

**PARENTING STYLES AND THE ADJUSTMENT OF BLACK SOUTH AFRICAN
GRADE I CHILDREN IN SINGLE PARENT HOUSEHOLDS**

by

DIKELEDI MARGARETH MOREMI

**submitted in part fulfilment of the requirements
for the degree of**

MASTER OF ARTS

in the subject

PSYCHOLOGY

at the

UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH AFRICA

**SUPERVISOR: DR D P THOM
JOINT SUPERVISOR: PROF F J VAN STADEN**

NOVEMBER 2002



ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to express my sincere gratitude to the following people who assisted me in this research.

Dr DP Thom - for her support and expert guidance as my promoter, as well as for encouraging me throughout my study period.

Prof FJ Van Staden - whose expert guidance and supervision as my second promoter contributed to the completion of this research.

Mr C H Coetzee for his assistance with data processing.

Prof J Nieuwoudt - for his support and encouragement.

The Department of Education - who gave me permission to conduct this research in their schools. To the school principals who willingly allowed me to conduct research in their school premises. To the school teachers and children for their cooperation in helping to collect the data and also agreeing to participate in the study. To the parents who took part and also allowed their children to take part in the study.

Mr W Makgoro - for his outstanding support and encouragement.

Members of UNISA Library - for their help in ensuring that I get the necessary books and journals for literature.

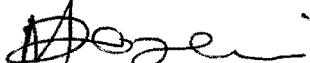
My parents - for their outstanding support.

My daughter Tshegofatso - for her support and understanding.

My sisters, brother and nephew: Dineo, Mpheiwa , Kgaogelo and Masia - for their support and encouragement.

3269-378-8

I declare that parenting styles and the adjustment of black South African grade I children in single parent households is my own work and that all the sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.



SIGNATURE
(Miss D M Moremi)

17-02-03

DATE

Summary

The present study examined the relationship between parenting styles and the socio-emotional adjustment of children at school. A sample size of 90 research participants was selected and included black South African grade 1 school children aged between 6 and 7 years from single parent households in Pretoria Central. Factor analyses and Cronbach's alphas were determined in order to establish the validity and reliability ($\alpha = 0.89$ and 0.72 respectively) of the measurement instruments. In general, results were inconsistent with previous findings: The three parenting styles had no direct relationship with children's socio-emotional adjustment at school. Except for two links, non-significant relations between parenting styles and six subscales of socio-emotional adjustment were detected. However, maternal age, preschool attendance and gender of the child interacted in different combinations with four of the six subscales of socio-emotional adjustment. Future studies investigating parenting styles should take account of other areas of adjustment.

TABLE OF CONTENT

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION AND ORIENTATION

1.1	Background of the study	1
1.2	Aims of the study	3
1.3	Rationale for the study	4
1.4	Significance of the study	5
1.5	Definition of concepts	6
1.5.1	<i>Parenting styles</i>	6
1.5.2	<i>Adjustment</i>	7
1.5.3	<i>Single parenting</i>	8
1.6	Organisation of the study	8

CHAPTER 2

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1	Introduction	9
2.2	Theoretical background: Erikson's theory	9
2.3	Characteristics of middle childhood	11
2.3.1	<i>Cognitive development</i>	12
2.3.2	<i>Social development</i>	13
2.3.3	<i>Emotional development</i>	14
2.3.4	<i>Moral development</i>	15
2.3.5	<i>Adjustment of young children at school</i>	15
2.4	Grade I school children	17
2.5	Black urban grade I school children living in the inner	

city	17
2.6 The role of parents in children's adjustment	19
2.6.1 Parenting styles	19
2.6.2 Parenting styles and ethnicity	21
2.6.3 Empirically established relationship between parenting style and adjustment	23
2.6.4 Single parenting	27
2.7 Control Variables	28
2.7.1 The socioeconomic status	28
2.7.2 Household composition	29
2.7.3 Gender	30
2.7.4 Preschool attendance	31
2.7.5 Maternal age	31
2.8 Conclusion	32

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction and variables used	33
3.2 Research questions	35
3.3 Hypothesis	36
3.4 Research design	37
3.5 Sampling method	37
3.5.1 Sample selection	38
3.5.2 Characteristics of participants	39
3.6 Data collection procedure	44
3.7 Description of measurements	45
3.7.1 Parenting measurement	45
3.7.2 Biographical questionnaire	46

<i>3.7.3 Child adjustment measurement</i>	47
3.8 Data analysis	48
<i>3.8.1 Analysis of variance (ANOVA) and the post hoc Scheffé</i>	48
<i>3.8.2 Regression analysis</i>	50
<i>3.8.2.1 Multiple regression analysis</i>	50
3.9 Ethical considerations	51
3.10 Conclusion	51

CHAPTER 4

PRESENTATION OF RESULTS

4.1 Introduction	52
4.2 Operationalisation and testing of the variables	53
<i>4.2.1 The predictor variable</i>	53
4.2.1.1 Factor analysis	53
4.2.1.2 Reliability	65
<i>4.2.2 The criterion variable</i>	66
4.2.2.1 Reliability	72
4.3 Classification of parents into parenting style groups	73
4.4 Results of the analysis of variance	74
4.5 Results of the multiple regression analysis	75
4.6 Multiple regression analysis using the adjustment subscales	79
4.7 Conclusion	82

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

5.1	Introduction	90
5.2	Examination of Parenting styles	90
5.3	Parenting styles as determinants of child adjustment	91
5.4	The relationship between the secondary predictor variables, parenting styles and the socio-emotional adjustment of children	94
5.5	The relationship between the parenting styles and adjustment subscales	95
5.6	Conclusion	99
	<i>5.6.1 Several possible reasons accountable for the study outcomes and directions for future research</i>	100
	References	103

LIST OF TABLES

1	Sample characteristics	41
2	Pattern matrix of the principal component analysis performed using the original sample	58
3	Pattern matrix of the principal component analysis performed on child adjustment data	69
4	The results of an ANOVA analysis indicating the number of cases, mean scores, deviation, f-test and the level of significance of the parenting style groups	74
5	Correlations between the predictor variable, secondary predictor variables and the criterion variable	77
6	Partial correlations between the parenting styles and child adjustment while controlling for the effects of maternal age, maternal educational level, number of children in the household and preschool attendance	78
7	Multiple regression analysis of the contributions made by the predictor variables to the variability of the scores obtained by each of the adjustment measurement scale	79
8	Correlations between the predictor variables and the task oriented subscale of the adjustment	84
9	Correlations between the predictor variables and learning problems subscale of the child adjustment	85
10	Correlations between the predictor variables and acting out subscale of the child adjustment	86
11	Correlations between the predictor variables and	

	frustration tolerance of the child subscale	87
12	Correlations between the predictor variables and shyness/anxiety subscale of the child adjustment	88
13	Correlations between the predictor variables and assertive social skills subscale of the child adjustment	89

LIST OF FIGURES

1	A cyclic representation of the research process	34
2	Scree plot graph presenting factors from the parenting style measurement	54
3	Scree plot graph derived from child adjustment data	68
4	A diagrammatic representation of phases followed in the research process	116
5	Diagrammatic presentation of variables, measurement instrument and validation procedures	117

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A	117
APPENDIX B	119
APPENDIX C	131
APPENDIX D	138

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION AND ORIENTATION

1.1 Background of the study

The issue of learners' adjustment at school has long been a concern of educationalists and psychologists. From the psychological point of view, adjustment is important because it plays a role in the optimal development of children. This means that successful attainment of adjustment is associated with mature behaviours in human beings rather than maladaptive behaviours and psychological disorders. For instance, the psychodynamic theorists view children's adjustment resulting from prior experiences with significant others and is related to the absence of maladaptive behaviours such as defences, denial and regression. The educationalists view adjustment of learners at school as determining the children's school performance as well as their likelihood of continuing at school rather than dropping out. Reynolds, Weissberg and Kasprow (1992) write that early school adjustment determines later school adjustment and social competence in children. This implies that adjustment has a significant influence on children's attitudes towards school and school progress.

Recently, this concern has been reinforced by the growing demand for education in our society. Today's society requires specialised skills and knowledge acquired from specialised agencies such as schools (Kellaghan, Sloane, Alvarez & Bloom, 1993). Consequently, schools serve as another context in which children's development occurs. In such a context, new skills are taught which develop children cognitively as well as equip them with social skills. Louw, Van Ede and Ferns (1998) write that schools provide information that increase children's knowledge about societal expectations and demands. However, there are significant individual differences among children at school

in terms of their ability to adjust (Valentine, 1953). This implies that while some children seem to be mature and adjust well at school, others seem to be immature and experience difficulties in adjusting. For example, some children are socially inclined and form friends easily while others are aggressive and socially withdrawn (Valentine, 1953).

Ladd (1989) writes that as many as 20% to 30% of school aged children experience substantial and significant problems related to adjustment at school. Such children are therefore at risk of school failure, under-achievement, school drop out and delinquency as they get older (Reynolds, Weissberg & Kaspraw, 1992; Reynold & Bezruczku, 1993). In addition they are vulnerable to experiences of interpersonal and emotional problems at school (Ladd, 1989).

According to Gerdes, Coetzee and Cronjé (1996) the mother's role, more specifically the mother's parenting style is important during children's transition into primary school whereby the child embarks on more serious activities. Traditionally, mothers rather than fathers are the primary child care giver and are responsible for taking physical and emotional care of children. As such the major focus is on maternal care rather than paternal care because in most cases fathers are seldomly involved in the primary care giving of children (Leve, 1980). Maternal care, determined by parenting styles is assumed to play a very important role in the child's ability to adjust at school. Mothers' responsibility to the child stretch from feeding the child, protecting the child, providing guidance and training on some developmental aspects, monitoring behaviour, establishing rules to coming up with appropriate disciplinary methods for misbehaviour. Mothers are in most cases the ones that are directly available for children during the early and middle childhood stages.

Children's adjustment in learning institutions (schools) depends not only on their abilities and desire to learn but also on their mood at school, experiences with significant family members and, more importantly, the parents' attitudes towards

them. It is therefore important to examine how parenting styles are associated with the socio-emotional adjustment of black South African grade I school children. This chapter presents the background, aims and rationale for the current study.

1.2 Aims of the study

The primary aim of the current study is to examine whether the various parenting styles experienced by black grade I school children influence their socio-emotional adjustment. Although research findings are inconsistent, in general, cross-cultural psychology contends that child rearing practices differ from one culture to another depending on the goals to be achieved in the particular culture (Rudy & Grusec, 1999). This connotes that parenting styles are determined by the values, goals and expectations of each culture. Morris (1992), therefore, advises that in order to understand these parenting styles it is necessary to study them from the socio-cultural context of the family. If not, they could be misunderstood and mistakenly applied in other ethnic groups. It is thus the intention of the current study to examine the relationship between parenting styles and child adjustment using a sample of black South African grade I school children.

The objective of the current study is not to study maladaptive behaviour, but rather to find out what parenting styles enhance better adjustment at school from data received from a sample of black South African grade I school children. That is, the current study aims at examining the relationship between various parenting styles and the socio-emotional adjustment of black South African grade I school children. It is anticipated that the various parenting styles will yield a better understanding of children's adaptive behaviours at school. Therefore, the current study also assesses the extent to which various parenting styles determine the adjustment levels of black South African grade I school children.

1.3 Rationale for the study

The rationale for focussing on single parent families is that most studies have been done on intact families as well as the comparison of the two kinds of family structures (Dornbusch, Ritter, Leiderman, Roberts & Fraleigh, 1987; Chen, Liu & Li, 2000). Little has been done with regards to single parents and their parenting styles. Again, in studies such as that conducted by Skuy, Koeberg and Fridjhon (1997) where a comparison was made between intact families and single parent families, it was found that the parents in intact families were reported to be more authoritative while single parent families were associated with an authoritarian parenting style. In the same study it was also found that a significant difference between children raised in the two types of families exists, that is, children raised in intact families are associated with more competent and mature behaviours than children raised in single parent families. This implies that single parent families are associated with deficient and inappropriate child care provision. The current study is therefore restricted to single mothers, exploring the ways in which these mothers report their parenting practices and attitudes towards their children and how these behaviours relate to the child's socio-emotional adjustment at school.

Studies on parenting styles and children's adjustment include adolescents (Dornbusch et al., 1987) and young children in preschool (Baumrind, 1967) or mixed grades in the elementary school level (Kaufmann, Gesen, Santa Lucia, Salcedo, Rendina-Gobioff & Gadd, 2000). A study including only grade I school children could not be found in the literature.

Most of the studies on parenting styles and children's adjustment have been conducted in countries such as America and little has been done in South Africa, even less using a sample of black families. According to Willers (1996), such a deficiency mitigates against comparisons with the findings from American studies. In the present study, the concern relates to the scarcity of

studies using data from grade 1 school children. In summary, factors motivating the present study are the following:

- To study parenting styles and the socio-emotional adjustment of children using a sample of black South African grade 1 school children.
- Research records need to be updated to determine whether earlier findings in other countries such as America (Baumrind, 1967) and China (Chen, Liu & Li, 2000) are applicable to South African families.
- The adjustment of children at school should be studied because it determines the optimal development of children.
- A parenting style model should be consolidated within the body of research into a comprehensive knowledge and understanding of children's adjustment at school.
- There is a need for research on single parenting, particularly with the mothers as the primary caregivers.

1.4 Significance of the present study

The present study does not differ methodologically from other studies aiming at contributing new knowledge to the body of psychological literature. The previous studies conducted in overseas countries on parenting styles and child adjustment reported that there is a relationship between parenting styles and child adjustment at school. As such the current study attempts to confirm the established relationship between parenting styles and adjustment of children at school. However, it is innovative in its intention to use a sample of black South African grade 1 school children in single parent (mother) families. Its fundamental principle for development is to understand children's adjustment as determined

by the parenting styles and also to understand the relationship between parenting styles and child adjustment in a specific socio-cultural context, in this case the South African black culture. This study therefore aims at making a significant contribution to the body of research on parenting styles and child adjustment.

More importantly, a study that attempts to relate the various parenting styles to the adjustment of grade 1 school children could not be found in the South African child development literature. The ultimate goal is therefore to make a contribution to the development of societal awareness about the importance of parenting styles on children's adjustment.

1.5 Definition of concepts

1.5.1 Parenting styles

Parenting style is defined as a "constellation of attitudes toward the child that are communicated to the child and that, taken together, create an emotional climate in which the parent's behaviours are expressed" (Darling & Steinberg, 1993, p. 488). Putting it more clearly, it is a means through which parents convey their attitudes towards the child rather than towards the child's behaviour (Darling & Steinberg, 1993). These parenting styles are expressed through parenting practices and parental behaviours defined by specific contents or goals. They also constitute other aspects of parent-child interaction such as tone of voice, body language, inattention and bursts of anger that communicate emotional attitudes (Darling & Steinberg, 1993). These parenting styles are categorised into three styles, namely the authoritative, authoritarian and permissive style.

- (i) The authoritative parenting style includes parental warmth, acceptance and control.
- (ii) The authoritarian style includes parental demandingness and firm control

- (iii) The permissive style is characterised by parental warmth and lack of control.

These styles will be discussed in detail in chapter 2.

1.5.2 Adjustment

Erikson's theory refers to adjustment as the "ego identity" (Erikson, 1959, p. 23). It is the capacity with which the individual is able to maintain his/her personal uniqueness and yet continue to cope successfully with environmental challenges. Ego identity is defined as "the selfsameness and continuity to the ego's synthesizing methods and that these methods are effective in safeguarding the sameness and continuity of one's meaning for others" (Erikson, 1959, p.23).

Corresponding to Erikson's view, the dictionary of Behavioural Science (in Bruno, 1983) defines adjustment as a harmonious relationship with the environment involving the ability to satisfy most of one's needs and meet most of the demands, both physical and social, that are put upon one.

In addition, Arkoff (1968) defines adjustment as a person's interaction with his environment. It involves the reconciliation of personal and environmental demands. According to Arkoff, adjustment concerns an individual's reaction in a stressful, challenging or rather unfamiliar situation. It is associated with concepts such as the absence of frustration, conflict, defence and the ability to learn. Deduced from the various definitions it is clear that adjustment refers to a person's ability to adapt and thus to satisfy both personal and social challenges.

More specifically, children's adjustment at school can be defined in terms of academic achievement or social adequacy or as a combination of both (Arkoff, 1968). Adjustment as reflected by academic achievement entails the individual showing satisfactory academic progress whereas social adequacy implies the

ability to establish satisfactory relationships with teachers and classmates. When combining the two aspects of adjustment at school, adjustment could be viewed as the ability to learn, to maintain satisfactory interpersonal relationships with peers and teachers, experiencing a happy mood and the absence of physical symptoms such as pain or fear associated with personal/school problems (Arkoff, 1968).

1.5.3 Single parenting

Carlson (1992) defines a single parent as someone who raises his/her children alone without the presence of a second parent or a parent substitute. It is a result of divorce, death, separation or non-marriage.

1.6 Organisational structure of the study

Chapter 1 includes the background, aims and rationale of the study. It ends with the definition of concepts used in the study.

Chapter 2 contains the theoretical framework and literature review concerning parenting styles and children's socio-emotional adjustment at school.

Chapter 3 describes the research methodology and procedures. It also includes the methods of data analysis used in the current study.

Chapter 4 includes data from the measurement instruments and presents the analysis thereof.

Chapter 5 presents the discussion of results and recommendations.

CHAPTER 2

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the theoretical framework of the study as well as the established literature in the area of parenting styles and child adjustment. It presents a discussion of Erikson's theory and provides a background of children's developmental characteristics in middle childhood with reference to adjustment. Single parenting families as well as prominent control variables identified from the literature are also discussed.

2.2 Theoretical background: Erik Erikson's theory

The chosen theory for the current study is the psychosocial theory developed by Erik Erikson (Erikson, 1977). This theory suggests that human development occurs within a social context (Roberts, 1994). It is based on the epigenetic principle which states that "anything that grows has a ground plan, and that out of this ground plan the parts arise, each part having its time of special ascendancy, until all parts have arisen to form a functioning whole" (Erikson, 1968, p. 92). From this statement it is clear that this theory considers human development as resulting from a "genetically determined ground plan" and as being influenced by the demands set by the society at each of the eight developmental stages (Meyer, Moore & Viljoen, 1997, p. 208). Development is, therefore, explained by "tracing the unfolding of the genetically social character of the individual in the course of his encounter with the social environment at each phase of his epigenesis" (Erikson, 1959, p. 15). In the context of the current study, this theory suggests that the various parenting styles will have an impact on the adjustment of children, based on the assumption that social and environmental factors do play a major role in the attainment of the ego strength

in each developmental stage.

Erikson's theory identified eight stages of development, governed by the epigenetic principle. Each stage presents a psychosocial crisis which needs to be resolved by the individual. Feldman (1989) points out that the way in which the crises are resolved has a significant influence on the individual's ability to adjust to the personal as well as social demands placed upon him/her. For the purpose of the present study only one stage of development applicable to elementary school children will be focussed on. The stage of school age concerns the solving of the psychosocial crisis Industry versus Inferiority and thus attaining the ego strength of competency. This implies that children involved in this stage are faced with the psychosocial crisis of Industry versus Inferiority which they are supposed to resolve. Ability to resolve this crisis allows the child to have a sense of industry, and thus attain the ego strength of competence. Attainment of competence in this regard implies optimal adjustment at school. Erikson (1972, p. 4) writes that "attaining a sense of industry means attaining a sense of social usefulness and adequacy derived from learning to work with the tool world". But failure to resolve the crisis leads to a "sense of inadequacy and inferiority" (Erikson, 1977, p. 233). Experiences of a sense of inadequacy and inferiority at school might result from parent's failure to equip the child with appropriate skills that will help him/her enter school happily (Erikson, 1951). Erikson (1968) explained that a confusing role of the parents influences the child's social reality, since the child's experiences of his/her worth as an individual are influenced by the milieu parents create rather than his/her ability or wish to learn.

The above mentioned stage covers children aged between six and twelve years. It is referred to as the entrance into life, demanding children to start learning skills and become productive. That is, it requires children to develop a sense of accomplishment from all the tasks an individual undertakes. It is in this stage that children become extremely interested in learning new basic skills. Erikson

(1977) writes that children involved in this stage are productive and eagerly absorbed in tasks to develop their skills, and master the fundamentals of technology. This implies that children involved in this stage engage in real tasks that they carry through to completion. Erikson (1968) state that parents, teachers and other older people are responsible for teaching skills and making learning easier for children. The skills that they acquire are related to the basic skills of simple tasks which can be understood and performed easily. Children in this stage become big in the sense of working with others or sharing obligations, they become disciplined and perform well in their responsibilities (Erikson, 1968).

2.3 Characteristics of middle childhood

Middle childhood is a human developmental stage which covers the ages between six and twelve. It is a period in which the child's world expands outward from the family into a more broader social context whereby relationships are formed with peers, teachers, coaches and others. According to Louw et al. (1998), this stage involves a period of calm and stability in respect to children's physical development as compared to early childhood development and adolescence. More importantly, it is a pivotal phase of development in areas such as cognitive, social and emotional development as influenced by the broader social context such as school.

Morris (1992) is of the opinion that children's ability to make the transition from home to elementary school depends on cognitive, social and emotional adjustment. However, such adjustment is affected by other factors such as the individual's family experiences (Lorion, Cowen, Kraus & Milling, 1977). This implies that, although children in this stage spend most of their time at school, parents will still have an influence on their adjustment at school. According to Booth, Rubin and Rose-Krasnor (1998), the way in which the child forms and develops relationships with others at school reflects his/her parent's parenting style. Children who are exposed to more loving and limit setting parents are

more likely to be happy at school and interact easily with others than those raised by controlling and demanding parents or less demanding but warm parents.

2.3.1 Cognitive development

Cognitive development in young children has been studied by various theorists such as Jean Piaget, Stanford Binet and Vygotsky. Piaget's theory is the most well-known and influential theory in studies of children's cognitive development. According to this theory, children's knowledge is composed of schemas, which are the basic units of knowledge used to organise previous experiences and which serve as a basis for understanding new ones. Cognitive development involves an ongoing attempt to achieve a balance between assimilation and accommodation, thus attaining the state of equilibration (Louw et al., 1998). Assimilation is a process through which the received new information is incorporated into existing cognitive schemes. This implies that the new information that an individual receives is related to the knowledge that he/she already has. Accommodation is the process through which existing cognitive structures are changed in order to accommodate new knowledge (Louw et al., 1998).

Piaget's theory views cognitive development occurring in a series of four distinctive stages, each stage characterised by increasingly sophisticated and abstract levels of thought. The stages occur in a sequence which allows the forthcoming stage to build on the preceding ones. The relevant stage for this study is called the concrete operational stage, and covers children aged between six and twelve years. Children at this stage are able to perform logical operations in relation to concrete external objects rather than ideas (Berk, 2000). That is, they can add, subtract, count and measure and they also learn about the conservation of length, mass, area, weight, time and volume. They are also expected to be able to sort items into categories, reverse the direction of their

thinking and think about two concepts, such as length and width simultaneously. These children begin to lose their egocentric focus and are able to understand a situation from other people's viewpoints.

Adjustment in this regard refers to the child's ability to learn skills utilised to execute tasks at school. It also relates to the child's abilities in mental activities such as remembering, symbolising, categorising and problem solving (Berk, 2000).

2.3.2 Social development

According to Louw et al. (1998), social development occurs when children are exposed to new social learning experiences such as forming new friends, sharing duties with peers and forming new relationships with teachers at school. Hawkes and Pease (1962) point out that growth into middle childhood has a direct influence on the social adjustment of children because as they develop they are also urged to advance socially. According to Welsh and Bierman (1998), social development in middle childhood involves separating from parents and engaging in the broader social world such as school. In other words, children in this developmental stage should be able to engage with their peers in shared play activities as well as form relationships with teachers.

Social adjustment is reflected by the individual's social competence. Welsh and Bierman (1998) write that social competence is attained by individuals who possess social, emotional, and cognitive skills. It is associated with cooperation (being helpful and following rules), assertion (showing social confidence and initiatives), responsibility (competence in dealing with adults and acting independently) and self control (ability to cope in situations of conflict and compromise). According to Welsh and Bierman (1998), children's social competence depends on a number of factors such as the child's social skills, social awareness and self confidence. Social skills encompass the "child's

knowledge of and ability to use a variety of social behaviours that are appropriate to a given interpersonal situation and that are pleasing to others in each situation" (Welsh & Bierman, 1998, p.1). They are also reflected by the child's capacity to inhibit egocentric, impulsive, or negative social behaviours. As a result, social adjustment is attained by children with a wide repertoire of social skills such as the ability to engage with others and form friendships with peers. Hawkes and Pease (1962) describe socially adjusted children as being more cooperative, friendly, loyal, emotionally stable, calm, deliberate, enthusiastic and cheerful. According to Welsh and Bierman (1998), social adjustment is characterised by the ability to establish and maintain high quality and mutually satisfying relationships. On the other hand, problems in social adjustment are evinced by poor self-esteem, social withdrawal, and aggressive behaviours.

