THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PARENTING STYLE AND PROSOCIAL BEHAVIOUR
OF PREADOLESCENTS IN A SOUTH AFRICAN CONTEXT

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Declaration

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ABSTRACT

Prosocial behaviour plays an important role in preadolescents’ development of social skills. Research has established that parenting styles are important correlates of the youth’s prosocial behaviour. The current study examined the associations between different types of parenting styles (i.e. authoritarian, authoritative, permissive), which historically have influenced the prosocial behaviour of children. The present study aimed to identify aspects of parenting style that are associated with prosocial behaviour, situated within the sphere of Baumrind’s parenting styles typology (1981). The study was conducted at two secondary schools in the Athlone District in the Western Cape, South Africa.

A cross-sectional design was used to conduct the study with a sample of 120 preadolescents (35 boys (29%), and 87 girls (71%), mean age 13.5 years). Data was collected using the parenting styles dimensions questionnaire (PSDQ) and the revised prosocial tendencies measure (PTM-R). These are self-reporting measures that were used to assess the parenting style of the participants’ mothers and fathers.

Quantitative analyses revealed the following factors to be statistically significantly correlated with prosocial behaviour in preadolescents in this sample: The quantitative findings were reported in terms of two constructs, namely parenting style (with corresponding parenting characteristics) and the dimensions of prosocial behaviour. Maternal authoritarian parenting was significantly positively associated with one type of prosocial behaviour, namely dire. The parenting characteristics, connection and regulation, displayed by mothers are both positively correlated with anonymous prosocial behaviour. Paternal authoritative parenting is significantly and positively associated with one type of prosocial behaviour, namely public. The results for fathers reflect a significant positive correlation between the parenting style characteristics, connection and punitive and public and anonymous prosocial behaviour. However, the fathers’ parenting characteristic, namely autonomy granting, was significantly negatively correlated with altruistic prosocial behaviour. No significant correlations were found between parenting style and permissive parenting. The results reflect a
relationship between the parenting styles (and the characteristics of the parenting styles) and certain types of prosocial behaviour by the participants in this study.

These findings suggest that authoritarian and authoritative parenting styles influence the prosocial behaviour of preadolescents in a low socio-economic community in South Africa.

Furthermore, the results suggest that change relating to parenting style and the associated parenting characteristics, e.g., authoritative parenting and connection, may influence prosocial behaviour in preadolescents in the future. The results can also be used by community development practitioners to conduct parenting workshops to inform parents about the different parenting styles and the related characteristics. The findings of the current study might contribute to the development of prosocial behaviour in youth living on the Cape Flats in the Western Cape Province, South Africa.
Prososiale gedrag speel ’n groot rol in die ontwikkeling van die sosiale vaardighede van voor-adolessente. Navorsing het bevestig dat ouerskapstyle bydra tot die jeug se prososiale gedrag. Die huidige studie het die verbintenisse ondersoek tussen verschillende ouerskapstyle (naamlik outoritêr, gesaghebbend en permissief) wat histories gevind is om die prososiale gedrag van kinders te beïnvloed. Die doel van die huidige studie was om aspekte van ouerskapstyle te identifiseer wat verband hou met prososiale gedrag, binne die sfeer van Baumrind (1981) se tipologie van ouerskapstyle. Die navorsing is gedoen by twee skole in die Athlone distrik in die Kaapse Metropool, Wes-Kaap provinsie, Suid-Afrika.

’n Deursnit-ontwerp is gebruik om die studie onder ’n steekproef van 120 voor-adolessente (35 seuns (29%) en 87 meisies (71%), gemiddelde ouderdom 13.5 jaar) te onderneem. Data is ingesamel met twee self-voltooingsvraelyste, naamlik die ouerskap-vraelys (*parenting styles dimensional questionnaire (PSDO)*) en die hersiene prososiale tendensvraelys (*revised prosocial tendencies measure (PTM-R)*). Hierdie vraelyste is gebruik om die ouerskapstyle van die deelnemers se ma’s en pa’s te assesseer.

