily, when upset or something goes wrong.
- _____ 28. Shows aggression with fist or on face when upset or when something goes wrong.
- _____ 29. Leader (can create games and has peers keen to play).
- _____ 30. Follower (no initiative in creating own games, prefers to follow someone else's game).

ADDENDUM F:
FATHER RATING SPOUSE AND HIMSELF, MOTHER RATING SPOUSE AND
HERSELF AND TEACHER RATING FIVE-YEAR OLD BEHAVIOUR

Descriptive Statistics					
	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
F_connect_rate_spouse	15	3.40	5.00	4.4133	.46270
F_regulate_rate_spouse	15	3.20	5.00	4.0833	.53973
F_autonomy_rate_spouse	15	2.80	4.40	3.5867	.49261
F_Auth_Factor1_rate_spouse	15	3.53	4.80	4.0283	.34595
F_physical_rate_spouse	15	1.00	2.50	1.7333	.46739
F_verbal_rate_spouse	15	1.50	3.25	2.2333	.48612
F_punitive_rate_spouse	15	1.25	3.50	1.8167	.60109
F_Auth_Factor2_rate_spouse	15	1.33	2.58	1.9278	.36306
F_permissive_rate_spouse	15	1.20	3.40	2.3867	.61629
F_connect_rate_self	15	2.80	5.00	4.2000	.60474
F_regulate_rate_self	15	2.60	5.00	3.9600	.66847
F_autonomy_rate_self	15	2.20	4.40	3.5867	.73860
F_Auth_Factor1_rate_self	15	3.00	4.80	3.9162	.51575
F_physical_rate_self	15	1.00	3.75	1.8000	.67612
F_verbal_rate_self	15	1.25	3.50	2.1333	.71880
F_punitive_rate_self	15	1.25	2.50	1.6500	.37559
F_Auth_Factor2_rate_self	15	1.33	2.33	1.8611	.39044
F_permissive_rate_self	15	1.00	3.50	2.2067	.72552
M_connect_rate_spouse	15	3.00	5.00	4.2267	.59936
M_regulate_rate_spouse	15	2.40	5.00	3.9133	.67915
M_autonomy_rate_spouse	15	2.00	4.60	3.3733	.64528
M_Auth_Factor1_rate_spouse	15	3.00	4.80	3.8294	.52151
M_physical_rate_spouse	15	1.00	3.00	1.6333	.65374
M_verbal_rate_spouse	15	1.25	3.00	1.9667	.54171
M_punitive_rate_spouse	15	1.00	3.00	1.7833	.58146
Descriptive Statistics					
	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
M_Auth_Factor2_rate_spouse	15	1.17	2.92	1.7944	.45954
M_Permissive_rate_spouse	15	1.40	3.60	2.2133	.64350
M_connect_rate_self	15	3.50	5.00	4.5400	.38508
M_regulate_rate_self	15	3.20	5.00	4.2400	.56163
M_autonomy_rate_self	15	2.20	4.20	3.3733	.55481
M_Auth_Factor1_rate_self	15	3.40	4.60	4.0456	.37841

M_physical_rate_self	15	1.00	2.75	1.8333	.53173
M_verbal_rate_self	15	1.50	3.50	2.4333	.70373
M_punitive_rate_self	15	1.25	3.00	1.9667	.47119
M_Auth_Factor2_rate_self	15	1.50	2.67	2.0778	.31255
M_permissive_rate_self	15	1.40	3.00	2.0933	.43991
T_Aggression	24	1.00	2.67	1.6944	.49065
T_Disrespect	24	1.00	2.57	1.5774	.40071
T_Hyperactive	24	1.33	2.83	1.8819	.44090
T_Detached	24	1.00	2.57	1.6429	.38147
T_Acceptable_social	24	1.86	2.86	2.5714	.25276
Valid N (listwise)	14				

**ADDENDUM G:
THE DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF BOYS AND GIRLS**

Descriptive Statistics						
	Gender					
	1			2		
	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
F_connect_rate_spouse	4	4.3000	.38297	11	4.4545	.49873
F_regulate_rate_spouse	4	4.1500	.41231	11	4.0591	.59532
F_autonomy_rate_spouse	4	3.8500	.34157	11	3.4909	.51663
F_Auth_Factor1_rate_spouse	4	4.1000	.24646	11	4.0022	.38279
F_physical_rate_spouse	4	1.8125	.23936	11	1.7045	.53407
F_verbal_rate_spouse	4	2.4375	.74652	11	2.1591	.37538
F_punitive_rate_spouse	4	1.7500	.45644	11	1.8409	.66401
F_Auth_Factor2_rate_spouse	4	2.0000	.35355	11	1.9015	.37973
F_permissive_rate_spouse	4	2.2500	.70000	11	2.4364	.61200
F_connect_rate_self	4	4.2500	.34157	11	4.1818	.68966
F_regulate_rate_self	4	3.9500	.50000	11	3.9636	.74199
	Gender					
	1			2		
	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
F_autonomy_rate_self	4	3.8000	.56569	11	3.5091	.80182
F_Auth_Factor1_rate_self	4	4.0000	.31269	11	3.8857	.58243
F_physical_rate_self	4	1.9375	.12500	11	1.7500	.79057
F_verbal_rate_self	4	2.5000	.84163	11	2.0000	.66144
F_punitive_rate_self	4	1.7500	.45644	11	1.6136	.35992
F_Auth_Factor2_rate_self	4	2.0625	.38112	11	1.7879	.38435
F_permissive_rate_self	4	2.5250	.87702	11	2.0909	.67150
M_connect_rate_spouse	4	4.1000	.38297	11	4.2727	.67096
M_regulate_rate_spouse	4	3.5500	.19149	11	4.0455	.75015
M_autonomy_rate_spouse	4	3.2000	.28284	11	3.4364	.73658
M_Auth_Factor1_rate_spouse	4	3.6167	.19907	11	3.9068	.58667
M_physical_rate_spouse	4	2.2500	.35355	11	1.4091	.59448
M_verbal_rate_spouse	4	2.5000	.57735	11	1.7727	.39457
M_punitive_rate_spouse	4	2.0625	.65749	11	1.6818	.54876
M_Auth_Factor2_rate_spouse	4	2.2708	.50173	11	1.6212	.31038
M_Permissive_rate_spouse	4	2.4000	.80000	11	2.1455	.60723
M_connect_rate_self	4	4.5000	.34641	11	4.5545	.41319
M_regulate_rate_self	4	4.2000	.43205	11	4.2545	.62026
M_autonomy_rate_self	4	3.5500	.64031	11	3.3091	.53936
M_Auth_Factor1_rate_self	4	4.0833	.46308	11	4.0318	.36791

M_physical_rate_self	4	2.1250	.43301	11	1.7273	.54146
M_verbal_rate_self	4	2.6250	.72169	11	2.3636	.71906
M_punitive_rate_self	4	1.7500	.35355	11	2.0455	.49772
M_Auth_Factor2_rate_self	4	2.1667	.28054	11	2.0455	.32991
M_permissive_rate_self	4	1.9500	.25166	11	2.1455	.49064
T_Aggression	9	1.9630	.48432	15	1.5333	.43278
T_Disrespect	9	1.6667	.37115	15	1.5238	.42056
T_Hyperactive	9	2.2963	.37060	15	1.6333	.25355
T_Detached	9	1.6508	.19048	15	1.6381	.46719
T_Acceptable_social	9	2.5238	.31944	15	2.6000	.21051
Valid N (listwise)	4			10		