2.3.3 Emotional development

Louw et al. (1998) state that middle childhood is a period in which children develop a degree of emotional maturity. According to Anselmo and Franz (1995), emotional maturity in school aged children is characterised by a decrease in irrational emotions such as fear. Seeing that children begin to understand emotions such as joy, anger, shame, pride and guilt their emotional experiences also start to change. The understanding of these emotions is suggested to be important as it assists children in learning and in interaction situations (Anselmo & Franz, 1995). Children in this developmental stage have the ability to express feelings and become sensitive to other people's feelings. Emotional adjustment is associated with feelings of social belongingness and positive perceptions of self-worth (Chen et al., 2000).

2.3.4 Moral development

In principle, moral development refers to the ability to distinguish right from wrong. Its determinants are rooted on both societal and individual levels (Berk, 2000). With respect to the societal level, morality is promoted through the social organisation that specifies rules for good conduct. For young children, moral development occurs within the family and during the later years of childhood also within peer groups. According to Leve (1980), moral development seems to occur extensively at school within the peer group which provide opportunities that are absent within the family group. With regard to the individual level, morality constitutes emotional, cognitive and behavioural components because it is influenced by human feelings such as empathy as well as individual thoughts and actions (Berk, 2000). In terms of young children, morality depends on the child's ability to develop moral understanding which allows them to make more profound judgements about actions they believe to be right and wrong. According to Berk (2000), moral understanding is reflected in the child through his/her ability to distinguish moral obligations from social conventions and matters of personal choice, the child's ideas about fair distribution of rewards and lastly, the child's prosocial reasoning.

Moral maturity may reflect good adjustment in children. For example, Berk (2000) writes that children with advanced moral reasoning are more likely to engage in prosocial acts such as helping and sharing with others while those with underdeveloped moral reasoning engage in antisocial behaviours.

2.3.5 Adjustment of young children at school

Adjustment at school has been associated with the child's ability to learn, maintain satisfactory interpersonal relationships with peers and teachers, and the experience of a happy mood at school (see 1.5.2). According to Carlson, Sroufe, Collins, Jimerson, Weinfield, Henninghausen, Egeland, Hyson, Anderson

and Meyer (1999), adjustment at school demands children to negotiate the social, emotional and behavioural demands involved in a situational context such as school. Smith (1990) identified adjustment problems at school as poor social competence, impulsivity, passive-aggressive behaviours, manipulative behaviours and acting out. According to Smith, children with poor social adjustment experience conflict with their peers; they appear to have little or no peer contact. As a result, such children become socially isolated and are unable to make friends. On the other hand, impulsive children are unable to control their behaviour and fail to follow established rules and school procedure. Because of their inability to control their impulses and to act before thinking they are often disruptive, and frequently unable to respond to instructions from the teacher. As a result, such children are disorganised and easily frustrated. Children with passive-aggressive behaviours appear to be friendly but always have excuses for not fulfilling their school responsibilities.

May (1994) studied gifted children's social and emotional adjustment at school and identified behaviours that show difficulty to adjust at school. The identified behaviours include frustration, acting out, boredom, withdrawal and lack of adequate social skills shown by children at school. Smith (1990) also warns that children who isolate themselves, withdraw from others, are avoidant, who show an inability to control their impulse and hurt others without remorse, experience problems with regard to adjustment at school. Siann and Ugwuegbu (1980) add by pointing out that such children experience feelings of inferiority and inadequacy as compared to other children and as a result they tend to be shy and isolated. On the other hand, as already mentioned, those children who manage to adjust at school are considered to be equipped with emotional, social and behavioural skills that are desirable for valuable personal qualities such as self-esteem, cooperativeness, self-control and independency.

2.4 Grade I school children

Grade I school children are in most cases aged between 6 and 7. This stage marks a period of transition in children's lives when they have to move from a small contained family life into a broader social life at school. Louw et al. (1998) maintain that "the familiar home environment is left behind and the child enters the relatively unfamiliar school environment. The teacher is a new authority figure who applies new rules and makes demands which differ from those of the child's parent" (p. 360).

Flake-Hobson, Robinson and Skeen (1983) assert that as children move from family life interaction, toward a broader social context (school) their emotions are increasingly influenced by this larger social world. Ladd (1990) is of the opinion that the transition into primary school is not merely about getting connected with the broader social life but rather about requiring big and challenging changes from children. Consequently, there is a demand for adjustment when children make the transition into the elementary school. Valentine (1953) argues that all children entering elementary school for the first time have to adapt to the new school environment, regardless of whether or not the child attended nursery school. Ladd (1989) writes that these children need to gain acceptance into a new peer group, and adjust to the new school environment. Bukatko and Daehler (1992) add that grade I school children must find some ways to accommodate the new teachers and be able to learn new tasks related to school. This implies that children should negotiate new school adaptations and gain acceptance into a new peer group (Ladd, 1990).

2.5 Black urban grade I school children living in the inner city

Most of the families living in the city use "high rise buildings" also called flats as their dwelling places (Goldstein, Novick & Schaefer, 1990, p. 167). This type of residential settlement consists of one to four bedrooms and as such are

associated with high level of family overcrowding. McDonald and Brownlee (1993) in their study of families in high rise buildings found that such neighbourhoods are characterised by high level of household overcrowding and they constitute a culturally mixed community with a variety of languages. According to Dummett (1984), black children in the inner city develop a language called Black English which is different from the standard English spoken at school. This black English language is unstructured and underdeveloped and as such contributes to children's difficulty to adjust at school. The black English language prevents children from following instructions at school or leads to misunderstanding of instructions from the teachers. This language problem might also prevent children from adjusting at school. Barth and Parke (1993) are of the opinion that children who lag behind their peers because of language problems may also lag behind them in the social skills necessary for adapting to a new setting.

On the basis of children's adjustment at school, Ogbu (1985) classified black inner city children into the following four categories:

- *Mainstreamers*. Children who are grouped in this category are those who seem to be adjusting well at school.
- *Submissive children*. These children are generally quiet, inactive, show lack of self confidence, and rarely show initiative.
- *Ambivalent children*. These are emotionally intense children who experience frequent conflict between a desire for dependency, attention, nurturing and a sense of belonging. They are usually mistrustful of others, and expect others to be manipulative and eventually rejecting.
- *Precocious independent children*. This category includes children who are stubborn and rigid in self direction, lack cooperativeness, and have

dramatic and forceful identities.

2.6 The role of parents in children's socio-emotional adjustment

Evidence from child development literature contends that children's adjustment is determined by their interaction and experiences with their parents and the parent's parenting styles. Parents are therefore responsible for equipping their children with appropriate qualities which will help them adjust in the broader social world, for instance at school. In particular, the mothers as the primary care givers are assumed to have a unique role in shaping and framing the child's early social environment, interaction and relationships.

In the following sections attention will be given to parenting styles and the socio-emotional adjustment of children.

2.6.1 Parenting styles

Parenting styles constitute the parents' parental attitudes toward their children (see 1.5.1). The parenting styles are reflected through parental practices and behaviours directed towards the child. Baumrind (1967) identified three indices, namely the authoritative, authoritarian and permissive parenting style.

Authoritative parenting style

Authoritative parenting is characterised by high levels of parental responsiveness (warmth, acceptance and democracy) and high levels of demandingness (firm control) (Steinberg, Lamborn, Dornbusch & Darling, 1992). Parents classified under this prototype set clear standards to their children while being responsive to the children's needs rather than being totally committed to children's adherence of rules (Smetana, 1997). They usually explain rules and help their children understand the reasons behind them. These parents allow

and accept reciprocal responsibility with their children and make reasonable demands for maturity (Maccoby & Martin, 1983; Berk, 2000).

Studies (Maccoby & Martin, 1983; Baumrind, 1971) reported that children raised from authoritative families are more competent, independent, and socially responsible than those of either authoritarian or permissive parents. Fagen, Cowen, Wyman and Work (1996) mention that such children are more independent, friendly, creative and less hostile than those raised in either authoritarian or permissive families. This parenting style predicts cooperative, affinitive behaviour and social competence in children (Chen et al., 2000). In their study, Fagen et al. (1996) assessed the parent-child relationship variables and children's adjustment. They found that children whose parents reported a warm, caring relationship with them and a positive perception of them, have better social skills, are more likely to interact with others around them and have healthier personal relationships than children of parents who did not report such a relationship and did not perceive their children positively. Deduced from this finding, an authoritative style can be related to responsible behaviours and fewer behaviour problems in children as compared to other styles (Shumow, Vandell & Posner, 1998; Chen et al., 2000). From the literature the authoritative parenting style seems to take a lead in positively influencing children's adjustment at school.

Authoritarian parenting style

The authoritarian style is characterised by a high level of parental control as well as a low level of warmth and acceptance. Parents in this parenting style are demanding, they do not discuss rules with their children, they attach a strong value to the maintenance of their authority and discourage any effort made by children to challenge their authority (Baumrind, 1968; Kaufmann et al., 2000). According to Maccoby and Martin (1983), such parents value obedience as a virtue and favour punitive, forceful measures, and believe in strict adherence to

their rules and restrict autonomy. Their children are reported to be obedient, neither quarrelsome nor resistive, but they lack spontaneity, affection, curiosity and originality (Maccoby & Martin, 1983). According to Berk (2000), these children are likely to be anxious, withdrawn, have an unhappy mood and become hostile when frustrated. As a result, the authoritarian style is associated with incompetence and deviant behaviour in children. It weakens the ability of children to overcome their challenges and contribute to the maladaptive risk status.

Permissive parenting style

The permissive parenting style is characterised by a high level of warmth and responsiveness and low demandingness. The permissive parents "avoid the exercise of control, but tend to be accepting and firm towards their children" (Baumrind, 1971, p. 23). They tend to create a climate in which children are responsible for regulating their own behaviours (Louw et al., 1998). According to Berk (2000), their children tend to be impulsive, disobedient, rebellious, demanding and dependent on adults. They are associated with immaturity, lack of self-reliance and social responsibility (Dornbusch et al., 1987).

2.6.2 Parenting styles and ethnicity

Hill and Bush (2001) are of the opinion that ethnic differences in parenting may lead to differences in the relationship between parenting styles and child adjustment at school. Accordingly, the various parenting styles are assumed to differ across ethnic groups due to differences in parental values, goals and expectations. Furthermore, an assumption is made that since parenting styles vary across ethnic groups parenting might have different meanings and influences across groups (Hill & Bush, 2001). Consequently, the issue of ethnicity has been considered to play a significant role in this regard because of its influence on the goals and expectations behind a particular type of parenting

style. Rudy and Grusec (1999) support this viewpoint and mention that various parenting styles do not actually differ in their relation to child adjustment but rather that their difference depends on the goals that are supposed to be achieved in the particular ethnic group. An example is that of an ethnic group where collectivity is highly valued. In this case individuals are expected to align themselves with the larger social group and rely on the group to attend to their needs (Rudy & Grusec, 1999). For instance, black African families value interdependence and cooperation, group effort for common interests, perseverance in the context of adversity and conformity.

Carrasquillo and London (1993) described black African parents as controlling and demanding. Moreover, they are viewed to elicit obedience and conformity by using coercion (Morris, 1992). Their emphasis on obedience is regarded as a way of demanding respect from their children. Kaufmann et al. (2000) examined the relationship between parenting styles and children's adjustment and found that black parents scored higher on authoritarian parenting style than on other types of parenting styles. This might be because the authoritarian parenting style involves the parental behaviours which make it possible to achieve the parental goals set in black African families. Such goals include internalising respect to authority, conformity and a sense of sharing. Consequently, effective parenting involves the promotion of interdependence and cooperation in children rather than autonomy.

In contrast, in other ethnic groups (e.g. white) authoritative parenting is considered to be the ideal parenting style. The authoritative parenting style encourages children to develop a sense of independence rather than dependency which is encouraged by authoritarian parents. The black African families associated with the authoritarian parenting style, are criticized for providing weak support to their children while setting unrealistically high goals (Staples & Johnson, 1993). Rudy and Grusec (1999) state that although black African families are best described as authoritarian, their parenting practices

are more conscious in nature, and are used to promote the interests of the child.

2.6.3 Empirically established relationship between parenting style and adjustment

Baumrind (1967) took the first step and investigated the effects of parenting patterns on children's adjustment. Baumrind used a two dimensional topology (demandingness and responsiveness) in assessing the parenting behaviours of different groups of parents (Maccoby & Martin, 1983; Kaufmann, et al., 2000). She observed that parents vary on how they rear their children. Baumrind (1991, p. 62) states that the way in which parents "reconcile the joint needs of children for nurturance and limit-setting" has a major influence on the degree of children's adjustment. She found that while some parents are more nurturing (accepting and warm) to their children, some are too controlling and others are permissive. When relating parenting styles with children's adjustment it was clear that children raised in different parenting styles adjust differently in the same situation. For example, Baumrind (1967) reported that children raised by authoritative parents are more competent (adjust better) than those raised by either authoritarian or permissive parents. Sears, Maccoby and Levin (1957) assert that more loving parents are likely to produce children with higher global self-esteem, social competence and responsibility. Shumow, Vandell and Posner (1998) examined the relationship between parenting patterns and adjustment of elementary school children. Their findings show that authoritative parenting is associated with responsibility in children. This implies that children behave more maturely when their parents take their needs into account, setting realistic standards and are being positive with them. Compared with those raised in either permissive or authoritarian families, they are reported to be dependent on adults, socially incompetent and mostly withdrawn (Kaufmann et al., 2000).

Baumrind (1967) examined the relationship between parenting styles and the child's psychosocial adjustment using a sample of White middle-class preschool children. Families of these children were assigned to various parenting styles based on parents' reports of their own parenting behaviours. Children's behaviours were then observed at the play ground and evaluated by research assistants. In her findings, Baumrind reported that different parenting styles determine the adjustment of children in different ways. More specifically, authoritative parenting was reported to produce more competent and socially responsible children than the other two parental indices. In contrast to the authoritative parenting style, authoritarian parenting was related to less content, more insecure and hostile children. The permissive parenting style, on the other hand, was associated with immaturity and avoidance behaviour. In view of these findings Baumrind concluded that the authoritative parenting style is the most effective style in promoting children's socio-emotional adjustment.

Similarly, Shumow, Vandell and Posner (1998) in their study with two ethnic groups (African Americans and White Americans) reported that authoritarian parenting undermines the adjustment of children, whereas authoritative parenting is positively associated with children's responsibility and negatively associated with problem behaviour in both groups. However, the relationship between the permissive parenting style and children's adjustment was not clearly defined.

Shucksmith, Hendry and Glendinning (1995) reported that children raised in authoritative parenting families are more positive in their assessment of school than children raised by either authoritarian or permissive parents. These researchers concluded that children's negative attitudes towards school reflect the negative attitudes towards the parents, which implies that these children are not only disengaged from the family context but also poorly integrated into the school context. This supports Onatsu-Arvilommi, Nurmi and Aunola (1998) statement which suggests that the parenting styles experienced by children at home are reflected in their behaviour at school. Shucksmith et al. (1995)

reported a clear link between authoritative parenting and children's positive attitudes toward school. They also mention that there are a few unclear differences between authoritarian and permissive parenting styles with respect to their contribution to children's school adjustment. Baumrind (1989) also found that children from permissive families did not differ significantly from those raised by authoritarian families in terms of social competence.

After assessing the relationship between parenting styles and the adjustment of **adolescents**, Shucksmith and associates (1995) were more convinced like Baumrind (1967) that authoritative parenting is effective in determining children's adjustment than the other two parenting styles. These researchers concluded by declaring that authoritative parenting is the most appropriate form of parenting, because young people raised in such families rarely report maladaptive behaviours in contrast to their peers raised in families with either authoritarian or permissive parents.

Dornbusch et al. (1987) compared an Asian and white adolescent group with regard to parenting style experiences. The researchers found that the Asian group was high on the index of authoritarian parenting and low on the authoritative parenting. These adolescents raised in authoritarian families were also reported as competent. These findings could be attributed to socio-cultural differences. In contrast, the parents of the white adolescent group predominantly used an authoritative parenting style. However, they also show a high level of competency. This confirms earlier mentioned research that found that children raised in authoritative parenting styles are competent.

Different results were also reported by Kaufmann et al. (2000) in their study of authoritative and authoritarian parenting using a sample of mixed age and grades elementary school children. Contrary to other findings (Chen, Dong & Zhou, 1997; Baumrind, 1967; Lamborn, Mounts, Steinberg & Dornbusch, 1991) which reported a negative correlation between authoritarian parenting and child

adjustment, Kaufmann et al. (2000) found an insignificant positive correlation between authoritarian parenting and children's adjustment. The insignificant correlation was, however, reported as being weaker and smaller than the correlation between authoritative parenting and adjustment. Similar to other studies (Baumrind, 1967), authoritarian parenting was suggested to promote problem behaviour while authoritative parenting was associated with promotion of children's competence.

Assessing the criterion and predictor variables with regard to adjustment and parenting styles can be complex. In assessing parenting styles investigators use different methods or informants. For example, some investigators ask parents to give reports on their own parenting styles whereas others might use older children's reports on their parents' parenting styles. Haskett, Myers, Pirrello and Dombalis (1995) conducted a study using the observational technique, whereby the researcher or assistant researcher coded the behavioural patterns of parents interacting with their children.

The same happens when assessing children's adjustment whereby different informants can be used. McKim and Cowen (1987) indicate that children's school adjustment can be assessed by way of five various methods, namely teacher reports, parent reports, peer ratings, self-ratings and through behaviour observations. For example, Steinberg, Lamborn, Darling, Mounts and Dornbusch (1994) used the self rating measurement which assessed withdrawal and sociability of adolescents. The teacher rating scale developed by McDermott, Marston and Scott (1993) assesses children's attention-deficit hyperactive, solitary aggression (provocative), solitary aggression (impulsive), oppositional defiant, diffident and avoidant behaviours. Carlson et al. (1999) used teachers to give reports on children's socio-emotional adjustment. The measurement scale used addressed aspects such as children's social competence, self confidence, curiosity, self assurance and group participation and approach to new challenges. Hightower, Cowen, Spinell, Lotyczewski,

Guare, Rohrbeck, and Brown (1987) developed a child rating measurement which assesses school adjustment focussing on rule compliance, anxiety, school interest and peer social skills. Boon (1994) observed children at the play ground and their behaviour was coded by research assistants. A combination of different perspectives is favourable and gives a more representative picture of child adjustment. However, from this discussion, it can be concluded that relevant measures need to be identified for various research purposes.

2.6.4 Single parenting

Single parenting takes place when a parent raises his/her children alone without the presence of a second parent or a parent substitute (see 1.5.3). Despite the different routes that lead to single parenting, such families are collectively referred to as single parent families because they are assumed to be similar to one another in terms of lifestyles and problem experiences. These families are considered to be vulnerable to task overload and strains, experience major reduction in family income and have limited access to materials and social resources (Carlson, 1992). Single parent families differ in that it can be of a single father or a single mother which could lead to different parenting styles. Carlson (1992) compared children raised by a single parent with those from intact families. The findings indicated that children raised by single parents experience poorer adjustment at school than their counterparts. Pittit, Bates and Dodge (1997) support this finding by stating that single parenting is associated with poor child adjustment because single parents' discipline is inconsistent and there is a lack of companionship with their children. This type of parenting is reminiscent of permissive parenting. Dunn, Deater-Deckard, Pickering, O'Connor and Golding (1998) confirm this by stating that children from single-parent families are more vulnerable to experiences of health and adjustment problems than children growing up in other forms of family arrangements. These findings associate single-parenting with negative behaviour in children.

2.7 Control variables

The possibility exists that it might not be parenting per se that influences the adjustment of children at school, but other factors as well, such as demographic factors. McDermott (1995) maintains that constructs related to childhood adjustment may vary according to the demographic factors of the population. Andrews and Ben-Arieh (1999) point out that children's adjustment is determined substantially by circumstances of birth such as familial factors, social, racial or ethnic identity and socioeconomic status, gender, geographic location, physical and mental abilities. Therefore, in identifying the possible effects of parenting variations, it is necessary to take note of these demographic factors. In line with the literature, identified and prominent control variables for the current study include socioeconomic factors, child's gender and family composition (Dunn et al., 1998; Andrews & Ben-Arieh, 1999; Shucksmith, Henry & Glendinning, 1995).

2.7.1 Socioeconomic status

Socioeconomic status (SES) is considered to be the most important factor confounded with the parenting styles in predicting child adjustment (Liddell, 1994). Clark and Ladd (2000) assert that parents from higher SES backgrounds would express more warmth and affection toward their children than those from lower SES backgrounds. Consequently, children raised in low socioeconomic families adjust significantly less well than their peers who come from middle and upper class families. Dornbusch et al. (1987) found a clear relation between parental education and parenting styles and reported that families with higher parental education tend to be somewhat lower in authoritarian and permissive parenting and higher in authoritative parenting. Shucksmith et al., (1995) also assessed the relationship between children's adjustment and demographic factors, whereby they found insignificant results with regard to family structure. However parental education was reported to be

a contributing factor in children's adjustment. They also reported that families with parents who have some experiences of education beyond high school level are marginally more likely to be authoritative and correspondingly less likely to be permissive in approach. Cherian (1992) examined the relationship between black South African parents' education and their children's academic achievement. The researcher reported a positive and statistically significant relationship between parental education and achievement of the children. That is, children of more educated parents were likely to achieve academically better than children raised by less educated parents. Therefore, maternal educational level is used as a socioeconomic status indicator in the present study.

2.7.2 Household composition

Family composition includes the number of children in the household as well as the birth order of the children. However, in the current study family composition was determined by number of children in the family. According to Berk (2000), siblings develop a unique interaction context in which the children's social competence expands. That is, the siblings' interaction context created during play provides children with an opportunity to acquire skills such as communication and understanding of emotions (Leve, 1980). Berk (2000) asserts that such acquired skills contribute to children's moral maturity and competency in relating to others. On the other hand, the availability of an additional child in the family is thought to interfere with the parent-child relationship. According to Demo and Cox (2000), such an interference can be evident in the child's academic performance and socio-emotional adjustment. Berk (2000) is of the opinion that children growing up in one-child families tend to have a closer parent-child relationship than those raised with siblings. This could be because they can spend as much time with their parents as possible without being interrupted by additional children. Moreover, a close parent-child relationship allows open communication between the two parties. However, such children are assumed to experience a lot of pressure from their parents in

terms of life success (Berk, 2000). This implies that although children growing in one-child families get lots of attention from their parents without interference of the additional child they also experience pressure from their parents. That is, parents with only one child set high standards for their children and they could also be autocratic with their children.

2.7.3 Gender

Gender was identified as a contributing factor in the adjustment level of children at school. Ricard, Miller and Heffer (1995) studied the relationship between developmental trends and adjustment of elementary school children in mixed-age classrooms. These researchers examined gender differences of school children and how it contributes to the adjustment of school children. It was found that an insignificant difference between boys and girls existed. This implies that adjustment depends on the individual rather than gender.

In contrast, Baumrind (1989) reported that “for both sexes, warmth and noncoerciveness were related negatively to competence, and the relations were stronger for boys than for girls” (p. 358). In a study by Kaufmann et al. (2000) teachers were found to have rated boys and girls differently on the indicator of adjustment; girls were more associated with adjustment behaviours than boys. Silvern and Katz (1986) also reported that teachers rated boys higher on behaviour problems than girls. In addition, Radziszewska, Richardson, Dent & Flay (1996) conducted a study on parenting styles and adolescents’ adjustment, in which they examined the relationship of the two variables as influenced by demographic factors, such as gender and socioeconomic status. These researchers reported that boys were more likely to have permissive parents and less likely to have authoritative parents. It was also apparent that children (boys more than girls) raised in permissive parenting families were more likely to exhibit behaviour problems than those raised in the authoritative parenting families. It is evident from the above discussion that the earlier findings on

gender and the parenting styles and child adjustment at school are inconsistent. It will therefore be of interest to see how gender will interact with the parenting styles and child adjustment in the sample used in this study.