Kwantitatiewe analise het getoon dat die volgende faktore statisties betekenisvol gekorreleer is met prososiale gedrag in voor-adolessente in hierdie steekproef: Die kwantitatiewe bevindings is gerapporteer in terme van twee konstrukte, naamlik ouerskapstyl (met ooreenstemmende ouerskapkenmerke) en die dimensies van prososiale gedrag. Moederlike outoritêre ouerskap is betekenisvol gekorreleer met een soort prososiale gedrag, naamlik nypend. Die ouerskapkenmerke, nl. verbintenis en regulasie, wat deur die moeders vertoon is, is albei positief gekorreleer met anonieme prososiale gedrag. Vaderlike outoritatiewe ouerskap is betekenisvol gekorreleer met een soort prososiale gedrag, naamlik openbaar. Die resultate vir die vaders weerspieël ’n positiewe korrelasie tussen die volgende kenmerke van ouerskapstyle, nl. verbintenis en bestraffend en die prososiale gedragsdimensies openbaar en anoniem. Die vaders se ouerskapkenmerk, naa
outomonietoekenning, is egter betekenisvol gekorreleer met altruïstiese prososiale gedrag. Geen betekenisvolle korrelasies is gevind tussen die permissiewe ouerskapstyl en prososiale gedrag nie. Die resultate weerspieël ’n verhouding tussen die ouerskapstyle (en die kenmerke van die ouerskapstyle) en sekere soorte prososiale gedrag van die deelnemers aan hierdie studie. Hierdie bevindings stel voor dat outoritêre en gesaghebbende ouerskapstyle die prososiale gedrag van voor-adolessente in ’n lae sosioëkonomiese gemeenskap in Suid-Afrika beïnvloed. Verder suggereer hierdie resultate dat verandering wat verband hou met ouerskapstyl, tesame met die verwante kenmerke van ouerskap, bv. outoritêre ouerskap en verbintenis, in die toekoms prososiale gedrag in voor-adolessente kan beïnvloed. Die resultate kan ook deur gemeenskapsontwikkelingspraktisyns gebruik word om ouerskapswerkswinkels aan te bied om ouers in te lig oor die verskillende ouerskapstyle en hulle verwante kenmerke. Die bevindings van die huidige studie kan moontlik bydra tot die ontwikkeling van prososiale gedrag deur jeugdiges wat op die Kaapse Vlakte in die Wes-Kaap van Suid-Afrika woon.
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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION TO THIS STUDY

1.1 Introduction

Research studies in South Africa and internationally have predominantly focused on negative aspects of youth, such as problem behaviour and delinquency (Damon, 2004). This study examined the prosocial behaviour of preadolescents, which is a developmental stage of youth (Berk, 2009), in relation to parenting style. A review of existing scholarship in South Africa revealed that relatively few research studies have been conducted with preadolescents in a positive context (Damon, 2004). This view is supported by Decety (2010), who reported that there is space for crucial research on positive aspects of development in children in South Africa. Subsequently, scholars Roman et al. (2015) identified fresh avenues of research in the parenting domain related to parenting styles and adolescent life goals in a South African environment. This perception is maintained by Roman, Makwakwa and Lacante (2016) who conducted a study related to parenting and adolescents in South Africa. However, no known existing scholarship in the field of parenting and prosocial behaviour studies has collectively combined the variables of parenting style and prosocial behaviour in this context. A study of preadolescents’ prosocial behaviour is important and will shift our focus to positive aspects of preadolescent behaviour (Sgaramella, Ginevra, Di Maggio, Santilli, & Ferrari, 2015).

Prosocial behaviour is vital for society to be functional (Knafo & Plomin, 2006) and can be described as charitable activities that are carried out for the benefit of another person or group of individuals, e.g., sharing, comforting and helping others, cooperation and perspective taking (Carlo & Randall, 2001; Decety, 2010; Eisenberg, Fabes & Spinrad, 2006; Lam, 2012; Rasit & Razab, 2019).

To expand and on this Carlo and Randall (2001) identified six types of prosocial behaviours: altruistic prosocial behaviour, complacent prosocial behaviour, emotional prosocial behaviour, public prosocial behaviour and anonymous prosocial behaviour.

Many children in South Africa live in poverty, which predisposes them to become delinquents, thus research that focuses on prosocial behaviours such as empathy is important (Decety, 2010). International literature reported that empathy and the lack thereof are predictors of prosocial or antisocial behaviour in children (Orrie, 2014).
However, international research outcomes may not apply in a South African context (Orrie, 2014). Subsequently, a study was conducted by Orrie (2014), who investigated the relationship between empathy and behaviour in children from a low socioeconomic background living in the Western Cape, South Africa. The aim of Orrie’s (2014) study was to investigate whether empathy relates to behaviour in children from a low socioeconomic background in the Western Cape in South Africa, concentrating on the components of empathy and whether they are predictors of prosocial or antisocial behaviours in children. The results indicate that the presence of empathy was not a predictor of prosocial behaviour or antisocial behaviour in the participants (Orrie, 2014).

The participants in this current study came from a similar background as the children in the study conducted by Orrie (2014). Empathy plays a vital part in the development of morals and is frequently linked to prosocial behaviours (Decety, 2010). Therefore, the research conducted by Orrie (2014) is relevant to this current study.