2.7.4 Preschool attendance

Taylor, Gibbs and Slate (2000) contend that preschool attendance in young children provides greater opportunity to improve their school adjustment. In the study conducted by them children who attended preschool as well as those who did not attend preschool were assessed on their school readiness using the Georgia Kindergarten Assessment Program. They found that children who attended preschool were more proficient in terms of communication, physical, personal as well as social capabilities than children who did not attend preschool. Similarly, Sheehan, Cryan, Wiechel and Bandy (1991) in their study on factors contributing to academic success in elementary schools found that children who attended preschool prior to elementary school experienced greater subsequent success which might imply that they were better adjusted than those who did not attend preschool. In the same study, children who did not attend preschool were more likely to be retained at school than those who had an opportunity to attend preschool.

2.7.5 Maternal age

In the literature maternal age is mostly considered with regard to child bearing rather than child development and adjustment (Leve, 1980; Berg, 2000; Hetherington & Parke, 1979). Therefore, the interaction between maternal age, parenting styles and child adjustment is unclear. In this study maternal age will be studied as a variable in parenting styles as well as child adjustment in single household families.

2.8 Conclusion

This chapter focussed on Erikson's theory and the literature on parenting styles and children's socio-emotional adjustment. In discussing Erikson's theory, aspects such as the epigenetic principle, the characteristics of children in elementary school as well as the psychosocial crisis, industry versus inferiority, faced by children in middle childhood were explained. The developmental characteristics of children in middle childhood with regard to social , emotional and cognitive development were also briefly discussed. In the discussion of these areas of development, specific attention was given to aspects related to adjustment.

Single parenting and parenting styles were discussed focussing on how they affect the adjustment of children, particularly at school. In conclusion research findings with regard to the control variables of the current study were given attention to.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction and variables used

This chapter describes the research process as well as methods chosen in order to reach the aims of the current study. According to Grimm (1993), the research process involves a series of stages to answer a research question or questions asked about the field of interest. For instance, in the current study a question was asked about the relationship between parenting styles and the adjustment of grade I school children (see 3.2). This implies that the research process began with a research question followed by identifying a research problem. Furthermore, the researcher should make decisions in terms of the research designs, sampling strategies, methods of data collection as well as data analysis applicable to the topic of interest. The research process ends with reporting the findings and the interpretation of results. Usually the findings are interpreted in view of the existing literature in the specific field of interest. A diagrammatic representation of a research process is presented in Figure 1. In addition, Figure 4 (appendix A) presents a diagrammatic representation of the research process and methods followed in the current study.

The current study is designed in a way that the relationship between parenting styles and child adjustment can be described. Furthermore, it should allow for an observation of the level to which the parenting styles and child adjustment are related. Variables involved in the current study are categorised and allocated according to their place of importance. Figure 5 (appendix A) shows a rough sketch of classification variables, their measurement instruments as well as the validation procedures performed for the measurements. In addition to the main variables of the study, other factors (nuisance variables) are included in the study. According to Willers (1996), such factors are usually identified from the

literature which provides the basis for selecting the most important variables for the study. Therefore, the predictor variable, criterion variable as well as the nuisance variables considered in the current study were identified from the literature (Kaufmann et al., 2000; Baumrind, 1967; Steinberg et al., 1992; Chen et al., 2000; Sheeban et al., 1991; Radziszewska et al., 1996; Berk, 2000; Leve, 1980; Lidell, 1994).

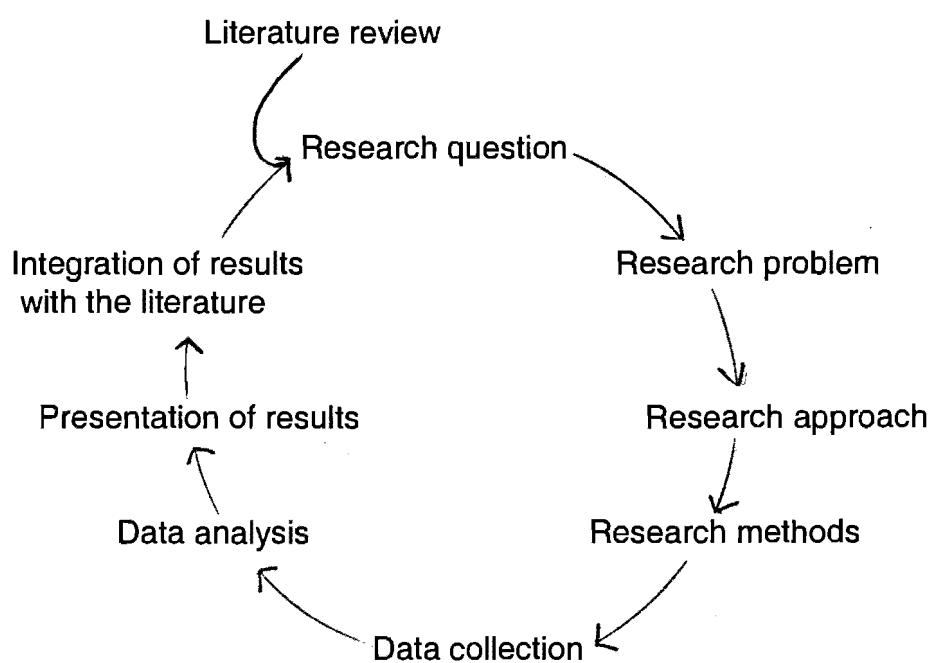


Figure 1 A cyclic representation of the research process (adapted from Graziano & Raulin, 2000, p. 44)

In this regard the identified variables are allocated as follows:

Predictor variable

Parenting styles with three levels - authoritative parenting style
authoritarian parenting style
permissive parenting style

Secondary predictor variables (nuisance variables)

Maternal educational level
Child's gender
Preschool attendance
Number of children in the family
Maternal age

Criterion variable

Child adjustment at school
(Specifically, the socio-emotional adjustment of black South African grade I school children)

3.2 Research questions

The primary research question addressed in the current study refers to the relationship between parenting styles and child adjustment in a sample of black South African grade I school children. The question asked was the following:

- (a) Are various parenting styles associated with different levels of adjustment in a sample of black South African grade I school children?

The secondary research questions relate to the existence of parenting styles in a sample of black South African single parent families. In addition, the

relationship between child adjustment, parenting styles and other confounding variables identified from the literature was also questioned. With regard to the existence of parenting styles in a sample of black South African school children the following question was asked:

- (b) Do various parenting styles exist in a sample of black South African single parent families?

Items included in the parenting style measurement were based on the proposition that parenting practices and attitudes constitute a variety of parenting styles, such as the authoritarian, authoritative and permissive parenting styles. An explanation of how parents were classified into various parenting style groups is given in chapter 4 (4.2.3) .

The third question posed focussed on the relationship between the main variables and the extraneous variables involved in the study. As such, the question asked was the following:

- (c) Are parenting styles and child adjustment at school related to other nuisance variables, such as maternal educational level, child's gender, preschool attendance, number of children in the family and maternal age?

3.3 Hypothesis

The current study investigates the hypothesis that a relationship exists between different parenting styles and the levels of adjustment of black South African grade I school children. The hypothesised relationship assumes that the various parenting styles are related to the adjustment of children at school. It basically connotes that the parenting styles do contribute to the adjustment level of children at school.

3.4 Research design

The current study is based on a quantitative approach which aims at measuring the variables involved in the study and testing the research hypothesis (Neuman, 2000). This study uses an ex post facto correlational design, hence, it does not involve manipulation of predictor variables. Gupta (1993) describes the ex post facto design as a systematic empirical inquiry in which the researcher does not have control of predictor variables, because their manifestations have already occurred. This implies that the investigation occurs “after the fact”, meaning after the groups have already been formed (McBurney, 1994, p.222). Gupta (1993) warns against this type of research design, in that it has a tendency of including inevitable influences on behavioural patterns due to uncontrolled complex social phenomena. The most prominent factors of such social phenomena are listed in section 3.1 as secondary predictor variables. In the following sections (i.e. 3.6.2, 3.7.2 and 4.4) an explanation is given of how these variables were treated in the current study.

The current study adopts a correlational design because only one sample of black South African grade I school children raised in single household families was drawn. The parents (single mothers) of the research participants were classified according to the three parenting styles (see 4.3). It is anticipated that the grouping of parents into three groups would allow the investigation of the relationship between the various parenting styles and the adjustment of a sample of black South African grade I school children.

3.5 Sampling method

The sample was drawn from a population of black South African grade I school children registered in elementary schools around central Pretoria. The sample was drawn by using a convenience sampling method. McBurney (1994) defines this method as a nonrandom sampling procedure chosen for practical reasons,

such as selecting respondents who are readily available to participate in a study. Therefore, respondents were selected on the basis of availability of information required for the purpose of the study. This means that the sample was selected from the returned parent research material. The sample selection procedures undertaken to fulfil the purpose of the present study are explained in the following section. In addition, data collection procedures carried out before sample selection are explained in section 3.6.

3.5.1 Sample selection

Participants were drawn from four public schools situated in areas around Pretoria Central. From the four schools, a total of 313 participants returned the consent forms as well as completed the parenting style questionnaires. After having validated the use of the parenting style questionnaire the final sample was composed. Two criteria were considered when selecting the final study sample from the 313 candidates, namely, possession of expected sample characteristics (see 3.5.2) and the availability of data from all research materials (parenting style questionnaire, adjustment questionnaire, consent form and the biographical questionnaire). The availability of complete research materials was used as the first criterion for selecting potential participants. There were 124 respondents with incomplete research materials, these were therefore discarded from the sample. A total of 189 respondents remained of whom 20 were non-black. As such the 20 non-black families were omitted. After having excluded these respondents, 169 respondents remained. The marital status as well as parent's gender were used as the third level of narrowing the sample in order to remain with only black South African grade I school children reared by single mothers. That is, out of 169 respondents, 71 participants were married and eight were single fathers. Consequently, a final sample of 90 subjects was selected in order to accomplish the aims of the study.

3.5.2 Characteristics of participants

As mentioned in the above section, the final sample size of 90 black South African grade I school children was selected on the basis that the children are raised in single mother headed families. Children raised in single families experience a specific pattern of parenting attitude and practices without interference with the parental attitudes and practices of the second parent. In particular, the single mother headed families are selected in this study because mothers are traditionally viewed as being responsible for child care giving in terms of physical, psychological and emotional care. Another important factor considered when selecting the sample was that children were supposed to be coming from black families. According to Hill and Bush (2001), ethnic group differences in terms of the expected parental goals may result in different parenting attitudes and practices. As such, the final sample included black South African grade I school children raised in single mother household families.

In a nutshell, the sample characteristics included the following:

- (a) Single parent families
- (b) Children were registered in selected public schools in areas around Pretoria Central
- (c) Children were registered for grade I
- (d) The research participants' families live in areas around Central Pretoria and reside in flats
- (e) Children were aged between six and seven years
- (f) Parents were literate in English

Participants in the final sample with 90 subjects differed on the basis of parental age, maternal educational level, gender of the child, preschool attendance and the amount of time which parents and children spend together (see Table 1). The majority (42.2%, n=38) of parents were aged between 28-34 while 24.4% (n=22)

were between 35-41, and 20% (n=18) aged between 20-27. Only few (11.1%, n=10) adult respondents were above 42 years of age. However, two respondents did not indicate their age. The maternal educational level ranged between no schooling at all and Doctors degree. The majority (72.2%; n=65) of mothers indicated possession of postmatric qualifications. The number of children within the family included one, two, three, four, five and more. From Table 1 it can be seen that only 38.9% (n=35) of children were the only child in the household as compared to 60% (n=54) of those households with two or more children. Gender of the child included male and female, more than half (54.4%; n=49) of children participants were female and only 44.4% (n=40) were males. However, one of the respondents did not indicate gender. The majority (63.3%; n=57) of children attended preschool before registering for their first year at the elementary school. The majority (52.2%; n=47) of mothers indicated that they spend less than 21 hours with their children per week. More than half (55.5%; n=50) of the mothers reported that they regularly/always take their children along when visiting their friends. It was also apparent that almost two-thirds (65.6%; n=59) of mothers always take their children along when visiting family relatives.

Table 1
Sample characteristics

Biographical variables	Original sample		Final sample	
	Total		Total	
	N= 313		N = 90	
	n	%	n	%
Maternal age				
20-27	43	13.7	18	20.0
28-34	128	40.9	38	42.2
35-41	96	30.7	22	24.4
42-48	34	10.9	7	7.8
49 and above	8	2.6	3	3.3
missing	4	1.3	2	2.2
Total	313	100	90	100
Maternal educational level				
None	2	0.6	1	1.1
Std 5 or less	4	1.3	1	1.1
Std 6 to 8	18	5.8	3	3.3
Std 9 to 10	95	30.4	20	22.2
Diploma (after Std 10)	80	25.6	29	32.2
Postgraduate diploma	47	15.0	13	14.4
Trained artisan	4	1.3	0	0
Baccalareus degree	32	10.2	15	16.7
Honours degree	15	4.8	2	2.2
Masters degree	14	4.5	5	5.6
Doctors degree	1	0.3	1	1.1
Missing	1	0.3	0	0
Total	313	100	90	100

Table 1(continued)

Sample characteristics

	n	%	n	%
Number of children in the family				
One	83	26.5	35	38.9
Two	120	38.3	25	27.8
Three	66	21.1	21	23.3
Four	25	8.0	4	4.4
Five and more	14	4.5	4	4.4
Missing	5	1.6	1	1.1
Total	131	100	90	100
Gender of the child				
Male	152	48.6	40	44.4
Female	156	49.8	49	54.4
Missing	5	1.6	1	1.1
Total	131	100	90	100
Preschool attendance				
Attended	230	73.5	57	63.3
Not attended	78	24.9	32	35.6
Missing	5	1.6	1	1.1
Total	313	100	90	100
Number of hours spent with the child				
1-5 hours	59	18.8	18	20.0
6-10 hours	51	16.3	11	12.2
11-15 hours	29	9.3	8	8.9
16-20 hours	44	14.1	10	11.1
21 and more hours	110	35.1	34	37.8
Missing	20	6.4	9	10
Total	313	100	90	100

Table 1(continued)

Sample characteristics

	n	%	n	%
Take the child along when visiting friends				
Never				
Never	5	1.6	1	1.1
Sometimes	131	41.9	36	40.0
Regular	74	23.6	22	24.4
Always	94	30.0	28	31.1
Missing	9	2.9	3	3.3
Total	313	100	90	100
Take the child along when visiting family				
Sometimes				
Sometimes	31	9.9	7	7.8
Regularly	68	21.7	23	25.6
Always	209	66.8	59	65.6
Missing	5	1.6	1	1.1
Total	313	100	90	100
Marital status				
Never married				
Never married	137	43.8	58	64.4
Divorced	19	6.1	7	7.8
Widow/widower	13	4.2	8	8.9
Separated	13	4.2	7	14.5
Married	124	39.6	6	0
Missing	7	2.2	4	4.4
Total	313	100	90	100

3.6 Data collection procedure

Permission to work with schools was granted by the Department of Education. Five primary schools situated in Pretoria Central were then approached and requested to participate in the present study. However only four schools agreed to partake. The researcher briefed the grade I school teachers about the study and thereafter requested them to participate.

The research materials were made available to the participating schools on the day of briefing the grade I school teachers. After briefing the grade I school teachers about the study and having received their agreement to participate, the researcher furnished them with two boxes of enveloped research material, one comprised parent directed material (including, parenting styles questionnaire, biographical questionnaire and the consent form) and the other contained the teacher-child rating scales. A total of 578 questionnaires for each measurement instrument (parenting styles, child adjustment and nuisance variables) and consent forms were made available to the participating schools. That is, 183 questionnaires were sent to school A, 75 to school B, 120 to school C and 200 to school D. The questionnaires are discussed in detail in the following section on measurement instruments.

Parent directed research material was distributed to each grade I school child by their class teachers. Teachers also explained to children that materials which they received were to reach parents at home. The reason for distributing questionnaires to all children within grade I classrooms was to avoid discriminating children against their classmates. This was important since the researcher is responsible for protecting his/her research subjects from physical, mental as well as emotional distress.

Parents were requested to return the consent forms within two weeks after receiving the research material. This was to avoid delaying the assessment of children's adjustment at school. After the consent forms were returned to the researcher, lists of children who were selected to participate were made

available to the grade 1 school teachers so that they could start assessing children's adjustment at school. All parent directed research material was brought back via the same channel, that is, children to school and to the researcher.

3.7 Description of Measurements

3.7.1 Parenting style measurement

The predictor variable in this study has been defined as the parenting styles, which constitute three levels of parenting, namely, the authoritative parenting style, authoritarian parenting style and permissive parenting style. These parenting styles were measured by a parenting questionnaire developed by Van Ede, Ferns and Shantall (2001) (see appendix B for the questionnaire). This measurement was chosen because of unavailability of other parenting measures developed for the South African context. The parenting questionnaire consisted of 81 items, measured on a five point likert scale. The responses included "never", "sometimes", "regularly", "often" and "always". This means that parents rated themselves on a five point scale describing the frequency of their parental practices and attitudes towards the child.

The reliability and validity of the parenting style measurement had not been established yet. As a result, the researcher assessed the reliability and validity of the questionnaire by determining the Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient and performing factor analysis. Cronbach's alpha is a reliability estimate that measures the internal consistency of the measurement. It indicates the degree to which the items in a measurement measure the same attribute. The Cronbach's alpha coefficient ranges between 0 and 1.0 with a level of 0.8 as reasonably reliable (Maxim, 1999). "A high internal consistency implies a high degree of generalizability across the items within the test as well as over other tests composed of similar items" (Huysamen, 1994, p. 121). The validity of the questionnaire was gauged through performing a factor analysis on the responses (see 4.2.1.1). Factor analysis is a statistical method that has the

primary purpose of defining the underlying structures of the interrelationships among a large number of variables. It attempts to achieve its purpose by defining a set of common underlying dimensions known as factors (Hair, Anderson, Tatham & Black, 1998). According to Kerlinger (1986), factor analysis displays tests or measures which belong together and those that virtually measure the same thing. In addition, it also reflects the extent to which tests measure the same factor and the extent to which they intercorrelate. It assists the researcher in locating and identifying the fundamental properties underlying tests and measures.

3.7.2 *Biographical questionnaire*

A brief biographical questionnaire developed by Van Ede, Ferns and Shantall (2001) was included with the parenting questionnaire. The biographical questionnaire included items addressing a whole range of demographic factors such as the parents' age, language, marital status, family child care assistance, type of dwelling, and ethnic group (see appendix D for the items). However, for the purpose of the study only items addressing maternal educational level, household composition, parents' age and the gender of the child were selected (see 3.5.2 for a discussion of the obtained sample characteristics). These variables were identified in the literature as the most prominent factors affecting the relationship between parenting styles and child adjustment (Andrews & Ben-Arieh, 1999; Dunn et al., 1998; Shucksmith et al., 1995; Sheeban et al., 1991; Ricard et al., 1995; Cherian, 1992; Berk, 2000; Leve, 1980; Lidell, 1994). The categories used in the questionnaire for parental education ranged from "no school at all" to "doctoral degree". The number of children in each household were differentiated from one to five and more, and another important variable considered was gender of the child. These biographical factors served as the secondary predictor variables in the current study. Their interactions with the criterion variable as well as the predictor variable were analysed using a multiple regression analysis (see 4. 5).

3.7.3 *Child adjustment measurement*

The criterion variable in this study was the adjustment of children at school, measured on an interval level. As indicated in chapter 2, the concept of adjustment is broad and includes several overlapping components such as behavioural, emotional and social adjustment. Previous literature (Boon, 1994; Baumrind, 1967) focussed on the behavioural and psychosocial adjustment of children. Therefore, in the current study more attention was paid on the socio-emotional adjustment of children as rated by their class teachers. McDermott (1996) asserts that teachers are appropriate informants regarding the children's behaviour at school since they spend most of their time with them in classrooms as well as in the playground. Consequently, a Teacher-child Rating (T-CRS) scale recommended by Hightower, Work, Cohen, Lotyczewski, Spinell, Guare and Rohrbeck (1986) as a potentially useful instrument for school personnel measuring children's socio-emotional status was used. It consisted of 38 items using a likert scale (see appendix C).

The original T-CRS scale developed by Hightower et al. (1986) comprised six subscales: acting out, shy-anxious, task orientation, learning, frustration tolerance and adaptive assertiveness. Magnus, Cowen, Wyman, Fagen and Work (1999) added one more scale, named peer sociability, by splitting the items from the frustration tolerance subscale into frustration tolerance and a peer sociability subscale. This resulted in seven subscales. The subscales, acting out, shy-anxious and learning difficulties assessed the child's behavioural problems in the classroom (Hightower et al., 1986). The other four subscales, frustration tolerance, peer sociability, assertive social skills and task orientation, assess the child's competencies shown by high scores. The reliability of this measure was established by Hightower et al. (1986) using a mixed sample of black and white children in urban and suburban areas. These authors reported a Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient ranging from 0.85 to 0.95 with a median of 0.91. It also demonstrated a 20 week test-retest reliability coefficient ranging from 0.61 to 0.91 with a median of 0.83. The intercorrelation among the seven T-CRS scales for one sample ranged from 0.2 to 0.85, with a median of 0.58. A good

overlap between learning problems and task orientation, as well as a moderately high correlation among acting out, frustration tolerance, peer sociability and task orientation were established in the measurement. The T-CRS discriminates between the groups in terms of their differences, for example in adjustment, and relates convergently to children's competency, anxiety and self-control (Magnus et al., 1999; Hightower et al., 1986).

In addition to the measurement instruments, a consent informed form was also included. The informed consent form entailed a brief description of the study as well as a formal request for participation. That is, parents were requested to provide their names, their grade I school children's names and attach their signature on the form as an indication of interest in participating in the study.

3.8 Data analysis

Data was processed using the statistical package for social sciences (SPSS). The following techniques were performed in an attempt to answer the research question asked in the previous sections and to prove the hypothesis that there is a relationship between the three parenting styles and children's adjustment at school.

3.8.1 Analysis of variance (ANOVA) and the post hoc Scheffé

Analysis of variance (ANOVA) is used when the research hypothesis incorporates two or more population means and it tests differences among the respective sample means (Williams, 1992). It will be used to test the null hypothesis which states that there is no significant difference amongst the three parenting groups in terms of children's level of adjustment (McBurney, 1994). ANOVA examines the significant difference among the three means of the population simultaneously (Kathori, 1985). In the current study this method will compare the levels of children's adjustment in relation to the various parenting styles in order to establish their variance and also estimate the variance within

groups for “analytic purposes” (Kathori, 1985, p. 339). A one-way analysis of variance is an appropriate method for this study as it can determine whether the means are statistically equivalent or not. It indicates how the mean scores of the adjustment levels vary in the various parenting style groups. It makes an investigation of the differences amongst various groups and within the groups possible, thus determining the between-group variance and the within-group variance (Kathori, 1985). The between-group variance is determined by comparing the group means whereas the within-group variance is checked by comparing the variability among individual scores within the groups. According to Williams (1992, p. 94):

The central point in the analysis of variance is that if there are no differences among the groups, then the between-groups variance and the within-group variance will be approximately equal. In other words, the more the between-groups variance exceeds the within-groups variance, the greater is the probability that the groups represent different populations.

The analysis of variance only reflects the significant variation among the three groups. It does not assess the group differences, for example group 1 being different to group 2 and group 3, and group 2 being different to group 3. To establish the extent of the differences among these groups other statistical procedures should be considered. Often, such methods are called “follow-up” or post hoc tests (Williams, 1992, p.96). Post hoc tests are statistical methods which indicate which group or groups have different means from other groups. The post hoc Scheffé is used when one wishes to make implicitly all possible pairwise and otherwise comparisons. Since the analysis of variance only compares the means of groups, the post hoc Scheffé procedure was used to identify the groups in which the actual difference exists (see 4.4).

3.8.2 Regression analysis

Guy, Edgley, Arafat and Allen (1987) define regression analysis as the statistical procedure through which the relationship between the criterion variable and the predictor variable can be analysed. According to Grimm (1993) regression analysis is a set of statistical procedures employed when the researcher uses information about the predictor variable to predict the value of the criterion variable. Guy et al. (1987) state that the regression analysis is concerned with estimating the criterion variable from the predictor variable. It is mostly appropriate in instances whereby the predictor variable is not manipulated by the researcher in order to observe its effect on the criterion variable (Grimm, 1993).

3.8.2.1 Multiple regression analysis

A multiple regression analysis will be used to analyse the relationship between the predictor variables, in this case the parenting styles, the secondary predictor variables (or third variables) and the criterion variable. This method of analysis is applicable in cases where the criterion variable is influenced by more than one predictor variable. It is a data analytic technique used to analyse the relationship between a single criterion variable and several predictor variables (Hair et al., 1998). Multiple regression analysis is intended to examine the extent to which the parenting styles as well as the secondary predictor variables are related to child adjustment at school (Nunnally, 1978).

The multiple regression analysis method shows the unique contribution of each variable in the respective variable. For instance, all the secondary predictor variables as well as the predictor variable are entered in the analysis process in order to observe their unique contribution into their relationship with each other, as well as with child adjustment. This implies that in addition to the collective prediction of child adjustment, consideration is also made on predictor variable and secondary predictor variables for their individual contribution to the variate and prediction. Therefore, each factor in both the parenting styles and the secondary predictor variables is entered in the analysis and weighted through

the regression analysis procedure to ensure maximal prediction of child adjustment (Hair et al., 1998). This procedure permits comparisons amongst all variables involved in predicting child adjustment in order to ascertain the predictive power of each variate. In addition, the regression analysis provides a means to objectively assess the magnitude and direction of each predictive variable's relationship with the criterion variable (Hair et al., 1998).

3.9 Ethical considerations

It is very important for the researcher to consider the ethics involved in a study. That is, participants have rights and need to be protected from harm while taking part in a study. To maintain confidentiality about the participants' shared information, only the researcher had access to the completed questionnaires. Anonymity is retained by not mentioning the names of participants in the research findings. Information obtained for each learner is filled in under his/her name to avoid complications. The researcher requested permission from the Department of Education and from the school authorities. All participants were briefed about the study and those interested in participating were asked to fill in the informed consent forms. The informed consent for the children was given by the parents. The participants were also made aware of their right to withdraw from the study.

3.10 Conclusion

Research methodology is about the research process and methods applicable for a study. In principle, it provides some useful procedures and guidelines which the researcher can follow in order to answer the research question. This chapter therefore includes a description of the entire research process as well as methods applied in the current study. Issues pertaining to sampling methods, data collection, data analysis and validation of measurement instruments were addressed in this chapter.

CHAPTER 4

PRESENTATION OF RESULTS

4.1 Introduction

As pointed out in chapter 1, the primary aim of the current study was to examine whether the various parenting styles experienced by young children influence the adjustment of black South African grade 1 school children. A secondary aim was to determine whether the various parenting styles differed in terms of the extent to which they influence the child's adjustment level. Furthermore, the literature identified some nuisance variables which have been found to affect the relationship between parenting styles and children's adjustment (Kaufmann et al., 2000; Berk, 2000; Leve, 1980; Radziszewska et al., 1996; Baumrind, 1989). Therefore, it was also important to examine the relationship between the nuisance variables and the main variables (parenting styles and child adjustment). More specifically, the study focussed on the relationship between parenting styles and the socio-emotional adjustment of grade 1 school children. It is anticipated that the various parenting styles will yield a better understanding of children's adaptive behaviours at school.

The hypothesis stated for the current study assumes that there is a relationship between the various parenting styles and the adjustment of black South African grade 1 school children. Chapter 4 provides more detail about the analytic procedures followed and furthermore, presents the results obtained from the statistical analyses.

4.2 Operationalisation and testing of the main predictor variable and the criterion variable

4.2.1 The predictor variable

The first stage of statistical analysis relates to operationalisation of the predictor variable, namely parenting styles. This activity revolves around determining the validity and the reliability of the parenting style questionnaire, thus attempting to identify the major factors which provide the best match between the theoretical definition and statistical descriptions (Willers, 1996).

4.2.1.1 Factor analysis

One of the objectives of the current study was to find out whether comparable results with those obtained in other countries on parenting styles and children's adjustment at school will be attained (see 1.3). As has been pointed out parenting attitudes are categorised into a number of parenting styles. The original sample of 313 was used to perform factor analysis for the parenting style questionnaire. As such, an attempt was made to examine the existence of the various parenting styles in a sample of South African families. In addition, the parental attitudes were assessed through the principal component analysis. Principle component analysis simplifies data by showing the primary components and also indicates which variables tend to cluster together (Willers, 1996).

Two criteria were applied in order to determine the number of factors extracted namely, the eigenvalue equal to or greater than 1 and the scree plot graph. The scree plot graph shows exactly which factors constitute higher eigenvalues, thus positive values greater than 1. Field (2000) points out that when considering the scree plot graph to decide on which factors to retain, the cut-off point for selecting such factors is at the point of inflexion of the curve. In this regard the point of inflexion was at 3, which implies that only three factors were retained for

the current sample data. The scree plot graph reflecting the number of important factors retained is presented in Figure 2.

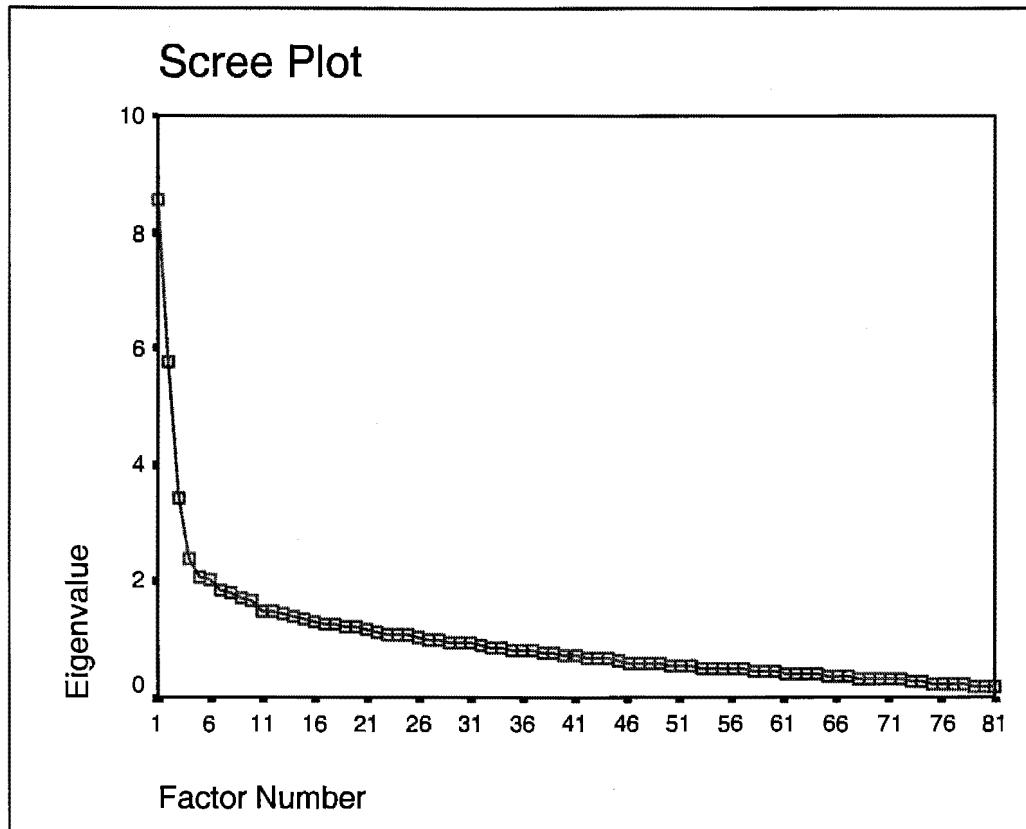


Figure 2 Scree plot graph presenting the retained factors from the parenting style questionnaire

An oblique rotation method called promax was applied. The oblique rotation produced correlations between the factors which also permit the second order factors to emerge from the analysis. Gregory (1996) describes second order factors as factors which are equally defined by each of the retained primary factors. The promax method produced the pattern matrix which included the factor loadings measuring the unique relationships between the primary factors and the second order factors (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996). As a rule of thumb, variables with loadings of 0.32 and above are considered for interpretation. However, due to the homogeneity of scores from the sample data used in the

current study, the lower loadings were also considered for interpretation. Tabachnick and Fidell (1996) are convinced that the homogeneity of scores has a certain impact on the size of the factor loadings, hence producing the low factor loadings. Consequently, variables with factor loadings of 0.2 and above were considered for interpretation.

The structure of the variables was assessed and subsets of representative variables selected. As a result of the correlation between the factors, variables were classified in specific factors depending on the position of the higher factor loading. However, some of the variables were discarded because they had lower loadings less than 0.2 in all three retained factors.

Items which loaded high on authoritarian parenting style were the following 80, 35, 77, 65, 60, 31, 26, 64, 40, 21, 2, 16, 66, 13, 45, 74, 68, 79, 41, 50 and 9. Items 62, 58, 19, 68, 1, 4, 24, 29 and 61 were revised and their scales reversed from “always” to “never”. These adjusted items also loaded high on authoritarian parenting style. The following three items 80, 60 and 21 measured the value for authority in parent’s attitudes towards the child. Items 2, 16, 35, 77, 31, 64, 58, 45, 74, 79, 41, 4 and 50 measured the level of parental control and strictness as well as rigid rules applied towards the child. Items 65, 26, 40, 66, 13, 9, measured the punitive behaviours as well as withdrawal of love from the child exhibited by the parents. Item 62 measured the consistency of applied rules towards the child and item 19 measured lack of warmth towards the child. Items 68 and 1 asked about lack of parental guidance in terms of responsibility and becoming independent. Item 29 and 61 measured lack of open communication with the child. In summary, items representing the authoritarian parenting style, measured parental attitudes such as firm control, application of rigid rules to the child, lack of warmth, not accepting the child, parental value for authority, punitive behaviours, use of power, discouraging the child’s creativity and lack of parental communication with the child.

Some of the items tapped on the measurement of permissive parenting style. This included the following items, 22, 18, 69, 3, 23, 47, 81, 48, 7, 33, 14, 32, 57,

8, 11, 27, 56, 28, 55, 42, 12, 43, 38, 5, 46, and 52. Items 22, 18, 3, 23, 33, 47 and 12 asked questions relating to parent's unresponsiveness to the child's needs and/or lack of parent interest in the child's life. Items 69, 14, 32, 11, 27 and 56 asked questions about parents' negligence and lack of control. Items 81 and 48 asked questions relating to parents discouraging creativity and autonomy in the child. Items 7, 5 and 48 asked questions on the methods of punishment received by the child. Items 8, 38 and 34 asked questions relating to the applicability of inconsistent rules applied to the child. Item 55 asked a question about parents' provision for security to the child. In short, items which loaded high on the permissive parenting style measured the existence of parental neglectful behaviours, unresponsiveness, uninvolved and lack of interest in the child's life, inconsistency of rules as well as lack of control.

The last cluster of items represented the authoritative parenting style and the items included were as follows, 67, 75, 53, 10, 25, 73, 70, 72, 54, 71, 63, 17, 44, 20, 78, 37, 15, 6, 76, 30, 49, 51 and 39. Items 67, 25, 20, 37 and 39 asked questions about the parent's responsiveness to the child or indication of being interested and involved in the child's life. Items 75, 53 and 6 asked questions about parents providing guidance to the child. Items 10, 70, 44 and 76 asked about parents accepting the child, showing warmth and expressing love to the child. Items 73, 63 and 17 asked about open communication between the parent and the child. Items 54, 71, 78 and 15 asked about parent listening and being attentive to the child. Items 49 and 51 asked a question on parental encouragement for maturity. Briefly, these items measured parental attitudes and/or practices such as child acceptance, being warm and caring towards the child, teaching the child responsibility and encouraging independence, listening to the child, reasoning with the child and open communication between the parent and the child.

As mentioned earlier, some of the items were revised and adjusted by reversing them from "always" to "never", such items included item 51 (which loaded high on the authoritative parenting style) 69, 81, 48, 7, 55, 42, 5, 46 and 52 which loaded high on the permissive parenting style. Items were reversed based on the

theoretical assumptions referring to the three parenting styles. Furthermore, there were two items (61 and 36) that were thrown out because they possessed extremely low scores in all factors (see Table 2).

Table 2

Pattern matrix of the principal component analysis performed using the original sample

Item	Factor		
	1	2	3
80. Insist that your child should be obedient to you	0.63	-0.107	
35. Expect your child to totally adhere to a set of standard behaviours	0.628	-0.1	
77. Expect your child to understand that rules are to be strictly obeyed	0.592		
65. Show your displeasure with the bad behaviour	0.557		
60. Expect your child to show respect for your authority as a parent by obeying you	0.511		0.12
31. Discipline your child in order to help him/her gain control over his/her inherent ill-nature	0.495	0.271	
26. Show anger to your child when she/he misbehaves	0.487	0.153	-0.2
64. Insist that you expect good behaviour from your child	0.476		0.13
40. Strong measures of discipline to secure the absolute obedience of your child	0.474	0.266	
21. Expect your child to submit to your authority as his/her parent	0.472		
50. Force the child to obey	0.467		
16. Enforce rules for behaviour no matter what the circumstances	0.454		
62. Expect your child to obey certain standards of behaviour	0.422		0.12

Table 2 (continued)

Pattern matrix of the principal component analysis performed using the original sample

Item	Factor		
	1	2	3
66. If your child willfully disobeys your instructions, how often do you call him/her to task	0.422		0.14
58. You feel that you expect your child to comply with the family routine	0.399	-0.104	
13. Smack your child when she/he did wrong	0.396	0.277	-0.2
45. If your child objects to a restriction, how often do you insist that he/she should adhere to it	0.384		0.13
74. Expect your child to do what you know he/she is able to do	0.353	-0.185	0.21
19. Make an alternative suggestion to elicit cooperative behaviour from your child	0.339		0.2
68. If your child is untidy, how often do you expect him/her to help you to tidy up	0.33		0.19
1. Draw attention to something else	0.326	0.13	
59. Punish your child immediately after he/she has done something wrong	0.317	0.166	
79. Impose definite limits on what your child is allowed to do	0.309		0.15
41. If your child can sit still for a length of time, how often do you expect him/her to do so	0.306		0.11
27. Allow the child to do whatever she/he wants	-0.28	0.243	0.19
29. Reason with your child about what you expect him/her to do	0.28		0.27

Table 2 (continued)

Pattern matrix of the principal component analysis performed using the original sample

Item	Factor		
	1	2	3
50. Force your child to do something even if she/he does not want to do it	0.274	0.105	-0.1
9. Threaten the child with punishment	0.266		
24. Suggests a safe alternative to your child when she/he insists on engaging in a potential harmful situation	0.246	-0.146	0.23
61. If your child expects something unrealistic, how often do you offer a more practical suggestion	0.213		0.18
36. Allow your child to take something from the shelves while you are shopping in a supermarket	-0.15		
22. Difficulty in explaining the social rules your child is expected to obey in his/her friend's home		0.544	
18. First responsibility is towards yourself and the needs of your child must wait	-0.13	0.528	
69. Physically rough with your child to make him/her understand that he/she understands that he/she must obey you	0.253	0.514	-0.2
3. Not bothered when the child is in difficulties		0.506	0.12
23. Feel unresponsive when your child expresses some or other needs		0.499	0.15
47. When your child seeks your attention, how often do you send him/her away		0.495	-0.1

Table 2 (continued)

Pattern matrix of the principal component analysis performed using the original sample

Item	Factor		
	1	2	3
74. Expect things from your child which he/she is unable to do		0.494	
48. When your child tries to do something to please you, how often do you make him/her feel that it is still not good enough	0.227	0.489	
7. Ignore my child when she/he seeks forgiveness		0.487	
33. Choose between something that belongs to your child, how often do you choose to pursue what is important to you	0.248	0.474	-0.1
14. Set ultimatums to your child regarding his/her behaviour without explaining why you do it	0.129	0.467	
32. Ignore your child misbehaving	-0.24	0.456	
8. Allow your child to do something you previously expected him/her not to do		0.445	0.1
57. Feel that you really couldn't be bothered about what your child wants	0.101	0.443	-0.2
11. Allow your child to misbehave when she/he feels like it	-0.3	0.417	0.17
27. Allow your child to do whatever he/she wants to do without insisting on adherence to any codes of conduct	-0.22	0.415	0.19
28. Forget something that your child wanted you to remember		0.382	

Table 2 (continued)

Pattern matrix of the principal component analysis performed using the original sample

Item	Factor		
	1	2	3
56. When your child is behaving in an unacceptable manner, how often do you feel reluctant to control his/her behaviour	0.108	0.38	0.18
55. Allow an older child to be nasty to your child		0.37	
42. If your child refuses to obey you, how often do you withdraw yourself from him/her to show your displeasure	0.109	0.367	
12. Not experience the inclination to spend time with your child		0.365	
43. When your child is upset about something, how often do you feel unmoved by it	0.153	0.321	
38. When your child insists on something how often do you give in and let him/her have it	-0.1	0.309	0.29
46. Hide your anger when your child does something that you do not like	-0.22	0.308	0.15
5. Punish the child physically	0.269	0.306	-0.1
34. Change your expectations regarding acceptable behaviours on the part of your child	0.241	0.299	
52. Wish rather to not be a parent	0.127	0.261	-0.2
67. If you plan to take your child on an outing, how often do you ask him/her what it is that he/she would like to do		0.63	
75. Reward your child for good behaviour	0.103	0.55	
10. Hug your child		0.54	

Table 2 (continued)

Pattern matrix of the principal component analysis performed using the original sample

Item	Factor		
	1	2	3
53. Reward your child immediately after he/she has shown good behaviours		0.226	0.54
25. Spend time with your child when he/she wants it so			0.52
73. Discuss why you want him/her to do something	0.275		0.49
70. Show appreciation of your child by saying something loving to him/her			0.48
54. When you have a family discussion and your child offers an opinion, how often do you consider it			0.45
72. Explain to your child why you expect certain behaviours from him/her	0.258		0.43
71. Have conversation with your child			0.42
17. Encourage your child to say whatever he/she pleases	-0.13	0.292	0.41
63. Discuss what you expect from your child in order to make your expectations clear to him/her	0.342	-0.132	0.39
44. If your child has done something good, how often do you show him/her that you are pleased with him/her	0.176	-0.145	0.38
20. Initiate activities with your child		0.14	0.37
78. When you are discussing something with family members, how often do you invite your child to participate in the discussion			0.35

Table 2 (continued)

Pattern matrix of the principal component analysis performed using the original sample

Item	Factor		
	1	2	3
6. Allow the child to choose what to wear	-0.24		0.34
15. Listen to what your child wants to tell you			0.34
37. Ask your child what he/she is busy doing	0.154	-0.103	0.33
76. Make a fuss of your child's birthday		0.233	0.33
49. When your child comes up with good suggestions, how often do you support his/her views	0.146		0.31
30. Take note of how well your child did something	0.234		0.31
51. You do everything for your child and do not expect him/her to do anything by him/herself	-0.14	0.221	0.27
39. When you pick up your child from a party, how often do you inquire what your child did at the party	0.172	-0.164	0.26

Extraction Methods: Principal component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Promax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 9 iterations

4.2.1.2 Reliability

The statistical activity applied in this regard revolves around determining the internal consistency of the parenting styles questionnaire. Using the SPSS programme, Cronbach's alpha internal consistency coefficient was computed yielding an alpha coefficient of 0.89.

The reliability was also established for the three parenting styles subscales, namely, the authoritarian parenting style, permissive parenting style and the authoritative parenting style. The authoritarian parenting subscale included 21 items with an alpha coefficient of 0.83. The permissive parenting subscale had 27 items and produced an alpha of 0.81. The last subscale, authoritative parenting subscale included 23 items yielding an alpha coefficient of 0.81. Generally, the established reliability for the parenting style measurement equals to an alpha coefficient of 0.89. Similarly, the parenting style subscales also revolved around an alpha coefficient of 0.8.

The attained reliability coefficients for the parenting style measurement utilised in the current study did not differ much from the established reliability for other parenting styles measurements used in the previous studies. Steinberg, Elmen and Mount (1989) in their study using the Report of Parent Behaviour Inventory (CRPBI) as the parenting styles measurement instrument reported an alpha coefficient of 0.8. In another study conducted by Dornbusch et al. (1987) with a sample of adolescents using the three parenting style indices measurement, the parenting style indices included the authoritarian, authoritative and permissive parenting styles. The reported reliability coefficient for these parenting indices ranged between 0.60 and 0.70.

4.2.2 The criterion variable

Teacher-Child Adjustment Rating Scale (T-CRS)

As mentioned in section 3.7.3, the T-CRS was used to assess the child adjustment at school. The statistical activities applied for establishing the reliability and validity of the scale were performed. These included a factor analysis as well as the calculation of Chronbach's alpha which aimed at determining the internal consistency of the Teacher-Child Adjustment Scale items. The factor analysis was primarily aimed at identifying the major factor structures with the best match between theoretical definition and statistical description. As discussed in chapter 2, the concept of adjustment is quite broad and constitutes multidimensional aspects, namely the social, emotional and psychological adjustment. However, for the purpose of the current study only the socio-emotional adjustment of children was assessed using the T-CRS.

Closer inspection on the T-CRS conformed with previous studies which reported six subscales produced from the sample data (Hightower et al., 1986; Magnus et al., 1999). The scree plot graph and the eigenvalue of greater than one indicated that items in the Teacher-Child Rating Scale represent six factors. These results also support the previous findings which contended that the socio-emotional adjustment of children is multifaceted (Smith, 1990; Hightower et al., 1986; Magnus et al., 1999).

A principal component analysis was performed to simplify data and show the main factors as well as clusters of items representing the retained factors. The scree plot graph indicated that items loaded high on only six factors (see Figure 3). In addition, the pattern matrix indicated item clusters representing the retained factors (see Table 3). The first cluster of items included the following items, 34, 29, 24, 28, 33, 25, 23, 18, 22, 38, 27 and 20 loading high on the first dimension. The second cluster involved the following items, 15, 7, 16, 1, 13, 4, 10, 19, 9, 36, 6 and 35. The latter mentioned items loaded high on factor 2. Items 2, 5, 8, 11, 17, 3, 14 and 12 formed the third cluster representing factor 3. The

fourth cluster represented factor 4 and included the following items 26, 32, 31, 21 and 30. Only two items (11 and 17) loaded high on factor 5. Factor 6 was represented by three items (37, 36 and 35).

The six factors extracted from the factor analysis measured the following dimensions: acting out, shy/anxious, task orientation, learning, frustration tolerance and adaptive assertiveness. As a result of factorial complexity involved, factors were overlapping to an extent that almost all of them included items measuring different constructs. For instance, items representing factor 6 also measured high on the construct in factor 1 and factor 4. It was evident that most of the items loaded high on more than one factor. Due to the complexities involved in the sample data, items were therefore adjusted based on theory about adjustment (Smith, 1990; Hightower et al., 1986; Magnus et al., 1999). That is, items were adjusted in accordance with the definition and aspects of adjustment (mentioned in chapter 2) as well as the symptoms of maladjustment behaviour (e.g. poor social adjustment and acting out). This means that, items measuring the same construct were grouped together to form one cluster.

For instance, items which loaded high on the first dimension reflected a sense of task orientation as well as assertive social skills. The items were therefore partitioned into two subsets, that is, the task oriented subset and the assertive social skills subset. The task oriented subset included items 29, 34, 18, 23, 25, 22, 38 and 12. In addition, the assertive social skills subset was also reflected by items clustered in factor 5. Therefore, items in factor 5 and factor 1 measuring assertive social skills were grouped together to form one subset. Consequently, items measuring assertive social skills included 28, 33, 24, 36, 35 and 19. Furthermore, items 6, 3, 9, 15 and 12 measured learning problems. Items 16, 13, 7, 1, 4, and 10 measured acting out. Shyness or anxiety was represented by six items (2, 5, 14, 8, 11, 17) and frustration tolerance was measured by six items namely items 26, 31, 32, 21, 30 and 37.

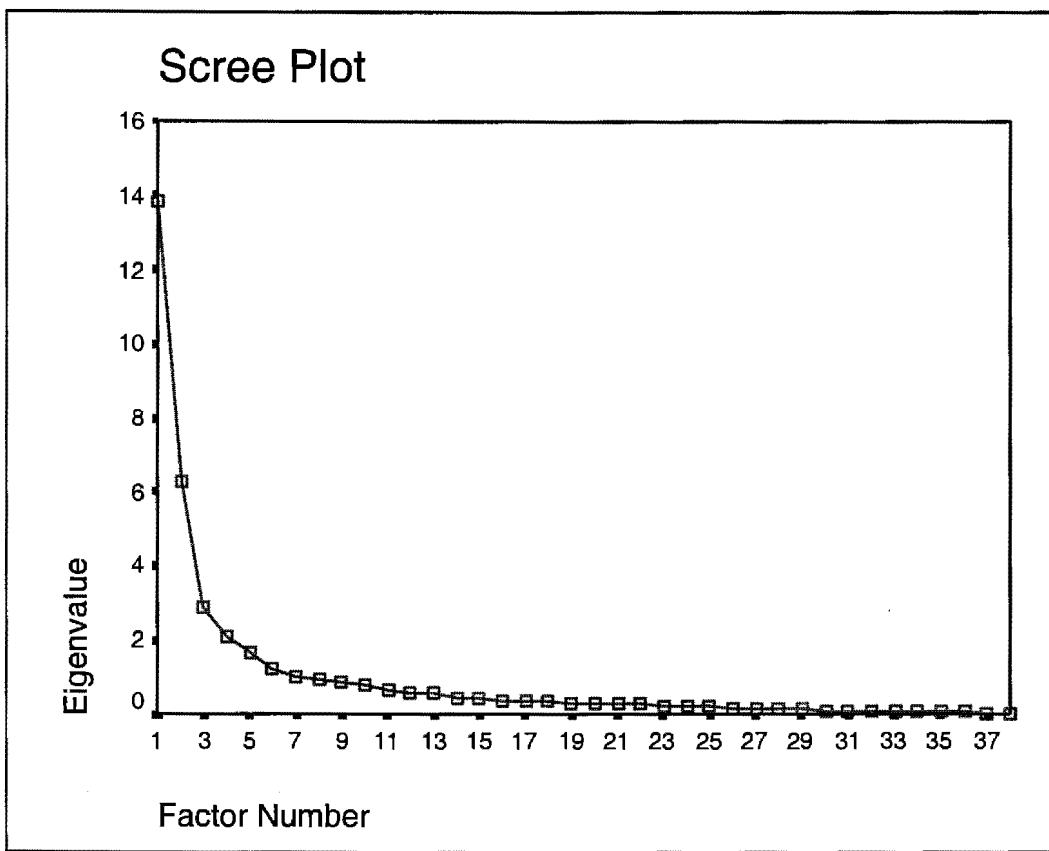


Figure 3 *The scree plot graph derived from child adjustment data*

Table 3

Pattern Matrix of the principal component analysis performed on the Teacher-child Adjustment Rating Scale

Items	Factors					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
33. Expresses ideas willingly	0.987	0.173	-0.2		0.28	
34. Shows self initiative	0.943		-0.2		0.15	
28. Participates in class	0.937		-0.19		0.21	
24. Shows being comfortable as leader	0.884	0.275		0.23		
18. Shows interest in learning academic subjects	0.882					
29. Shows interest in school work	0.868	-0.13				
25. Shows working well without adult support	0.782				-0.2	
23. Carries out requests responsibly	0.758	-0.12	0.104	-0.1		
22. Seems to be well organised	0.73		0.154		-0.3	
38. Functions well in unstructured situation	0.714	-0.25		0.13		-0.2
27. Shows functioning well even with distractions	0.599	-0.34			-0.2	-0.3
20. Shows poor work habits	-0.516	0.36		0.22	0.27	
30. Copes well with failure	0.468	-0.16		0.46		-0.3
3. Underachieves in class	-0.422	0.313	0.242	0.19	0.25	-0.1
13. Becomes overly aggressive to peers at school	0.257	1.038	0.13	-0.1	-0.2	

Table 3 (continued)

Pattern Matrix of the principal component analysis performed on the Teacher-child Adjustment Rating Scale

Items	Factors					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
16. Becomes defiant, obstinate and stubborn	0.251	0.971	0.111	-0.1		-0.1
7. Disturbs others while they are working	-0.215	0.945	-0.24	-0.1	-0.2	
1. Disruptive in class	-0.316	0.917	-0.2		-0.3	
10. Seeks attention from others	0.122	0.814	-0.11	-0.3		-0.1
4. Shows fidgety and difficulty in sitting still	-0.27	0.755				
19. Defends his/her own views under group pressure	0.548	0.684	0.101			0.27
9. Shows lack of concentration and limited attention	-0.356	0.604			0.2	
15. Shows poor motivation to achieve	-0.348	0.485	0.171	0.16	0.2	-0.2
12. Shows difficulty following directions	-0.261	0.44	0.152	0.26	0.27	-0.1
2. Withdrawn at school	-0.313		0.855			0.14
5. Shy in class	-0.142	-0.25	0.819		0.17	0.26
14. Refuses to express feelings in class	-0.152	0.314	0.565			-0.3
26. Shows balanced and stable mood		-0.21		0.74	-0.3	0.14
31. Shows sense of humour	0.321		-0.29	0.67	0.29	0.1
32. Generally relaxed		-0.17	-0.22	0.65	-0.3	0.27

Table 3 (continued)

Pattern Matrix of the principal component analysis performed on the Teacher-child Adjustment Rating Scale

Items	Factors					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
21. Accepts things not going his/her own way		-0.3	0.287	0.6	-0.2	
11. Becomes nervous, frightened and tense in class	0.242	-0.27	0.347	-0.2	0.95	0.14
Completes his/her work	0.273	0.23	0.153		-0.8	
8. Anxious or worried in class	0.233		0.52	-0.2	0.6	
17. Seems to be unhappy, depressed and sad		0.11	0.254	-0.1	0.55	0.11
37. Shows being liked by classmates	-0.227	-0.3	0.136		0.16	0.96
36. Child questions rules that are unfair/unclear	0.397	0.445				0.51
35. Faces the pressures of competition	0.289	0.385	0.314	0.13	-0.1	0.49

Extraction method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Promax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 10 iteration

4.2.2.1 Reliability

Cronbach's alpha internal coefficient was performed on the data elicited by the T-CRS. Globally, the T-CRS produced an alpha coefficient of 0.72. It was apparent that the reliability coefficient of the six adjustment subscales ranged from 0.7 to 0.93. The task oriented subscale consisted of 8 items with an alpha coefficient of 0.85. The subscale, assertive skills included 6 items and produced an alpha coefficient of 0.87. Learning problems subscale consisted of 5 items with an alpha coefficient of 0.95. The acting out subscale consisted of six items with an alpha coefficient of 0.93. The shyness/anxious subscale included 6 items and produced an alpha coefficient of 0.84. The last adjustment subscale (frustration tolerance) consisted of 6 subscales with an alpha coefficient of 0.75.

The established reliability for the T-CRS did not differ much with that established in the previous studies using different samples. For instance, Magnus et al., (1999) in their study using a mixed sample of black and white children registered for grade 2 to 6 found that the T-CRS alphas ranged from 0.85- 0.92. However, the alpha coefficient for the whole T-CRS scale was not clear. Paterson and Sanson (1999) used the Teacher rated social skills and behaviour problems scale (SSRS) to assess children's social skills and behaviour problems at school. These authors reported that the internal consistency of the SSRS ranged between 0.78 to 0.95. It can therefore be concluded that the established reliability of the T-CRS using a sample of black South African grade I school children did not differ much from other findings using different samples. It is also apparent that the internal consistency of the T-CRS was more or less the same as other measurements focussing on other areas of child adjustment.

4.3 Classification of parents into parenting style groups

Parenting style groups were determined from the parents' ratings on their own parenting practices and attitude towards their grade 1 school children. The z-scores were derived and used for grouping the parents into three parenting styles suggested by Baumrind (1967). The z-scores show the person's relative status in the distribution of scores. Put in other words, they indicate how far a score falls above or below the mean in terms of the standard deviation. The z-scores were therefore used to classify the parents into the three parenting styles. A high z-score determined the parents' classification into the parenting style. The high group on each parenting style was defined as all parents with scores falling above the mean. However, some of the parents had high scores in more than one parenting style. Consequently, a difference greater than 0.01 between the z-scores was used as a classification criterion. Parents were therefore placed in the parenting style for which they had the higher z-score. In cases where there were no clear differences between the two z-scores, the respondent parents were excluded from the sample. Similarly, parents which did not fall in any of the parenting styles were also excluded from the sample.

From the final sample with 90 participants, 18 were excluded from the sample because they did not fit in either of the parenting style groups or they had loaded high in more than one parenting style group. According to Slicker (1996), maximizing the differences between the parenting groups increases the internal validity of the study. As such, the final sample was narrowed down to a sample size of 72 subjects. The participants in the narrowed down sample were categorised in the various parenting style groups. There were 27 participants representing the authoritarian parenting style, 19 participants representing the permissive parenting style and 26 participants representing the authoritative parenting style.

4.4 Results of the analysis of variance

A one way ANOVA test was considered in order to test the hypothesis that the three parenting styles can be related to the adjustment of young children. The ANOVA test was applied using the narrowed down sample with 72 subjects (see Table 4). Results obtained from this ANOVA analysis indicated a statistical significant difference amongst the parenting styles in relation to the adjustment of black South African young children at school ($F=5.816$, $p<0.05$). See Table 4.

Table 4

The results of an ANOVA analysis comparing the measures of parenting styles with child adjustment at school

Criterion	Parenting styles	N	Means	Std. Deviation	F	Sig.
1st Criterion	Authoritarian	27	2.3958	0.2856	5.82	0
	Permissive	19	2.7245	0.3841		
	Authoritative	26	2.5125	0.3101		
Total		72	2.5247	0.3438		

In addition, the Scheffé test indicated that the authoritarian parenting style differed with the permissive parenting style to some extent. However, the reflected differences between the two styles were statistically insignificant ($p>0.05$).

4.5 Results of the multiple regression analysis

The primary aim of the current study was to establish the existence of the relationship between parenting styles and child socio-emotional adjustment, including also the secondary predictor variables (parent educational level, gender of the child, preschool attendance and age of the mother).

Prior to performing the multiple regression analysis, the data was screened in order to control for the effects of outliers in the data. A sample size of 72 subjects derived from the classification procedure was used for the screening of data. Outliers are cases which fall far away from others and are characterised by extreme values. Outliers prevent cases from contributing equally into the regression solution. Tabachnick and Fidell (1996) state that outliers have a greater impact on the regression coefficient than other cases and if not treated may yield misleading results. In addition, outliers prevent cases to contribute equally to the regression coefficient. After having excluded the outliers, the sample was again narrowed to a total of 61 subjects.

The multiple regression analysis was performed on the narrowed sample size of 61 subjects in order to achieve the primary aim of the present study. A stepwise regression analysis was conducted because of its ability to develop the subset of the predictor variables that are useful in the criterion prediction and eliminate those predictor variables that do not provide additional prediction to the criterion variable. However, the analysis failed to produce a coefficient regression model but presented a correlation matrix for interpretation (see Table 5). The correlation matrix serves to indicate the relationship between the predictor variables and the criterion variable. Deduced from the correlation matrix, there were non-significant relationships between the predictor variable and the criterion variable. It was also evident that there were no interaction between parenting styles and all of the secondary predictor variables. Likewise, the secondary predictor variables did not correlate with child adjustment. According to Kerlinger (1986), in multiple regression analysis, the best prediction between the predictor variables and the criterion variable occurs when

the correlations between the predictor variables and the criterion variable are high and the correlations amongst the predictor variables are low. Non-significant correlation between the parenting styles and child adjustment were obtained. Non-significant results were also obtained with regard to the relationship between the secondary predictor variables and child adjustment as well as for the parenting styles (see Table 5 for the correlation matrix).

This simply means that neither the parenting styles nor secondary predictor variables (gender of the child, preschool attendance, number of siblings and the maternal age) were significantly related to the socio-emotional adjustment measure of black South African grade I school children living in single parent families.

The multiple regression analysis failed to produce a coherent regression model. It was therefore decided to perform a partial correlation analysis. Field (2000) reports that partial correlation analysis makes it possible to establish the unique contribution of each of the predictor variables in predicting the composition of the criterion variable. Differing from multiple regression analysis, a partial correlation focusses on the relationship between two variables while controlling the effects of one or more additional variables. Results from the partial correlation analysis are presented in Table 6.

Table 5:

Pearson correlations between the predictor variable, secondary predictor variables and the criterion variable

Measurements	Adjustment score	Authoritarian parenting style	Permissive parenting style	Authoritative parenting style	maternal age	Educational qualification	Number of children in the family	Gender of the child	Preschool attendance
Adjustment scores	1 (0)	-0.19 (0.071)	0.172 (0.093)	-0.134 (0.151)	-0.074 (0.288)	-0.235 (0.034)	0 (0.5)	0.055 (0.336)	0.077 (0.277)
Authoritarian parenting style	-0.19 (0.071)	1 (0)	-0.104 (0.213)	0.105 (0.21)	0.181 (0.083)	-0.1 (0.221)	0.086 (0.254)	-0.043 (0.37)	0.085 (0.257)
Permissive parenting style	0.172 (0.093)	-0.104 (0.213)	1 (0)	-0.138 (0.145)	-0.191 (0.072)	0.113 (0.194)	0.159 (0.111)	-0.146 (0.131)	-0.183 (0.079)
Authoritative parenting style	-0.134 (0.151)	0.105 (0.21)	-0.138 (0.145)	1 (0)	-0.294 (0.011)	0.044 (0.367)	-0.192 (0.07)	0.101 (0.22)	0.082 (0.265)
Maternal age	-0.074 (0.288)	0.181 (0.083)	-0.191 (0.072)	-0.294 (0.011)	1 (0)	-0.055 (0.338)	0.639 (0)	0.02 (0.439)	-0.052 (0.347)
Educational level	-0.235 (0.034)	-0.1 (0.221)	0.113 (0.194)	0.044 (0.367)	-0.055 (0.338)	1 (0)	-0.037 (0.388)	0.078 (0.276)	-0.241 (0.031)
Number of children in the family	0 (0.5)	0.086 (0.254)	0.159 (0.111)	-0.192 (0.07)	0.639 (0)	-0.037 (0.388)	1 (0)	0.019 (0.441)	-0.125 (0.169)
Gender of the child	0.055 (0.336)	-0.043 (0.37)	-0.146 (0.131)	0.101 (0.22)	0.02 (0.439)	0.078 (0.276)	0.019 (0.441)	1 (0)	-0.155 (0.117)
Preschool attendance	0.077 (0.277)	0.085 (0.257)	-0.183 (0.079)	0.082 (0.265)	-0.052 (0.347)	-0.241 (0.031)	-0.125 (0.169)	-0.155 (0.117)	1 (0)

() reflects a one-tailed level of significance

Table 6

Partial correlations between the parenting styles and child adjustment while controlling for the effects of maternal age, maternal educational qualification, number of children in the household, gender of the child and preschool attendance.

	Authoritarian parenting style	Permissive parenting style	Authoritative parenting style
Adjustment	-0.1026	0.0694	-0.0552
	-65	-65	-65
	p= .204	p= .288	p= .329
Coefficient / (D.F.) / 1-tailed Significance			

It was apparent that none of the parenting styles correlated significantly with child adjustment at school even when the effects of other variables were partialled out. This resulted in performing another multiple regression analysis using the parenting styles and the nuisance variables with each of the six adjustment subscales. The second multiple regression analysis was performed in order to probe subscales for an indication of significant relations between the predictor variables and the six adjustment subscales.

4.6 Multiple regression analysis using the adjustment subscales

In the absence of any overall significant relationship it was argued that a more differentiated impression of possible links could be obtained by performing a multiple regression analysis on the six subscales of the socio-emotional adjustment measure. This was performed in order to determine the relationships between the predictor variables (parenting styles and the secondary predictor variables) with the various adjustment subscales. Table 7 indicates the results obtained from the analysis.

Table 7

Multiple regression analysis of the contributions made by the predictor variables to the variability of the scores obtained on each of the adjustment measurement subscales.

Subscales	R	F	Sig
Task orientation:			
Maternal age	0.316	7.438	.008
Maternal age, preschool attendance	0.422	7.136	.002
Maternal age, preschool attendance, gender of the child	0.509	7.565	.000
Learning Problems:			
Maternal age	0.380	11.279	.001
Maternal age, preschool attendance	0.535	13.228	.000
Maternal age, preschool attendance, gender of the child,	0.596	11.947	.000
Maternal age, preschool attendance, gender of the child, permissive parenting style	0.644	11.335	.000
Acting out:			
Maternal age	0.389	11.963	.001
Maternal age, permissive parenting style	0.501	11.057	.000
Frustration tolerance:			
Number of children in the family	0.36	10.03	0.002

The maternal age indicated a variation of 31.6% in determining the child's orientation to tasks. Included with other variables (preschool attendance and gender of the child) the parental age accounted for 50.9% variation in determining the child's adjustment at school. This means that the age of the mother, preschool attendance opportunity and gender of the child made an average difference in the adjustment of children at school. The established relationship between these secondary predictor variables and the adjustment of children at school was statistically significant ($F=7.565$; $p<0.005$). As mentioned earlier, a stepwise regression analysis includes variables which are useful in the prediction of the criterion variable. This means that variables which do not contribute to the prediction of the criterion variable are excluded. As such the authoritarian parenting style, authoritative parenting style, permissive parenting style, number of siblings and educational qualification were all excluded.

Correlations presented in Table 8, indicated that maternal age (Pearson correlation =-0.316; $p<0.005$) and preschool attendance (Pearson correlation =-0.235; $p<0.05$) were significant and negatively related to the child's task orientation even when interpreted independently. The gender of the child indicated a very weak and insignificant relationship with the child's task orientation (Pearson correlation =-0.073; $p>0.05$) when interpreted exclusively.

Maternal age, preschool attendance, gender of the child and permissive parenting style explained 64.4% variation in children's learning problems. It was furthermore apparent that the influence of these predictive variables on the adjustment of children was also significant ($F=11.335$; $p<0.005$). Once again, maternal age indicated to have more effect on child adjustment than preschool attendance, gender of the child and permissive parenting style. Interestingly, the measure of permissive parenting style indicated to have some influence on the child's learning problems.

In addition, the correlations (see Table 9) of almost all variables which interacted with maternal age in predicting the child's learning problems at school indicated

a significant and strong positive relationship with the child's learning problems at school when interpreted independently. Following are the predictor variables which interacted together in predicting the child's learning problems at school, coupled with them are their correlations and significant levels. Such variables included the measures of maternal age (Pearson correlation =0.380; p<0.005), preschool attendance (Pearson correlation =0.323; p<0.005) and permissive parenting style (Pearson =0.261; p<0.05). However, gender of the child indicated a weak and insignificant relationship with the child's learning problems at school (Pearson correlation =0.164; p>0.05) . Although number of children in the family was excluded from the regression model, it also indicated that a significant positive relationship with the child's learning problems exist (Pearson =0.323; p<0.005).

Maternal age and the permissive parenting style indicated an influence on children's tendency of acting out, that is, the two predictor variables explained 50.1% variation in the child's acting out behaviours with a significance level of less than 0.005 ($F=11.057$; p<0.005). Other predictor variables were excluded from the analysis because they had no direct influence on the child's acting out behaviours at school. Note that, maternal age explained 38% of the variance of child's acting out behaviour. This implies that maternal age determined the child's acting out behaviour to a greater extent without interacting with other variables.

Furthermore, correlations presented in Table 10 indicated that the measures of maternal age (Pearson correlation =0.389; p<0.005), number of children in the family (Pearson correlation =0.255; p<0.05), permissive parenting (Pearson correlation =0.334; p<0.002) and authoritarian parenting (Pearson correlation =0.223; p<0.05) were significant and shown positive relationships with the child's acting out behaviour.

The number of children in the house explained a variation of 36.1% in determining the child's frustration tolerance at school ($F=10.025$; p<0.005). The other predictive variables were excluded from the analysis because their

insignificant contribution in the measure of child's frustration tolerance. From Table 11, it was evident that the number of children in the family had a significant negative relationship with the child's frustration tolerance (Pearson correlation = -0.361; p<0.005) when not interacting with other variables. Apparently, maternal age also indicated a significantly positive relationship with the child's frustration tolerance at school (Pearson correlation =0.303; p<0.05).

The last two adjustment subscales (shyness/anxiety and assertive social skills) failed to produce a multiple regression model, however a correlation matrix was obtained. Table 12 provides the correlations between the predictor variables and Shyness/Anxiety in children. It was apparent that none of the predictor variables correlated significantly with the Shyness/Anxiety subscale.

Table 13 presents the correlation between the predictor variables and assertive social skills subset. From this table it was apparent that none of the variables were positively associated with assertive social skills in young children.

4.7 Conclusion

Various data analysis techniques were performed in order to answer the research questions as well as verifying the hypothesis stated in the current study. A sample of 72 research participants was used for the classification of participants into the three parenting styles. It was found that almost an equal number of participants represented the authoritative and authoritarian parenting styles while a lesser number of them represented the permissive parenting style. In an attempt to establish the group differences an ANOVA analysis was therefore performed using the categorised participants. The results obtained were found significant. However, the Scheffé test indicated that the established group differences were insignificant.

The second multiple regression analysis procedure indicated that although the secondary predictor variables did not interact with the parenting styles, some of them contribute to the socio-emotional adjustment of children. On the same note, results obtained from the first multiple regression and partial correlation were

insignificant which means there were no direct relationships amongst the studied variables. Furthermore, validation of the measurement instrument, the Teacher-Child Rating Scale was performed which revealed that the obtained results did not differ much from previous findings.

Table 8

Pearson correlations between the predictor variables and the task oriented subscale of the child adjustment measure (T-CRS)

Measures	Task oriented	Authoritarian parenting style	Permissive parenting style	Authoritative parenting style	maternal age	Educational qualification	Number of children in the family	Gender of the child	Preschool attendance
Task orientation	1 (0)	-0.186 (0.060)	-0.163 (0.087)	-0.015 (0.450)	-0.316 (0.004)	-0.144 (0.115)	-0.282 (0.009)	-0.073 (0.272)	-0.235 (0.025)
Authoritarian style	-0.186 (0.060)	1 (0)	0.116 (0.167)	0.345 (0.002)	0.245 (0.021)	0.017 (0.443)	0.163 (0.088)	-0.111 (0.179)	-0.080 (0.254)
Permissive style	-0.163 (0.087)	0.116 (0.167)	1 (0)	-0.143 (0.118)	0.049 (0.344)	0.163 (0.087)	0.262 (0.014)	-0.042 (0.363)	-0.031 (0.397)
Authoritative style	-0.015 (0.450)	0.345 (0.002)	-0.143 (0.118)	1 (0)	-0.034 (0.390)	0.057 (0.319)	-0.143 (0.119)	-0.003 (0.491)	-0.029 (0.406)
Maternal age	-0.316 (0.004)	0.245 (0.021)	0.049 (0.344)	-0.034 (0.390)	1 (0)	-0.082 (0.252)	0.626 (0.000)	-0.063 (0.302)	-0.133 (0.138)
Educational qualification	-0.144 (0.115)	0.017 (0.443)	0.163 (0.087)	0.057 (0.319)	-0.082 (0.252)	1 (0)	0.011 (0.465)	0.247 (0.019)	0.205 (0.043)
Number of children in the family	-0.282 (0.009)	0.163 (0.088)	0.262 (0.014)	-0.143 (0.119)	0.626 (0.000)	0.011 (0.465)	1 (0)	-0.106 (0.192)	0.005 (0.485)
Gender of the child	-0.073 (0.272)	-0.111 (0.179)	-0.042 (0.363)	-0.003 (0.491)	-0.063 (0.302)	0.247 (0.019)	-0.106 (0.192)	1 (0)	0.857 (0.000)
Preschool attendance	-0.235 (0.025)	-0.080 (0.254)	-0.031 (0.397)	-0.029 (0.406)	-0.133 (0.138)	0.205 (0.043)	0.005 (0.485)	0.857 (0.000)	1 (0)

() reflects a one-tailed level of significance

Table 9

Pearson correlations between predictor variables and learning problems subscale of the child adjustment measure (T-CRS)

Measures	Learning problems	Authoritarian parenting style	Permissive parenting style	Authoritative parenting style	maternal age	Educational qualification	Number of children in the family	Gender of the child	Preschool attendance
Learning problems	1 (0)	0.107 (0.187)	0.261 (0.014)	-0.059 (0.314)	0.380 (0.001)	0.009 (0.469)	0.323 (0.003)	0.164 (0.086)	0.323 (0.003)
Authoritarian style	0.107 (0.187)	1 (0)	0.116 (0.167)	0.345 (0.002)	0.245 (0.021)	0.017 (0.443)	0.163 (0.088)	-0.111 (0.179)	-0.080 (0.254)
Permissive style	0.261 (0.014)	0.116 (0.167)	1 (0)	-0.143 (0.118)	-0.049 (0.344)	0.163 (0.087)	0.262 (0.014)	-0.042 (0.363)	-.031 (0.397)
Authoritative style	-0.059 (0.314)	0.345 (0.002)	-0.143 (0.118)	1 (0)	-.034 (0.390)	0.57 (0.319)	-0.143 (0.119)	-0.003 (0.491)	-0.029 (0.406)
Maternal age	0.380 (0.001)	0.245 (0.021)	0.049 (0.344)	-0.034 (0.390)	1 (0)	-0.082 (0.252)	0.626 (0.000)	-0.063 (0.302)	-0.133 (0.138)
Educational qualification	0.009 (0.469)	0.017 (0.443)	0.163 (0.087)	0.057 (0.319)	-0.082 (0.252)	1 (0)	0.011 (0.465)	0.247 (0.019)	0.205 (0.043)
Number of children in the family	0.323 (0.003)	0.163 (0.088)	0.262 (0.014)	-0.143 (0.119)	0.626 (0.000)	0.011 (0.465)	1 (0)	-0.106 (0.192)	0.005 (0.485)
Gender of the child	0.164 (0.086)	-0.111 (0.179)	-0.042 (0.363)	-0.003 (0.491)	-0.063 (0.302)	0.247 (0.019)	-0.106 (0.192)	1 (0)	0.857 (0.000)
Preschool attendance	0.323 (0.003)	-0.080 (0.254)	-0.031 (0.397)	-0.029 (0.406)	-0.133 (0.138)	0.205 (0.43)	0.005 (0.485)	0.857 (0.000)	1 (0)

() reflects a one-tailed level of significance

Table 10

Pearson correlations between the predictor variables and acting out subscale of the child adjustment measure (T-CRS)

Measures	Acting out	Authoritarian parenting style	Permissive parenting style	Authoritative parenting style	maternal age	Educational qualification	Number of children in the family	Gender of the child	Preschool attendance
Acting out	1 (0)	0.223 (0.031)	0.334 (0.002)	-0.072 (0.275)	0.389 (0.000)	-.021 (0.431)	0.255 (0.017)	-.025 (0.417)	0.137 (0.128)
Authoritarian style	0.223 (0.031)	1 (0)	0.116 (0.167)	0.345 (0.002)	0.245 (0.021)	0.017 (0.443)	0.163 (0.088)	-.111 (0.179)	-.080 (0.254)
Permissive style	0.334 (0.002)	0.116 (0.167)	1 (0)	-0.143 (0.118)	0.049 (0.344)	0.163 (0.087)	0.262 (0.014)	-.042 (.0363)	-.031 (0.397)
Authoritative style	-0.072 (0.275)	0.345 (0.002)	-0.143 (0.118)	1 (0)	-0.034 (0.390)	0.057 (0.319)	-0.143 (0.119)	-0.003 (0.491)	-0.029 (0.406)
Maternal age	0.389 (0.000)	0.245 (0.021)	0.049 (0.344)	-0.034 (0.390)	1 (0)	-0.082 (0.252)	0.626 (0.000)	-0.063 (0.302)	-0.133 (0.138)
Educational qualification	-0.021 (0.431)	0.017 (0.443)	0.163 (0.087)	0.057 (0.319)	-0.082 (0.252)	1 (0)	0.011 (0.465)	0.247 (0.019)	0.205 (0.043)
Number of children in the family	0.255 (0.017)	0.163 (0.088)	0.262 (0.014)	-0.143 (0.119)	0.626 (0.000)	0.011 (0.465)	1 (0)	-0.106 (0.192)	0.005 (0.485)
Gender of the child	-0.025 (0.417)	-0.111 (0.179)	-0.042 (0.363)	-0.003 (0.491)	-0.063 (0.302)	0.247 (0.019)	-.106 (0.192)	1 (0)	0.857 (0.000)
Preschool attendance	0.137 (0.128)	-0.080 (0.254)	-0.031 (0.397)	-0.029 (0.406)	-0.133 (0.138)	0.205 (0.043)	0.005 (0.485)	0.857 (0.000)	1 (0)

() reflects a one tailed level of significance

Table 11

Pearson correlations between predictor variables and frustration tolerance subscale of the child adjustment measure (T-CRS)

Measures	Frustration tolerance	Authoritarian parenting style	Permissive parenting style	Authoritative parenting style	maternal age	Educational qualification	Number of children in the family	Gender of the child	Preschool attendance
Frustration tolerance	1 (0)	-0.140 (0.122)	-0.023 (0.424)	0.106 (0.190)	0.303 (0.006)	0.001 (0.497)	-0.361 (0.001)	0.011 (0.464)	-0.128 (0.143)
Authoritarian style	-0.140 (0.122)	1 (0)	0.116 (0.167)	0.345 (0.002)	0.245 (0.021)	0.017 (0.443)	0.163 (0.088)	-0.111 (0.179)	-0.080 (0.254)
Permissive style	-0.023 (0.424)	0.116 (0.167)	1 (0)	-0.143 (0.118)	0.049 (0.344)	0.163 (0.087)	0.262 (0.014)	-0.042 (0.363)	-0.031 (0.397)
Authoritative style	0.106 (0.190)	0.345 (0.002)	-0.143 (0.118)	1 (0)	-0.034 (0.390)	0.057 (0.319)	-0.143 (0.119)	-0.003 (0.491)	-0.029 (0.406)
Maternal age	-0.303 (0.006)	0.245 (0.021)	0.049 (0.344)	-0.034 (0.390)	1 (0)	-0.082 (0.252)	0.626 (0.000)	-0.063 (0.302)	-0.133 (0.138)
Educational qualification	0.001 (0.497)	0.017 (0.443)	0.163 (0.087)	0.057 (0.319)	-0.082 (0.252)	1 (0)	0.011 (0.465)	0.247 (0.019)	0.205 (0.043)
Number of children in the family	-0.361 (0.001)	0.163 (0.088)	0.262 (0.014)	-0.143 (0.119)	0.626 (0.000)	0.011 (0.465)	1 (0)	-0.106 (0.192)	0.005 (0.485)
Gender of the child	0.011 (0.464)	-0.111 (0.179)	-0.042 (0.363)	-0.003 (0.491)	-0.063 (0.302)	0.247 (0.019)	-0.106 (0.192)	1 (0)	0.857 (0)
Preschool attendance	-0.128 (0.143)	-0.080 (0.254)	-0.031 (0.397)	-0.029 (0.406)	-0.133 (0.138)	0.205 (0.043)	0.005 (0.485)	0.857 (0.000)	1 (0)

() reflects a one-tailed level of significance

Table 12

Pearson correlations between predictor variables and shyness/anxiety subscale of the child adjustment measure (T-CRS)

Measures	Shy	Authoritarian parenting style	Permissive parenting style	Authoritative parenting style	Parental age	Educational qualification	Number of children in the family	Gender of the child	Preschool attendance
Shy	1	0.093 (0.22)	0.052 (0.335)	0.033 (0.392)	0.184 (0.066)	-0.065 (0.295)	0.146 (0.113)	0.116 (0.168)	0.124 (0)
Authoritarian style	0.1 (0.22)	1 (0)	0.116 (0.167)	0.345 (0.002)	0.245 (0.021)	0.017 (0.443)	0.163 (0.088)	-0.111 (0.179)	-0.08 (0.254)
Permissive style	0.1 (0.34)	0.116 (0.167)	1 (0)	-0.143 (0.118)	0.049 (0.344)	0.163 (0.087)	0.262 (0.014)	-0.042 (0.363)	-0.031 (0.397)
Authoritative style	0 (0.39)	0.345 (2)	-0.143 (0.118)	1 (0)	-0.034 (0.39)	0.057 (0.319)	-0.143 (0.119)	-0.003 (0.491)	-0.029 (0.406)
Maternal age	0.18 (0.1)	0.245 (0.021)	0.049 (0.344)	-0.034 (0.39)	1 (0)	-0.082 (0.252)	0.626 (0)	-0.063 (0.302)	-0.133 (0.138)
Educational qualification	0 (0.3)	0.017 (0.443)	0.163 (0.087)	0.057 (0.319)	-0.082 (0.252)	1 (0)	0.011 (0.465)	0.247 (0.19)	0.205 (0.043)
Number of children in the family	0.15 (0.11)	0.163 (0.088)	0.262 (0.014)	-0.143 (0.119)	0.626 (0)	0.011 (0.465)	1 (0)	-0.106 (0.192)	0.005 (0.485)
Gender of the child	0.12 (0.17)	-0.111 (0.179)	-0.042 (0.363)	-0.003 (0.491)	-0.063 (0.302)	0.247 (0.019)	-0.106 (0.192)	1 (0)	0.857 (0)
Preschool attendance	0.12 (0.15)	-0.08 (0.254)	-0.031 (0.397)	-0.029 (0.406)	-0.133 (0.138)	0.205 (0.043)	0.005 (0.485)	0.857 (0)	1 (0)

() reflects a one-tailed level of significance

Table 13:

Pearson correlations between predictor variables and assertive social skills subscale of the child adjustment measure (T-CRS)

Measures	Assertive skills	Authoritarian parenting style	Permissive parenting style	Authoritative parenting style	Parental age	Educational qualification	Number of children in the family	Gender of the child	Preschool attendance
Assertive skills	1 (0)	-0.057 (0.318)	0.007 (0.476)	-0.114 (0.172)	-0.66 (0.296)	-0.192 (0.054)	-0.059 (0.113)	-0.152 (0.103)	-0.188 (0.058)
Authoritarian style	-0.057 (0.318)	1 (0)	0.116 (0.167)	0.345 (0.002)	0.245 (0.021)	0.017 (0.443)	0.163 (0.088)	-0.111 (0.179)	-0.08 (0.254)
Permissive style	0.007 (0.476)	0.116 (0.167)	1 (0)	-0.143 (0.118)	0.049 (0.344)	0.163 (0.087)	0.262 (0.014)	-0.042 (0.363)	-0.031 (0.397)
Authoritative style	-0.114 (0.172)	0.345 (2)	-0.143 (0.118)	1 (0)	-0.034 (0.39)	0.057 (0.319)	-0.143 (0.119)	-0.003 (0.491)	-0.029 (0.406)
Maternal age	-0.066 (0.296)	0.245 (0.021)	0.049 (0.344)	-0.034 (0.39)	1 (0)	-0.082 (0.252)	0.626 (0)	-0.063 (0.302)	-0.133 (0.138)
Educational qualification	-0.192 (0.054)	0.017 (0.443)	0.163 (0.087)	0.057 (0.319)	-0.082 (0.252)	1 (0)	0.011 (0.465)	0.247 (0.19)	0.205 (0.043)
Number of children in the family	-0.059 (0.313)	0.163 (0.088)	0.262 (0.014)	-0.143 (0.119)	0.626 (0)	0.011 (0.465)	1 (0)	-0.106 (0.192)	0.005 (0.485)
Gender of the child	-0.152 (0.103)	-0.111 (0.179)	-0.042 (0.363)	-0.003 (0.491)	-0.063 (0.302)	0.247 (0.019)	-0.106 (0.192)	1 (0)	0.857 (0)
Preschool attendance	-0.188 (0.152)	-0.08 (0.254)	-0.031 (0.397)	-0.029 (0.406)	-0.133 (0.138)	0.205 (0.043)	0.005 (0.485)	0.857 (0)	1 (0)

() reflects a one-tailed significance

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

5.1 Introduction

A major objective of the current study was to examine if the parenting styles can be related to the adjustment of black South African grade 1 school children as they enter the elementary school for their first year. In the previous chapter, the relationship between parenting styles and child adjustment was examined. Furthermore, the relationships between the identified secondary predictor variables, predictor variable and criterion variable were examined. The present chapter therefore serves to integrate the findings of the present study with the existing literature on this subject.

5.2 Examination of parenting styles

One of the objectives of the current study was to examine whether the various parenting styles are relevant in a sample of black South African families. A factor analysis was performed using parents' responses derived from the parenting style questionnaire. Results obtained from this procedure indicated an existence of the various parenting styles and thus confirmed previous findings about parenting styles (Baumrind, 1967; Dornbusch et al., 1987).

Similar to Baumrind (1967) and Kaufmann et al. (2000), the current study identified three parenting styles in a sample of black South African single households. Parents were classified into three parenting style groups namely, the authoritarian, authoritative and permissive parenting styles. The responses of parents who represented more than one parenting style, were eliminated from the data set. In the current study a clear distinction between the parenting style groups was necessary in order to answer question A stated in section 3.2.

Parents of children participating in the current study scored high on both the authoritarian parenting style and the authoritative parenting style. This is in contrast to the previous findings in which parents scored higher on the authoritative parenting style than on the authoritarian and permissive parenting styles. (Baumrind, 1967; Kaufmann et al., 2000; Bluestone & Tamis-LeMonda, 1999). However, research findings with African-American research participants appear to be in considering. For example, Kaufmann et al. (2000) found that African-American families scored high on the authoritarian parenting style. In contrast, Bluestone and Tamis-LeMonda (1999) in their study on parenting styles in predominantly working and middle-class African-American mothers reported that most of the mothers scored high on the authoritative parenting style.

5.3 Parenting styles as determinants of child adjustment

The primary question to be answered was whether the various parenting styles are associated with the different levels of children's socio-emotional adjustment at school. The focus was on the three parenting styles and their implications for children's socio-emotional adjustment. The aim was to examine whether previous findings regarding the relationship between the various parenting styles and child socio-emotional adjustment could be confirmed.

Results obtained from the ANOVA analysis indicated that the three parenting styles did not differ statistically in determining the socio-emotional adjustment of children at school. This simply implies that the various parenting styles experienced by black South African grade I school children are not directly related to their socio-emotional adjustment. Moreover, these results connote that the parenting styles of single mothers do not determine the adjustment of young black grade I school children differently. In other words, neither of the parenting styles increases nor decreases the level of adjustment in children at school. In contrast, some previous studies (e.g. Baumrind, 1967; Kaufmann et al., 2000; Shumow et al., 1998) reported a significant difference amongst the three parenting styles with regard to adaptive behaviour. Most of these studies reported that the authoritative parenting style is associated with adaptive behaviours while the authoritarian and permissive parenting styles were

related to problem behaviours. Onatsu-Arvilommi et al., (1998); Steinberg et al., (1989); Slicker, (1998); Sears, Maccoby & Levin, (1957) and Baumrind, (1967) also reported a strong association between the parenting styles and child adjustment. In most cases, the authoritative parenting style was related to mature behaviours, social competence as well as academic competence in children. On the other hand, the authoritarian and permissive parenting styles were mostly associated with lack of maturity, dependent and problem behaviour. For instance, Onatsu-Arvilommi et al. (1998) reported that children raised by authoritative mothers were viewed to exhibit more adaptive behaviours such as lack of task-irrelevant behaviours in a classroom setting. The researchers therefore suggested that maternal guidance, firm control and open expression of affection as the characteristics of the authoritative parenting style are beneficial for children's adaptive strategies at school. Similarly, Steinberg et al. (1989) in their study on authoritative parenting, psychosocial maturity and academic success among adolescents reported that the authoritative parenting style contributes positively to children's school achievement. Furthermore, these researchers suggested that the positive association of the authoritative parenting styles and children's school achievement is mediated through the effect of this type of parenting style on children's development of a healthy sense of autonomy and psychological orientation towards work. Possible explanations why these suggestions are not borne out by the findings of this study are presented in section 5.6.1.

In the present study, parents scored high on both the authoritarian parenting style and the authoritative parenting style. A smaller number of parents represented the permissive parenting style. However, results obtained in the current study made it evident that neither of these parenting styles were directly related to children's socio-emotional adjustment in a sample of black South African grade I school children. In contrast, Kaufmann et al. (2000) conducted a study with a racially mixed sample of elementary school children. In their findings, parents of African-American children scored higher on authoritarian parenting style and their children were found to be adjusting well at school. In addition, Steinberg et al. (1992) examined the relationship between the authoritative parenting style and adolescents' achievement at school, also using a racially mixed sample. These researchers found that the authoritative parenting style was not positively related to school achievement of African-American

adolescents. Plausible explanations for the different outcomes of the present investigation is presented in section 5.6.1.

In the present study correlations between the overall measurement of parenting style and child adjustment were very low and statistically non-significant. The same results were obtained even after controlling for all secondary predictor variables namely, maternal age, maternal education, gender of the child and number of children in the family. This means that there is no overall relationship between parenting styles and child adjustment in a sample of black South African grade I school children. Another multiple regression analysis was performed in order to establish as to whether there is an association between parenting styles and the six socio-emotional adjustment subscales. Results obtained from the multiple regression model performed indicated that two of the parenting styles (authoritarian and authoritative parenting styles) were excluded by the analysis because they did not play any significant role in determining the adjustment of children at school (see 4.6). However, when considered independently from other predictor variables, the authoritarian parenting style indicated a significant positive relationship with the child's acting out behaviour. This connotes that children raised by authoritarian parents in this sample may exhibit problem behaviours at school. The measure of permissive parenting style interacted with the secondary predictor variables (maternal age, preschool attendance and gender of the child) and indicated a significant contribution in some of the socio-emotional adjustment subscales (*learning problems and acting out*). In addition, this parenting style when interpreted alone indicated a significant and positive relationship with the child's acting out behaviour. It can therefore be concluded that children raised by either permissive or authoritarian parents in this sample have exhibited behaviour problems at school. More results on the socio-emotional adjustment subscales will be discussed in section 5.5.

The above mentioned results suggest that the general socio-emotional adjustment of a sample of black South African grade I school children raised by single mothers is not particularly influenced by the parenting styles experienced at home. However, some aspects of the child's socio-emotional adjustment are related to two types of parenting styles, namely, the authoritarian and permissive parenting styles. As such,

results of the present study did not confirm the hypothesis that a relationship exists between the overall measurement of parenting style and child adjustment.

5.4 The relationship between the secondary predictor variables, parenting styles and the socio-emotional adjustment of children.

In attempting to establish the relationship between parenting styles and child adjustment, some potentially relevant extraneous variables were also considered. Such variables included the maternal age, maternal educational qualification, number of children in the household, gender of the child and preschool attendance. These were included in the study because they were viewed as having a certain impact on the main variable (Clark & Ladd, 2000; Dornbusch et al., 1987; Cherian, 1992; Ricard et al., 1995; Taylor et al., 2000). They were included in a multiple regression analysis and all of these secondary predictor variables indicated a very low correlation and non-significant relationship with both the parenting styles and child adjustment measures (see 4.5). This was contrary to earlier findings in which the identified secondary predictor variables showed a certain impact on the parenting styles, and hence the child's adjustment. For instance, Dornbusch et al. (1987) reported that the parental educational level influenced the parent's parenting style. That is, parents with higher educational level were more likely to be authoritative than those with lower educational qualifications. Similarly, Shucksmith et al. (1995) reported an existing relationship between the parent's educational level and parenting style. Moreover, this factor was found to be contributing in determining the adjustment level of children. The results obtained in the current study with regard to gender of the child were similar to those of Ricard et al. (1995) in which an insignificant difference between boys and girls in terms of adjustment was reported. In contrast, Radziszewska et al. (1996) reported that parents of boys are likely to have a permissive parenting style while those for girls use authoritative parenting style. Possible alternative explanations for the lack of corroboration with the findings of the present study is presented in section 5.6.1.

5.5 The relationship between parenting styles and adjustment subscales

One of the motivations for the current study was to inspect the issue of child adjustment at school (refer to section 1.3). The definition of adjustment in section 1.5.2, suggest that children's experience of adjustment at school may assist them to function and develop optimally. The literature maintain that children who experience adjustment at school are socially competent, achieve academically and are confident (Ricard et al., 1995; Reynolds et al., 1992; Catton, 1979). On the other hand, those who have adjustment problems are uncooperative in class, they have attention problems, learning difficulties, language problems, and are withdrawn, anxious and exhibit antisocial behaviour (Smith, 1990). According to Catton (1979), adjustment problems at school may lead to academic failure or underachievement, delinquency and school dropout.

The multiple regression analysis failed to produce a coherent regression model for the measure of child adjustment as a whole. According to Field (2000) and Tabachnick and Fidell (1996) the occurrence of multicollinearity during the analysis may lead to insignificant results. Consequently, the relationship between parenting styles, secondary predictor variables and the subscales of child socio-emotional adjustment was explored. As such, a stepwise regression analysis was performed entering parenting styles, secondary predictor variables and each of the child's socio-emotional adjustment subscales. The primary purpose for this analysis was to establish whether some relationships exist between the secondary predictor variables, parenting styles and each of the six subscales of adjustment (see 4.6). It was anticipated that the analysis will permit a further investigation in the area of child adjustment. That is, to find out if the parenting styles and the secondary predictor variables will be related to measures of the socio-emotional adjustment.

The current study do not only differ from the previously conducted studies focusing on parenting styles and child adjustment by using a sample of black South African grade I school children, but rather it is also innovative in examining the relationship between parenting styles and the subscales of socio-emotional adjustment in a sample of black South African grade I school children. For instance, Kaufmann et al. (2000)

examined the relationship between parenting styles and the socio-emotional adjustment of children at school. In their study parenting styles were related to the general socio-emotional adjustment. The current study took this further and examined the relationship between parenting styles and the differentiated subscales of the socio-emotional adjustment measure namely, task orientation, learning problems, acting out, frustration tolerance, assertive social skills and shy/anxiety.

Unexpectedly, it was found that the authoritative parenting style did not contribute to the variance obtained by the subscale measures of socio-emotional adjustment at school. Although the authoritarian parenting style was excluded from the multiple regression model obtained it did indicate a positive relationship with the child's acting out behaviour when interpreted from the correlation matrix obtained separately. This means that children raised by authoritarian parents in the present sample have been associated with problem behaviours at school. Similar findings were reported by Baumrind (1967) whereby children raised by authoritarian parents were found to be hostile and insecure. In contrast, Kaufmann (2000) reported that authoritarian parenting style practiced by black African parents is associated with adaptive behaviours.

It was also evident that, most of the variables treated as the secondary factors in this study were accountable for the variations in the subscale measures of adjustment. That is, a significant association was found between some of the secondary predictor variables (maternal age, preschool attendance, gender of the child and number of children in the household), two of the parenting styles (permissive and authoritarian parenting styles) and some of the subscales of socio-emotional adjustment at school. The results for two subscales of adjustment (shyness/anxiety and assertive social skills subscales) produced low and insignificant correlations for all the secondary predictor variables. The discussion of results will therefore revolve around task orientation, learning problems, acting out and frustration tolerance subscales.

The maternal age was found to contribute more than any of the other predictor variables to the variation found in three adjustment subscales, namely, task orientation, learning problems and acting out. The variations and significance of the

results were strengthened by the interaction between maternal age and some of the other predictor variables such as preschool attendance, permissive parenting and gender of the child. Furthermore, most of these predictor variables were significantly related to the above mentioned subscales. Similar analyses were performed by Lamborn, Mounts, Steinberg and Dornbusch (1991) whereby children's self-reliance, work orientation and social competence served as the prosocial adjustment variables. Similarly, these researchers also found an interaction of factors which contributed to the variation and significance of the adjustment subscales. In the current study, maternal age and its interaction with preschool attendance and gender were significantly related to the child's task orientation at school. Maternal age and preschool attendance indicated negative relationships with the child's task orientation at school. This implies that for this sample the older the mother the more the child experiences difficulties with regard to task orientation at school. It was also found that preschool attendance was negatively associated task orientation at school. Lamborn et al. (1991) used task orientation as one of their adjustment measures, however it was not clear how it was influenced by the variables considered in the study. Moreover, maternal age in the literature was investigated with regard to child birth and its role in children's adjustment is obscure.

In this study maternal age was found to be the main significant contributor to children's learning problems. Its systematic variation and significance were strengthened by its interaction with preschool attendance, gender of the child and the permissive parenting style in relation to the learning problem subscale. Maternal age, preschool attendance, permissive parenting style as well as the number of children in the family indicated a positive relationship with the experience of learning problems at school. It can therefore be concluded that for this sample the older the mother the more the child experience learning difficulties at school. This findings can perhaps be an artifact of the sampling procedure. It was also found that permissive parents produce children with learning difficulties at school. The contributions made by the above predictor variables to the measurement of learning problems were confirmed by previous studies investigating the area of child adjustment at school. Reynolds and Gill (1994) found that participation in preschool added a significant variance to the child adjustment at school. In addition, Reynolds and Bezruczko (1993) reported that

preschool attendance have a certain effect on children's cognitive readiness and grade I achievement. These researchers suggested that better school adjustment is more likely if the child attended preschool. Richman and Lansdown (1988) support these findings and affirmed that preschool settings assist children to concentrate better, learn to play, mix with others, develop language and other skills necessary for a social context such as a school. In this study it was also found that the number of children in the family indicated a significantly strong positive relationship with the child's learning problems at school. This simply means that for this sample an increased number of children in the family is related to an increase in the experience of learning problems at school.

It was also found that maternal age together with its interaction with permissive parenting were accountable for some of the variation of children's acting out behaviours at school. In addition it was also found that the measurement of maternal age, number of children in the family, permissive parenting style and authoritarian parenting style indicated positive relationships with the measure of children's acting out behaviour at school. This connotes that the larger the number of children in the family the more the children in this sample exhibit problem behaviours at school. Children raised by either authoritarian parents or permissive parents are associated with acting out behaviour at school. Similarly, Wadsworth, Taylor, Osborn and Butler (1984) found an association between maternal age and children's competence and behavioural outcome. Wakschlag, Gordon, Lahey, Green and Leventhal (2000) found more specific results and reported that maternal age is related to conduct problems in children. Unlike the authoritative parenting styles, permissive and authoritarian parenting styles contributed to the child's acting out behaviour in the current study. Lamborn et al. (1991) found that children from either authoritarian or neglected and indulgent families which constitute the permissive parenting style were associated with poor adjustment in terms of self-reliance, social competence, academic competence and such children experience behaviour problems. That is, similar to our findings, permissive and authoritarian parenting styles were associated with problem behaviour in children.

In the current study, the child's gender did not show any significant contribution in relation to the child's acting out behaviour. In contrast, Lamborn et al. (1991) found that gender of the child contributed significantly to the variation in children's acting out behaviour/delinquency. In addition Dunn, Deater-Deckard, Pickering, O'Connor and Golding (1998) reported that gender of the child contributes to the variations found in the measurement of the various indicators of adjustment at school such as conduct problems, peer problems, prosocial behaviours and emotional problems. More specifically, these researchers found that boys experienced more peer problems, conduct problems, and emotional problems than girls.

The number of children in the household accounted for some of the variation in the measurement of frustration tolerance. Demo and Cox (2000) reported that the number of children in the family/siblings can be related to children's socio-emotional adjustment specifically with regard to peer relations, behaviour problems, learning problems, and self-perception. It is therefore recommended that more in depth investigations of the adjustment subscales used in this study be performed.

5.6 Conclusions

The procedure followed in the current study for grouping parents into parenting style groups was similar to those followed in other studies. In contrast to other studies the established relationship between parenting styles and child adjustment was non-significant. But a significant relationship was found between permissive parenting style, some of the nuisance variables and the adjustment subscales.

In general, the current study successfully answered the research question as well as attained its objectives. However it failed to establish the relationship between the parenting styles and adjustment in a sample of black South African grade I school children. Consequently, the results obtained in the current study contradicted those of previous studies.

5.6.1 Several possible reasons accountable for the study outcomes and directions for future research.

The current study has several limitations. Both measurements used in the current study posed limitations. The children's adjustment report is based on the teacher's perceptions alone. Perhaps collecting data from other sources, thereby assessing the construct validity of the measure would provide more valid and convincing results. The T-CRS has been developed overseas and validated using a different sample from the one used in the current study. Psychological assessment requires consideration of environmental factors such as ethnicity/culture and socioeconomic status since the measurement instrument must be sensitive towards the context in which the participant is functioning (Bedell, Van Eeden & Van Staden, 1999). The established validity for the Teacher-Child Rating scale in the current study indicated that some of the items from different factors clustered together. This makes the validity of the scale questionable with respect to a sample of black South African children. According to the African perspective explicated in Meyer, Moore and Viljoen (1998) optimal functioning in African families is not similar to other cultural groups. These authors gave an example of left and right hemisphere brain functioning of Africans and Westerners. According to them, Africans use both left and right hemisphere in a balanced manner to assist them in attaining optimal functioning. In contrast, Westerners predominantly use the left hemisphere of the brain and the imbalance between the two hemispheres results in an inability to function optimally. From this scenario, it can be concluded that cultural customs could have played a role in the inconsistency between the results of this study and other studies. It is therefore suggested that future studies use the adjustment measurement developed specifically for the South African context, in particular for black children.

Likewise, the parenting styles questionnaire is based on parent-self rating only. Pettit et al. (1997) maintain that a wider range of measurement using more varied assessment techniques is desirable and would strengthen the confidence in the results. Although the established validity and reliability of the parenting style questionnaire was satisfactory, it might be advisable that this measurement be validated again using a larger sample size of black parents taking into account the

issue of environmental factors. That is, items involved in the questionnaire should be relevant to parental values and goals in black families.

Other reasons accountable for the contradiction between the present study and earlier findings with respect to the relationship between the parenting styles and child adjustment at school can be attributed to presenting perceived socially acceptable responses. Parents might have been uncomfortable or unwilling to report accurately about parenting practices which they endorse but perceive as negative. Kaufmann et al., (2000) suggests that parents' reports about their own parenting might not be as predictive of child adjustment outcome as other rater perspectives. Other researchers who found a significant link between the parenting styles and children's adjustment assessed parenting from the children's perspective (Lamborn et al., 1991). It is therefore suggested that other sources of information be considered in future studies. As mentioned earlier, another possible explanation for the discrepancy between the present findings and earlier findings could be related to the measurements utilised in the current study. It is therefore suggested that the construct validity of the parenting style measurement should be determined by including both measures and that an open ended questionnaire on parenting styles in future studies be used. The multiple measurement of the construct would be useful in its further validation.

This study focussed on one age group only, that is 6 -7 year old children who are just starting school. It focusses on children from urban areas with a particular cultural and socio-economic makeup. Perhaps children of other age levels from a different socioeconomic group will adjust differently from those targeted in the current study. In the present study a relationship between parenting styles and the adjustment of grade I school children is examined by means of a cross-sectional design. It would be impossible to assert on statistical grounds that the parenting styles examined have in fact preceded the outcome assessed (Lamborn et al, 1991). Perhaps a similar study should be done using a longitudinal design. Another limitation is the chosen research design which makes it impossible to control all variables involved in this study. Moreover, participants were selected and assigned into various parenting groups non-randomly.

The parenting styles reported may not be predictive of socio-emotional adjustment of children but may predict other forms of adjustment such as behavioural or cognitive adjustment. It is therefore suggested that the same study be conducted focussing on the relationship between parenting styles and other forms of adjustment.

In the current study, only extreme parenting groups were considered and cases which were unclear of their classification were eliminated from the sample set. Steinberg et al. (1994) support consideration of extreme parenting style groups and exclusion of cases with unclear differences for parenting style group classification. These researchers claim that consideration of extreme parenting style groups strengthened the internal validity of the study. Slicker (1998) shared a different opinion and in his/her study on the relationship between parenting styles and behavioural adjustment of graduating high school seniors, used six parenting style groups. In this study, not only extreme types of parenting were considered but also those who fell within the middle groups of parenting styles. Perhaps, a similar study could be conducted replicating Slicker's procedures on classifying cases into the various parenting styles. That is, instead of eliminating some of the subjects, the researcher could categorize them as well. According to Berk (2000) and Mullins, Smith and Vollmers (1983) parents use a combination of parenting styles depending of the situation or context and age of the child.

References

- Andrews, A. B. & Ben-Arieh, A. (1999). Measuring and monitoring children's well-being across the world. *Social Work*, 44 (2), 105-115.
- Anselmo, S. & Franz, W. (1995). Early childhood development: Prenatal through age eight (2nd ed.). New York: Englewood Cliffs.
- Arkoff, A. (1968). *Adjustment and mental health*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Barth, J. M. & Parke, R. D. (1993). Parent-child relationship influences on children's transition to school. *Merrill-Palmer Quarterly*, 39 (2), 173-195.
- Baumrind, D. (1967). Child care practices anteceding three patterns of preschool children. *Genetic Psychology Monographs*, 74, 43-48.
- Baumrind, D. (1968). Authoritarian vs. authoritative parental control. In J. F. Rosenblith, W. Allin Smith & J. P. Williams (Eds), *Readings in child development: Causes of behaviour* (pp.110-116). Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Baumrind, D. (1989). Rearing competent children. In W. Damon (Ed.), *Child development today and tomorrow* (pp. 349-378). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Baumrind, D. (1971). Current patterns of parental authority. *Developmental Psychology Monograph*, 4, 1-103.
- Baumrind, D. (1991). The influence of parenting style on adolescent competence and substance use. *Journal of Early Adolescence*, 11(1), 56-95.
- Bedell, B., Van Eeden, R. & Van Staden, F. (1999). Culture as moderator variable in psychological test performance: Issues and trends in South Africa. *Journal of Industrial Psychology*, 25 (2), 1-7.

- Berk, L. E. (2000). *Child development* (5th ed.). Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Bluestone, C. & Tamis-LeMonda, C. S. (1999). Correlates of parenting styles in predominantly working and middle class African American mothers. *Journal of Marriage and Family*, 61 (4), 881. Retrieved February 08, 2002, from EBSCO database on the World Wide Web: <http://www.ebsco.com>
- Boon, M. (1994). The playground behaviour of socially isolated children. *South African Journal of Education*, 14 (4), 180-188.
- Booth, C. L., Rubin, K. H. & Rose-Krasnor, L. (1998). Perceptions of emotional support from mother and friend in middle childhood: Links with social-emotional adaptation and preschool attachment security. *Child Development*, 69, 427-442.
- Bruno, F. J. (1983). *Adjustment and personal growth: Seven pathways*. New York: Wiley.
- Bukatko, D. & Daehler, M. W. (1992). *Child development: A topical approach*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin.
- Carlson, C. I. (1992). Single-parent families. In M. E. Procidano & C. B. Fisher (Eds). *Contemporary families: A handbook for school professionals* (pp. 36-56). New York: Teachers College.
- Carlson, E. A., Sroufe, L. A., Collins, W. A., Jimerson, S., Weinfield, N., Hennighausen, K., Egeland, B., Hyson, D. M., Anderson, F. & Meyer, S. E. (1999). Early environmental support and elementary school adjustment as predictors of school adjustment in middle adolescence. *Journal of Adolescent Research*, 14 (1), 72-94.

Carrasquillo, A. L. & London, C. B. G. (1993). *Parents and schools: A source book*. New York: Garland.

Catton, K. (1979). Children and the law: an empirical review. In W. Michelson, S.V. Levine & A. Spina (Eds), *The child in the city: changes and challenges* (pp.179-280). London: University of Toronto Press.

Chen, X., Liu, M. & Li, D. (2000). Parental warmth, control, and indulgence and their relation to adjustment in chinese children: a longitudinal study. *Journal of Family Psychology, 14* (3), 401-419.

Chen, X., Dong, Q. & Zhou, H. (1997). Authoritative and authoritarian practices and social and school performance in Chinese children. *International Journal of Behavioral-Development, 21* (4), 855-873.

Cherian, V. I. (1992). Relationship between parental education and academic achievement of Xhosa children from monogamous and polygynous families. *Journal of Social Psychology, 132* (5), 681 - 683.

Clark, K. E. & Ladd, G. W. (2000). Connectedness and autonomy support in parent-child relationship: Links to children's socio-emotional orientation and peer relationships, *Developmental Psychology, 36* (4), 485-498.

Darling, N. & Steinberg, L. (1993). Parenting styles as context: an integrative model. *Psychological Bulletin, 113* (3), 487-496.

Demo, D. H. & Cox, M. J. (2000). Families with young children: A review of research in the 1990s. *Journal of Marriage and the Family, 62*, 876-895.

Dornbusch, S. M., Ritter, P. L., Leiderman, P. H., Roberts, D. F. & Fraleigh, M. J. (1987). The relation of parenting style to adolescent school performance. *Child Development, 58*, 1244-1257.

Dummett, L. (1984). The enigma: the persistent failure of black children in learning to read. *Reading World*, 24, 31-37.

Dunn, J., Deater-Deckard, K., Pickering, K., O'Connor, G. T. & Golding, J. (1998). Children's adjustment and prosocial behaviour in step-, single-parent, and non-step family setting: findings from a community study. *Journal of Child Psychological Psychiatry*, 39 (8), 1083-1095.

Erikson, E. H. (1951). A healthy personality for every child. In J. F. Rosenblith, W. Allin Smith & J. P. Williams (Eds), *Readings in child development: causes of behaviour* (pp.241-251). Boston. Allyn & Bacon.

Erikson, E. H. (1959). *Identity and the life cycle*. New York: International University Press.

Erikson, E. H. (1968). *Identity: Youth and crisis*. London: Faber and Faber.

Erikson, E. H. (1972). Industry versus Inferiority. In A. R. Binter & S.H. Frey (Eds), *The Psychology of the elementary school child* (pp. 5-11). Chicago: Rand McNally & Company.

Erikson, E. H. (1977). *Childhood and society*. England: Granada.

Fagen, D. B., Cowen, E. L., Wyman, P. A. & Work, W. C. (1996). Relationships between parent-child relational variables and child test variables in highly stressed urban families. *Child Study Journal*, 26, 81-108.

Feldman, R. S. (1989). *Adjustment: Applying psychology in a complex world*. New York McGraw-Hill.

Field, A. (2000). *Discovering statistics using SPSS for windows: Advanced techniques for the beginners*. London: Sage.

Flake-Hobson, C., Robinson, B. E. & Skeen, P. (1983). *Child development and relationships*. London: Addison-Wesley.

Gerdes, L. C., Coetzee, C. H. & Cronjé, E. M. (1996). Perceptions of parenting task performance: A comparison of single-earner and dual-earner families. *South African Journal of Psychology*, 26, 81-88.

Goldstein, G., Novick, R. & Schaefer, M. (1990). Housing, health and well-being: An international perspective. *Journal of Sociology and Social Welfare*, 17, 161-181.

Graziano, A. M. & Raulin, M. L. (2000). *Research methods: A process of inquiry*. Boston: Ally & Bacon.

Gregory, R. J. (1996). *Psychological testing: History, principles and application* (2nd ed.). Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

Grimm, L. G. (1993). *Statistical applications for the behavioural sciences*. New York: John Wiley & Sons.

Gupta, S. (1993). *Research methodology and statistical techniques*. New Delphi: Deep & Deep.

Guy, R. F., Edgley, C. E., Arafat, I. & Alien, D. E. (1987). *Social research methods' puzzles and solutions*. Boston: Ally & Bacon.

Hair, J. R., Anderson, R. E., Tatham, R. L. & Black, W. C. (1998). *Multivariate data analysis* (5th ed.). New Jersey: Prentice Hall.

Haskett, M. E., Myers, L. W., Pirrello, V. E. & Dombalis, A. O. (1995). Parenting style as a mediating link between parental emotional health and adjustment of maltreated children. *Behavior-Therapy*, 26 (4), 625-642.

Hawkes, G. R. & Pease, D. (1962). *Behaviour development from 5 to 12*. New York: Harper & Row.

Hetherington, E. M. & Parke, R. D. (1979). *Child psychology: A contemporary viewpoint* (2nd ed.). Johannesburg: McGraw-Hill.

Hightower, A. D., Work, C. W., Cowen, B. S., Lotyczewski, B. S., Spinell, A. P., Guare, J. C. & Rohrbeck, C. A. (1986). The teacher-child rating scale: A brief objective measure of elementary children's school problem behaviours and competencies. *School Psychology Review*, 15, 393-409.

Hightower, A. D., Cowen, E. L., Spinell, A. P., Lotyczewski, B. S., Guare, J. C., Rohrbeck, C. A. & Brown, L.P. (1987). The Child Rating Scale: The development and psychometric refinement of a socioemotional self-rating scale for young children. *School Psychology Review*, 16, 239-255.

Hill, N. E. & Bush, K. R. (2001). Relationship between parenting environment and children's mental health among African American and European American mothers and children, *Journal of marriage and family*, 63(4), 954-966. Retrieved February 09, 2002, from EBSCO database on the World Wide Web: <http://www.ebsco.com>

Huysamen, G. K. (1994). *Methodology for the social and behavioural science*. Johannesburg: International Thompson.

Kathori, C. R. (1985). *Research methodology: Methods and techniques*. New Delhi: Wiley Eastern.

Kaufmann, D., Gesen, E., Santa Lucia, R. C., Salcedo, O., Rendina-Gobioff, G. & Gadd, R. (2000). The relationship between parenting style and children's adjustment: The parents ' perspective. *Journal of Child and Family Studies*, 9, 231-245.

Kellaghan, T., Sloane, K., Alvarez, B. & Bloom, B. S. (1993). *The home environment and school learning: Promoting parental involvement in the education of children*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Kerlinger, F. N. (1986). *Foundations of behavioural research* (3rd ed.). New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich College.

Ladd, G. W. (1990). Having friends, keeping friends, making friends, and being liked by peers in the classroom: Predictors of children's early school adjustment? *Child Development*, 61, 1081-1100.

Ladd, G. W. (1989). Children's social competence and social supports: Precursors of early school adjustment? In B. H. Schneider, G. A. J. Nadel & R. P. Weissberg (Eds), *Social competence in developmental perspective* (pp. 277-291). Boston: Kluwer Academic.

Lamborn, S. D., Mounts, N. S., Steinberg, L. & Dornbusch, S. M. (1991). Patterns of competence and adjustment among adolescents from authoritative, authoritarian, indulgent and neglectful families. *Child Development*, 62, 1049-1065.

Leve, R. (1980). *Childhood: The study of development*. New York: Random House.

Liddell, C. (1994). South African children in the year before school: Towards a predictive model of everyday behaviour. *International Journal of Psychology*, 29 (4), 409-430.

Lorion, R. P., Cowen, E. L., Kraus, R. M. & Milling, L. S. (1977). Family background characteristics and school adjustment problems. *Journal of Community Psychology*, 5, 142-148.

Louw, D. A., Van Ede, D. M. & Ferns, I. (1998) Middle childhood. In D. A. Louw, D. M. Van Ede & A. E. Louw (2nd ed.), *Human development* (pp. 321-379). Kagiso: Pretoria.

Maccoby, E. E. & Martin, J. A. (1983). Socialization in the context of the family: Parent-child interaction. In P.M. Mussen (Ed.), *Handbook of child psychology* (pp. 1-101). New York: Wiley.

Magnus, K. B., Cowen, E. L., Wyman, P. A., Fagen, D. B. & Work, W. C. (1999). Parent-child relationship qualities and child adjustment in highly stressed urban black and white families. *Journal of Community Psychology*, 27 (1), 55-71.

Maxim, P. S. (1999). *Quantitative research methods in the social sciences*. New York: Oxford.

May, K. M. (1994). A developmental view of a gifted child's social and emotional adjustment. *Roeper-Review*, 17, 105-109.

McBurney, D. H. (1994). *Research methods* (3rd ed.). California: Brooks.

McDermott, P. A., Marston, N. C. & Scott, D. H. (1993). *Adjustment scales for children and adolescents*. Philadelphia: Edumetric and Clinical Science.

McDermott, P. A. (1995). Sex, Race, Class, and other demographics as explanations for children's ability and adjustment: A national appraisal. *Journal of School Psychology*, 33 (1), 75-91.

McDermott, A. (1996). A nation wide study of developmental and gender prevalence for psychopathology in childhood and adolescence. *Journal of Abnormal Child Psychology* 24 (1), 53-66.

McDonald, P. & Brownlee, H. (1993). High-rise parenting: raising children in Melbourne's high-rise estates. *Family Matters*, 50, 4-15. Retrieved November 08, 2001, from EBSCO database on the World Wide Web: <http://www.ebsco.com>

McKim, B. J. & Cowen, E. L. (1987). Multiperspective assessment of young children's school adjustment. *School Psychology Review*, 16, 370-381.

Meyer, W. F., Moore, C. & Viljoen, H. G. (1998). *Personology: From individual to ecosystem*. Johannesburg: Heinemann.

Morris, D. O. (1992). African-American students and their families. In M. E. Procidano & C. B. Fisher (Eds), *Contemporary families: A handbook for school professionals* (pp. 99-116). New York: Teachers College Press.

Mullis, R. L.; Smith, D. W. & Vollmers, K. E. (1983). Prosocial behaviours in young children and parental guidance. *Child Study Journal*, 13 (1), 13-21.

Neumen, W. L. (2000). *Social research methods: Qualitative and quantitative approaches* (4th ed.). Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

Nunnally, J. C. (1978). *Psychometric theory* (2nd ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill.

Ogbu, J. U. (1985). A cultural ecology of competence among inner-city blacks. In M.B. Spencer, G. K. Brookins & W. R. Allen (Eds), *Begginings: The social and affective development of black children* (pp.45-66). London: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Onatsu-Arvilommi, T., Nurmi, J. & Aunola, K. (1998). Mothers's and father's well-being, parenting styles, and their children's cognitive and behavioral strategies at primary school. *European Journal of Psychology of Education*, 8 (4), 543-556.

Paterson, G. & Sanson, A. (1999). The association of behavioural adjustment to temperament, parenting and family characteristics among 5-year-old children. *Social Development*, 8 (3), 293-309.

Patton, M. Q. (1990). Qualitative evaluation and research methods (2nd ed.). London: Sage.

Pettit, G. S., Bates, J. E. & Dodge, K. A. (1997). Supportive parenting, ecological context and children's adjustment: a seven-year longitudinal study. *Child Development*, 68 (5), 908-923.

Radziszewska, B., Richardson, J. L., Dent, C. & Flay, B. R. (1996). Parenting styles and adolescent depressive symptoms, smoking, and academic achievement: Ethnic, gender, and SES differences. *Journal of Behavioural Medicine*, 19, 289-305.

Reynolds, A. J. & Gill, S. (1994). The role of parental perspective in the school adjustment of inner-city black children. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, 23, 671-694.

Reynolds, A.J., Weissberg, R. P. & Kasprow, W. J. (1992). Prediction of early social and academic adjustment of children from the inner city. *American Journal of Community Psychology*, 20, 599-624.

Reynolds, A. J. & Bezruczko, N. (1993). School adjustment of children at risk through fourth grade. *Merrill-Palmer-Quarterly*, 39, 457-480.

Ricard, R. J., Miller, G. A. & Heffer, R. W. (1995). Developmental trends in the relation between adjustment and academic achievement for elementary school children in mixed age classrooms. *School Psychology Review*, 24, 258-270.

Richman, N. & Lansdown, R. (1988). *Problems of preschool children*. Oxford: Wiley.

Roberts, T. W. (1994). *A systems perspective of parenting: The individual, the family, and the social network*. California: Brooks/Cole.

Rudy, D. & Grusec, J. E. (1999). Implications of cross-cultural findings for a theory of family socialisation. *Journal of Moral Education*, 28, p. 299. Retrieved February 09, 2002, from the EBSCO database on the World Wide Web: <http://www.ebsco.com>

Sears, R. R., Maccoby, E. E. & Levin, H. (1957). *Patterns of child rearing*. New York: Row & Peterson.

Sheehan, R., Cryan, J. R., Wiechel, J. & Bandy, I. G. (1991). Factors contributing to success in elementary schools: Research findings for early childhood educators. *Journal of Research in Childhood Education*, 6, 66-75.

Shucksmith, J., Hendry, L. B. & Glendinning, A. (1995). Models of parenting: Implications for adolescent well-being within different types of family contexts. *Journal of Adolescence*, 18, 253-270.

Shumow, L., Vandell, D. L. & Posner, J. K. (1998). Harsh, firm, and permissive parenting in low-income families: Relations to children's academic achievement and behavioral adjustment. *Journal of Family Issues*, 19 (5), 483-507.

Siann, G. & Ugwuegbu, D. (1980). *Educational psychology in a changing world*, (2nd ed.). London: Unwin Hyman.

Silvern, L. E. & Katz, P. A. (1986). Gender roles and adjustment in elementary-school children: A multidimensional approach. *Sex Roles*, 14, 181-202.

Skuy, M., Koeberg, M. & Fridjhon, P. (1997). Adjustment of children and interaction of parent and child among single mothers in a disadvantaged South African community. *Psychological Reports*, 80, 1171-1180.

Slicker, E. K. (1998). Relationship of parenting style to behavioural adjustment in graduating high school seniors. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, 27(3), 345-372.

Smetana, J. G. (1997). Parenting and development of social knowledge reconceptualized: A social domain analysis. In J. E. Grusec & L. Kuczynski (Eds), *Parenting and children's internalization of values: A handbook of contemporary theory* (pp.162-192). New York: Wiley.

Smith, J. P. (1990). *How to solve student adjustment problems: A step-by step guide for teachers and counsellors*. New York: Centre for Applied Research in Education.

Staples, R. & Johnson, L. B. (1993). *Black families at the crossroads: Challenges and prospects* (1st ed.). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Steinberg, L., Elmen, J. & Mounts, N. (1989). Authoritative parenting, psychosocial maturity, and academic success among adolescents. *Child Development*, 60, 1424-1436.

Steinberg, L., Lamborn, S. D., Dornbusch, S. M. & Darling, N. (1992). Impact of parenting practices on adolescent achievement authoritative parenting, school involvement and encouragement to succeed. *Child-Development*, 63, 1266-1281.

Steinberg, L., Lamborn, S. D., Darling, N., Mounts, N. S. & Dornbusch, S.M. (1994). Over-time changes in adjustment and competence among adolescents from authoritative, authoritarian, indulgent and neglectful families. *Child Development*, 65, 754-770.

Tabachnick, B. G. & Fidell, L. S. (1996). *Using multivariate statistics*. (3rd ed.). Northridge: Harper Collins College.

Taylor, K. K., Gibbs, A. S. & Slate, J. R. (2000). Preschool attendance and kindergarten readiness. *Early Childhood Education Journal*, 27, 191-195.

Valentine, C. W. (1953). *Parents and children*. London: Methuen.

Van Ede, D. M., Ferns, I. & Shantall, H. M. S(2001). *Child development: Measuring instruments for research participants*. Unpublished manuscript, Department of Psychology, University of South Africa.

Wadsworth, J., Taylor, B., Osborn, A. & Butler, N. (1984). Teenage mothering: Child development at five years. *Journal of Child Psychiatry*, 25 (2), 305-313.

Wakschlag, L. S., Gordon, R. A., Lahey, B. B., Loeder, R., Green, S. M. & Leventhal, B. L. (2000). Maternal age at first birth and boys' risk for conduct disorder. *Journal of Research on Adolescence*, 10 (4), 417-441.

Welsh, J. A. & Bierman, K. L. (1998). *Social competence*. Gale Encyclopedia of Childhood & Adolescence. Gale Research. Retrieved November 11, 2001, from Find articles database Encyclopedia Web: <http://www.findarticles.com>.

Willers, V. A. (1996). *Environmental concern in South Africa*. Unpublished masters dissertation, University of South Africa, Pretoria.

Williams, F. (1992). *Reasoning with statistics: How to read quantitative research* (4th ed.). New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich College.

APPENDIX A

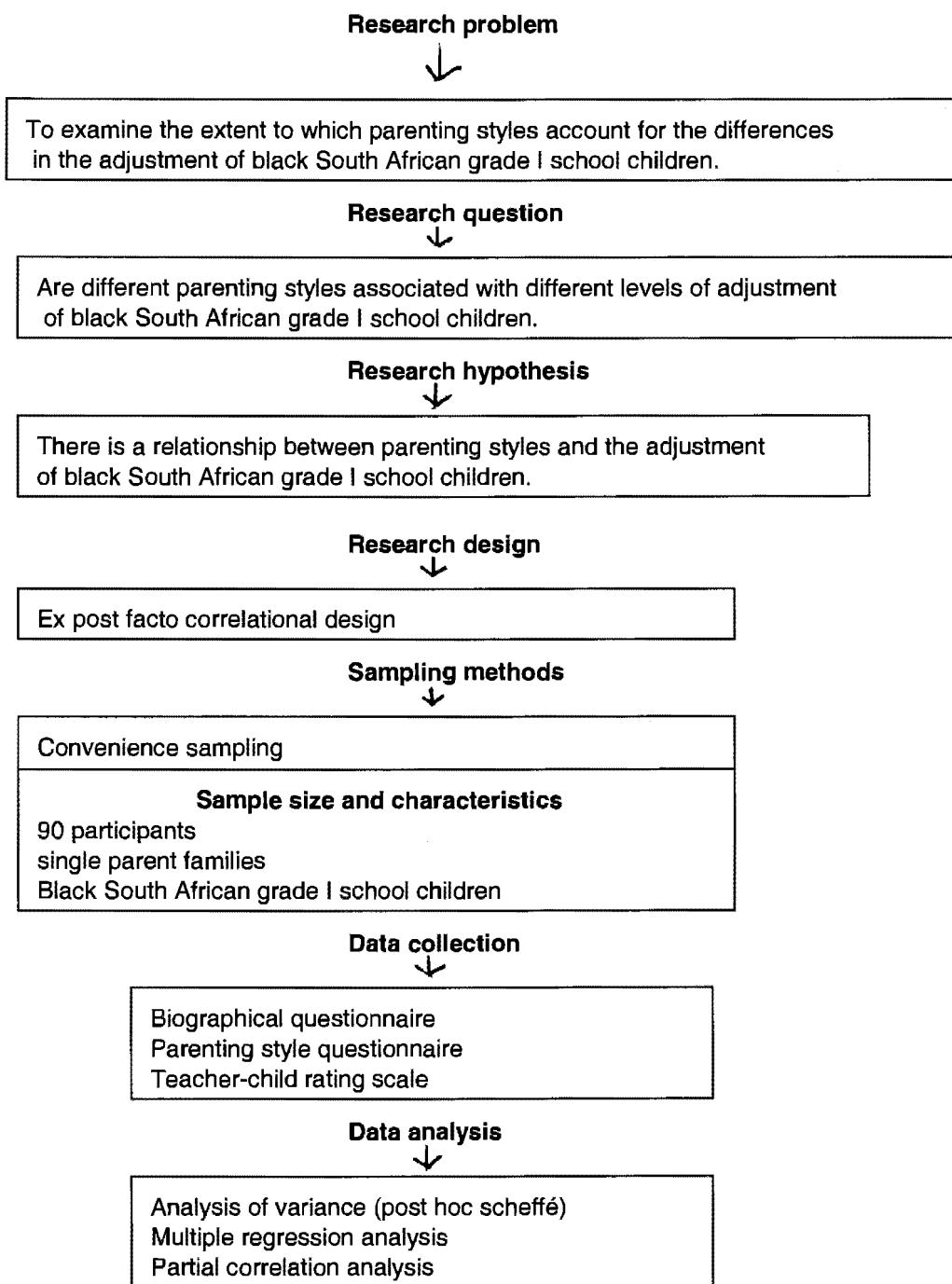


Figure 4 A diagrammatic representation of phases followed in the research process

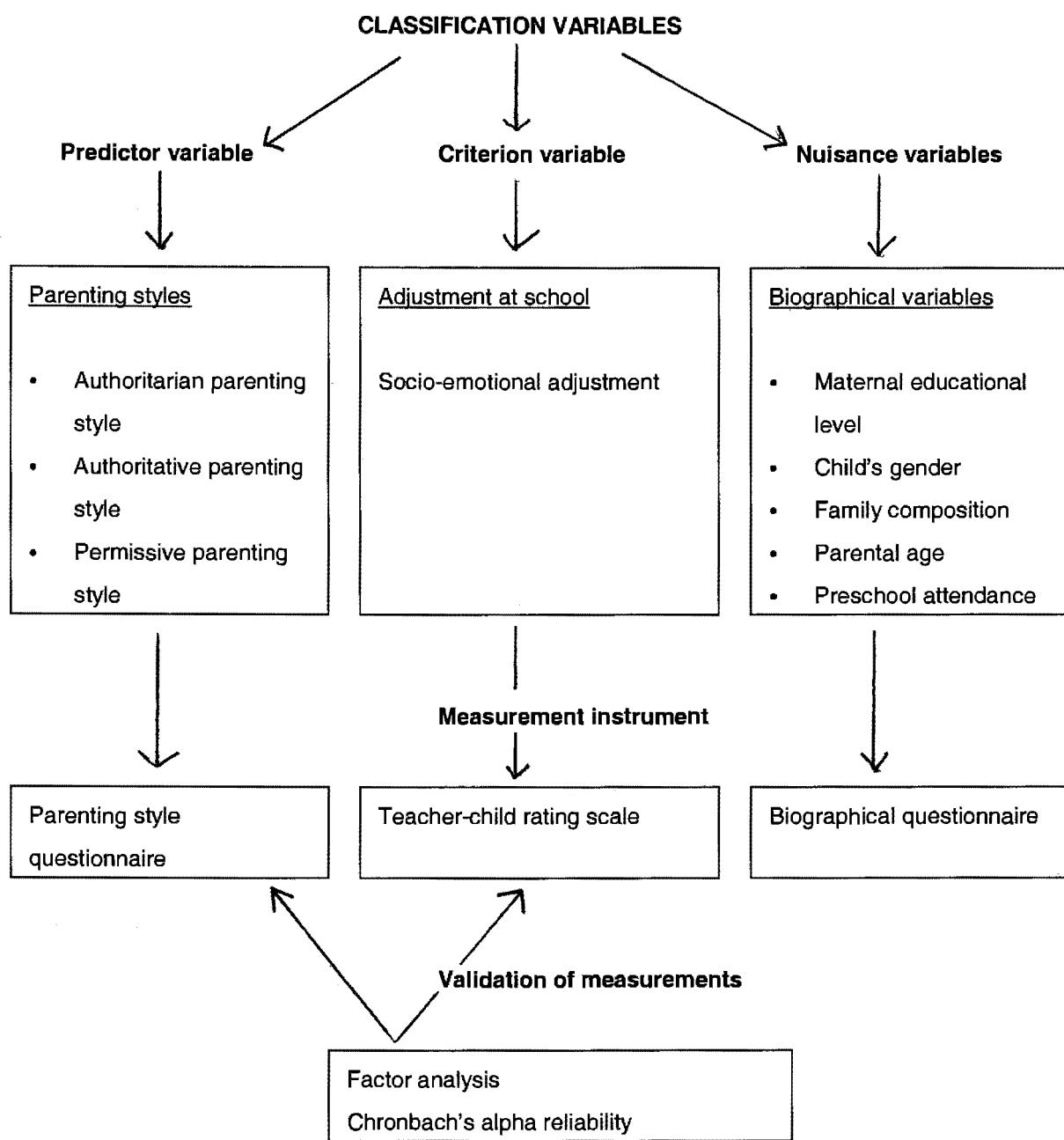


Figure 5 Diagrammatic presentation of variables, measurement instruments and validation procedures

APPENDIX B

PARENTING QUESTIONNAIRE

Name of your child registered for grade I

The following questions relate to parental behaviour. Each question is followed by five possible answers. Draw a circle around the number corresponding to the answer that best describes how often you show the particular types of behaviour. Please bear in mind that the behaviour of parents differs. There are no right or wrong answers. Circle only one number for each answer to a question. If you **never** show the indicated type of behaviour, then circle number 1. If you **sometimes** show the indicated type of behaviour, circle number 2. If you **regularly** show the indicated type of behaviour, then circle number 3. If you **often** show the particular type of behaviour, circle 4 and if you **always** show the indicated type of behaviour, circle 5.

Read the following questions attentively and answer them by encircling the appropriate numbers.

Questions	Never	Sometimes	Regularly	Often	Always
1. When your child behaves unacceptably, how often do you try to draw his/her attention to something else?	1	2	3	4	5
2 If your child does not listen to you, how often do you force him/her to obey you?	1	2	3	4	5
3 If your child lands in difficulties, how often do you decide not to be too bothered about it?	1	2	3	4	5

Questions	Never	Sometimes	Regularly	Often	Always
4 How often do you allow your child to do whatever he/she wants?	1	2	3	4	5
5 When you feel you have to punish your child, how often do you do it physically?	1	2	3	4	5
6 When your child decides what he/she wants to wear, how often do you allow him/her to do that?	1	2	3	4	5
7 When your child has done something wrong and he/she seeks your forgiveness, how often do you ignore him/her?	1	2	3	4	5
8 How often do you allow your child to do something which you previously expected him/her not to do?	1	2	3	4	5
9 When your child is naughty, how often do you threaten him/her with punishment?	1	2	3	4	5
10 How often do you hug your child?	1	2	3	4	5
11 How often do you allow your child to misbehave if he/she feels like it?	1	2	3	4	5
12 How often do you find that you do not experience the inclination to spend time with your child?	1	2	3	4	5

Questions	Never	Sometimes	Regularly	Often	Always
13 When your child does sometimes wrong, how often do you smack him/her?	1	2	3	4	5
14 How often do you set ultimatums to your child regarding his/her behaviour, without explaining why you are doing it?	1	2	3	4	5
15 When your child wants to tell you something, how often do you listen to him/her?	1	2	3	4	5
16 How often do you enforce rules for behaviour no matter what the circumstances?	1	2	3	4	5
17 How often do you encourage your child to say whatever he/she pleases?	1	2	3	4	5
18 How often do you feel that your first responsibility is towards yourself and that the needs of your child must wait?	1	2	3	4	5
19 When your child is being difficult, how often do you make an alternative suggestion to elicit cooperative behaviour from your child?	1	2	3	4	5
20 How often do you initiate activities with your child?	1	2	3	4	5

Questions	Never	Sometimes	Regularly	Often	Always
21 How often do you expect your child to submit to your authority as his/her parent?	1	2	3	4	5
22 If you have to explain the social rules your child is expected to obey in the homes of his/her friends, how often do you find you have difficulty in doing so?	1	2	3	4	5
23 How often do you feel unresponsive when your child expresses some or other need?	1	2	3	4	5
24 When your child insists on doing something that might be harmful, how often do you suggest a safe alternative?	1	2	3	4	5
25 When your child wants to spend time with you, how often do you do that?	1	2	3	4	5
26 How often do you show your anger at your child's misbehaviour?	1	2	3	4	5
27 How often do you allow your child to do whatever he/she wants to do without insisting on adherence to any codes of conduct?	1	2	3	4	5

Questions	Never	Sometimes	Regularly	Often	Always
28 How often do you forget something that your child wanted you to remember?	1	2	3	4	5
29 How often do you reason with your child about what you are expecting him/her to do?	1	2	3	4	5
30 When your child shows you something he/she has done, how often do you take note of how well he/she did it?	1	2	3	4	5
31 How often do you need to discipline your child in order to help him/her gain control over his/her inherent ill-nature?	1	2	3	4	5
32 When your child misbehaves, how often do you ignore it?	1	2	3	4	5
33 When you have to chose between something that is of importance to your child, how often do you chose to pursue what is important to you?	1	2	3	4	5
34 How often do you change your expectations regarding acceptable behaviour on the part of your child?	1	2	3	4	5

Questions	Never	Sometimes	Regularly	Often	Always
35 How often do you expect your child to totally adhere to set standards of behaviour?	1	2	3	4	5
36 When your child takes something from the shelves while you are shopping in a supermarket, how often do you allow it?	1	2	3	4	5
37 How often do you ask your child what he/she is busy doing?	1	2	3	4	5
38 When your child insists on something, how often do you give in and let him/her have it?	1	2	3	4	5
39 When you pick up your child from a party, how often do you inquire what your child did at the part?	1	2	3	4	5
40 How often do you use strong measures of discipline to secure the absolute obedience of your child?	1	2	3	4	5
41 If your child can sit still for a length of time, how often do you expect him/her to do so, for example, when attending a service?	1	2	3	4	5

Questions	Never	Sometimes	Regularly	Often	Always
42 If your child refuses to obey you, how often do you totally withdraw yourself from him/her to show your displeasure?	1	2	3	4	5
43 When your child is upset about something, how often do you feel unmoved by it?	1	2	3	4	5
44 If your child had done something, how often do you show him/her that you are pleased with him/her?	1	2	3	4	5
45 If your child objects to a restriction, how often do you insist that he/she should adhere to it?	1	2	3	4	5
46 How often do you hide your anger when your child does something that you do not like?	1	2	3	4	5
47 When your child seeks your attention, how often do you send him/her away?	1	2	3	4	5
48 When your child is trying to do something to please you, how often do you make your child feel that it is still not good enough?	1	2	3	4	5

Questions	Never	Sometimes	Regularly	Often	Always
49 When your child comes up with a good suggestion, how often do you support his/her view?	1	2	3	4	5
50 How often do you force your child to do something even if he/she does not want to do it?	1	2	3	4	5
51 How often do you do everything for your child and not expect him/her to do anything by him/herself?	1	2	3	4	5
52 How often do you wish rather not to have been a parent?	1	2	3	4	5
53 How often do you reward your child immediately after he/she has shown good behaviours?	1	2	3	4	5
54 When you have a family discussion and your child offers an opinion, how often do you consider it?	1	2	3	4	5
55 If an older child is nasty to your child, how often will you allow it?	1	2	3	4	5
56 When your child is behaving in an unacceptable manner, how often do you feel reluctant to control his/her behaviour?	1	2	3	4	5

Questions	Never	Sometimes	Regularly	Often	Always
57 How often do you feel that you really couldn't be bothered about what your child wants?	1	2	3	4	5
58 How often do you feel that you expect your child to comply with the family routine?	1	2	3	4	5
59 How often do you punish your child immediately after he/she has done something wrong?	1	2	3	4	5
60 How often do you expect your child to show respect for your authority as a parent by obeying you?	1	2	3	4	5
61 If your child expects something unrealistic, how often do you offer a more practical suggestion?	1	2	3	4	5
62 How often do you expect your child to obey certain standards of behaviour?	1	2	3	4	5
63 How often do you discuss what you expect from your child in order to make your expectations clear to him/her?	1	2	3	4	5

Questions	Never	Sometimes	Regularly	Often	Always
64 If your child refuses to abide by acceptable standards of behaviour, how often do you nonetheless insist that you expect good behaviour from your child?	1	2	3	4	5
65 If your child behaves badly, how often do you show your displeasure with the bad behaviour?	1	2	3	4	5
66 If your child willfully disobeys your instruction, how often do you call him/her to task?	1	2	3	4	5
67 If you plan to take your child on an outing, how often do you ask him/her what it is that he/she would like to do?	1	2	3	4	5
68 If your child is untidy, how often do you expect him/her to help you to tidy up?	1	2	3	4	5
69 How often are you physically rough with your child to make him/her understand that he/she must obey you?	1	2	3	4	5
70 How often do you show appreciation of your child by saying something loving to him/her?	1	2	3	4	5

Questions	Never	Sometimes	Regularly	Often	Always
71 How often do you have a conversation with your child?	1	2	3	4	5
72 How often do you explain to your child why you expect certain behaviours from him/her?	1	2	3	4	5
73 If your child does not want to listen to you, how often do you discuss why you want him/her to do something?	1	2	3	4	5
74 How often do you expect your child to do what you know he/she is able to do?	1	2	3	4	5
75 How often do you reward your child for good behaviour?	1	2	3	4	5
76 How often do you make a fuss of your child's birthday?	1	2	3	4	5
77 How often do you expect your child to understand that rules are to be strictly obeyed?	1	2	3	4	5
78 When you are discussing something with family members, how often do you invite your child to participate in the discussion?	1	2	3	4	5
79 How often do you impose definite limits on what your child is allowed to do?	1	2	3	4	5

Questions	Never	Sometimes	Regularly	Often	Always
80 If your child doesn't do what you want him/her to do, how often do you insist that he/she should be obedient to you?	1	2	3	4	5
81 How often do you expect things from your child which he/she is unable to do?	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX C

TEACHER CHILD RATING SCALE

Name of the child

The following questions relate to children's adjustment at school. Each question is followed by five possible answers. Draw a circle around the number corresponding to the answer that best describe the behaviour of the child. Please bear in mind that the behaviour of the child differs. There are no right and wrong answers. Circle only one number for each answer to a question. If the child does **not at all** show the indicated type of behaviour, then circle number **1**. If the child does **sometimes** show the indicated types of behaviour circle number **2**. If the child **regularly** show the indicated type of behaviour, then circle number **3**. If the child **often** show the particular type of behaviour, then circle **4** and if he/she always show the indicated type of behaviour, circle **5**.

Questions	Not at all	Sometimes	Regularly	Often	Always
1 How often is the child disruptive in class?	1	2	3	4	5
2 How often does the child show withdrawal at school?	1	2	3	4	5
3 How often does the child underachieve in class?	1	2	3	4	5

Questions	Never	Sometimes	Regularly	Often	Always
4 How often does the child show fidgety and difficulty to sitting still?	1	2	3	4	5
5 How often does the child become shy in class?	1	2	3	4	5
6 How often does the child show poor work habits?	1	2	3	4	5
7 How often does the child disturb others while they are working?	1	2	3	4	5
8 How often does the child show to be anxious or worried in class?	1	2	3	4	5
9 How often does the child show lack of concentration and limited attention?	1	2	3	4	5

Questions	Never	Sometimes	Regularly	Often	Always
10 How often does the child seek attention from others?	1	2	3	4	5
11 How often does the child become nervous, frightened and tense in class?	1	2	3	4	5
12 How often does the child show difficulty following directions?	1	2	3	4	5
13 How often does the child become overly aggressive to peers at school?	1	2	3	4	5
14 How often does the child refuse to express feelings in class?	1	2	3	4	5
15 How often does the child show poor motivation to achieve?	1	2	3	4	5

Questions	Never	Sometimes	Regularly	Often	Always
16 How often does the child become defiant, obstinate and stubborn?	1	2	3	4	5
17 How often does the child seem to be unhappy, depressed and sad?	1	2	3	4	5
18 How often does the child show interest in learning academic subjects?	1	2	3	4	5
19 How often does the child defend his/her own views under group pressure?	1	2	3	4	5
20 How often does the child complete his/her work?	1	2	3	4	5
21 How often does the child accepts things not going his/her way?	1	2	3	4	5

Questions	Never	Sometimes	Regularly	Often	Always
22 How often does the child seems to be well organised?	1	2	3	4	5
23 How often does the child carries out requests responsibly?	1	2	3	4	5
24 How often does the child show being comfortable as a leader?	1	2	3	4	5
25 How often does the child show working well without adult support?	1	2	3	4	5
26 How often does the child show balanced and stable mood?	1	2	3	4	5
27 How often does the child show functioning well even with distractions?	1	2	3	4	5

Questions	Never	Sometimes	Regularly	Often	Always
28 How often does the child participate in class?	1	2	3	4	5
29 How often does the child show interest in school work?	1	2	3	4	5
30 How often does the child copes well with failure?	1	2	3	4	5
31 How often does the child show a sense of humour?	1	2	3	4	5
32 How often does the child show been generally relaxed?	1	2	3	4	5
33 How often does the child express ideas willingly?	1	2	3	4	5
34 How often does the child show self initiativity?	1	2	3	4	5

Questions	Never	Sometimes	Regularly	Often	Always
35 How often does the child faces the pressures of competition?	1	2	3	4	5
36 How often does the child question rules that are unfair/unclear?	1	2	3	4	5
37 How often does the child show being liked by classmates?	1	2	3	4	5
38 How often does the child function well in unstructured situation?	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX D

BIOGRAPHICAL QUESTIONNAIRE

Name of your child registered for grade I

1 What is your age (in years)

1 2 3 4 5

20-27	28-34	35-41	42-48	49 and above
-------	-------	-------	-------	--------------

2 Gender:

1 2

Male	Female
------	--------

3 Which language did you learn to speack first (your mother tongue)?

Mark here

Sotho (South or Northern Sotho)	
Tsonga	
Tswana	
Venda	
Xhosa	
Zulu	
Ndebele	
Ndonga	
Shona	
Swazi	
Afrikaans	
English	
Other languages (specify)	
.....

4. What is your marital status?

1

2

3

4

5

Never married	Divorced	Window / Widower	Separated	Married
---------------	----------	------------------	-----------	---------

5 What is your qualification?

Tick here

None	
Std 5 (Grade 7) or less	
Std 6 to 8 (Grade 8 to 10)	
Std 9 to 10 (Grade 11 to 12)	
Diploma (2 years study after Std. 10)	
Postgraduate diploma	
Trained atrisanship	
Baccalareus degree	
Honours degree	
Master's degree	
Doctoral degree	
Other (specify):	

6 What is your occupation/work

1

2

3

4

5

1-5 hours	6-10 hours	11-15 hours	16-20 hours	21 and more hours
-----------	------------	-------------	-------------	-------------------

8 How often do you take your child with you when you are visiting friends?

1

2

3

4

Never	Sometimes	Regularly	Always
-------	-----------	-----------	--------

9 How often do you take your child with you when you are visiting family?

1

2

3

4

Never	Sometimes	Regularly	Always
-------	-----------	-----------	--------

10 How many children do you have?

1

2

3

4

5

One	Two	Three	Four	Five and more
-----	-----	-------	------	---------------

11 What is the gender of the child who is involved in this research project?

1

2

Male	Female
------	--------

12 Did he/she attend preschool before?

1

2

Yes	No
-----	----