Tancred and Greeff (2015) conducted a study in South Africa with children who have attention deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD) and their mothers. The aim of this study was to determine how the parenting styles of mothers are related to the coping strategies and adaptability of families with a child diagnosed with ADHD. The results indicate that medication and mothers’ authoritative parenting, which includes the dimensions of connection (warmth and support) and regulation (consistent discipline and explanation of rules), contributed significantly to the adjustment in family adaptation with children diagnosed with ADHD (Tancred & Greeff, 2015). This contrasted with mothers’ authoritarian and permissive parenting styles, which were negatively associated with family adaptation (Tancred & Greeff, 2015). There are commonalities in the constructs studied by the aforementioned research and this current study; the investigators examined parenting styles in a South African context. The age of the participants, however, differs as well as the social backgrounds of the participants. Tancred and Greeff (2015) also used the PDSQ designed by Robinson, Mandleco, Olsen and Hart (2001) to examine the parenting styles of the participants in their study.

Aziz (2017) conducted a study in Positive Youth Development (PYD) and explored how a youth religious ministry can become an agency of PYD for vulnerable youth on the Cape Flats in South Africa. The aim of the study was to engage with youth through a PYD initiative based on Christian principles; to develop their identity in society, and to promote positive behaviour in youth living on the Cape Flats, through a faith-based program. The focus areas of PYD programmes includes prosocial activities and recognition of positive behaviour and
models of prosocial customs (Aziz, 2017; Bonell et al., 2016). As an outcome Aziz (2017), recommends that identity formation and positive youth development of young people is an ongoing process of self-inspection and activities taken by both the PYD practitioner and the youth. This study is relevant to my research because the participants in both studies are youth from the Cape Flats an area plagued by crime and antisocial behaviour, high unemployment, poverty and gangsterism (Aziz, 2017). The PYD perspective is one of the underlying theories of this current study.

People with different educational, cultural, financial, or racial backgrounds differ in their level of prosocial behaviour (Guinote, Cotzia, Sandhu, & Siwa, 2015). Guinote et al. (2015) found that individuals from low socio-economic backgrounds and ethnic minorities show more prosocial behaviour compared to their counterparts who enjoy high economic status.

Dianna Baumrind (1989, 1991), renowned developmental psychologist, defines parenting styles as the regular norms and approaches in which parents engage with their children along two parental scopes, namely demandingness and responsiveness. Demandingness refers to the parental approaches used to assimilate children into the family by demanding responsible behaviour, supervising, or disciplining them, and the inclination to confront behavioural difficulties (Baumrind, 1991). Responsiveness refers to the degree to which parents nurture independence, self-control, and self-confidence, and by agreeing to or being mindful and sympathetic towards their children’s needs and demands (Baumrind 1989, 1991). Baumrind classifies three parenting styles contingent on the extent of responsiveness and demandingness displayed by parents in child rearing, namely authoritarian, permissive, and authoritative (Baumrind, 1989, 1991, 2005). Consequently, this study’s research focus is on the relationship between parenting style and prosocial behaviour of preadolescents.

Researchers who study parent and adolescent behaviour are increasingly studying the impact of parenting on adolescent development and how experiences in the family and other environments influence adolescents’ behavioural outcomes (Collins, Maccoby, Steinberg, Hetherington, & Bornstein, 2000). Carr and Springer (2010) reported that parents are conduits through which children learn fitting or inappropriate behaviour. Herein lies the context in which the child experiences right and wrong choices, learns decision-making, acquires skills and learns the norms and roles of their community (Carr & Springer, 2010; Roman et al., 2015).
Roman et al. (2015) report that an authoritative parenting style adopted by mothers of adolescents influences their children’s life goals and aspirations. A central function of parents is to integrate children into society. Children are taught the norms and acceptable behaviour of their community (Berk, 2009). As children grow older, parents’ expectations of socially acceptable behaviour are intensified (Berk, 2009). However, parents differ in their parenting styles (Berk, 2009). Parenting style has been described as the extent to which parents exhibit affection, approval and attention towards their children (Baumrind, 1989). Parenting styles have a meaningful impact on the prosocial conduct of children and adolescents (Hastings, Utendale, & Sullivan, 2007).

Roman et al. (2016) conducted a study in South Africa to examine the perceptions of parenting styles and the effects of gender and ethnicity. Roman et al. (2016) reported that there is a shortage of studies regarding parenting style in South Africa. The Roman et al. (2016) study was conducted with adolescents comparing parenting styles across ethnic groups. The respondents reported on their parent’s style of parenting. The Parenting Style and Dimension Questionnaire was used to collect the data. They found the maternal authoritative parenting style to be the most prevalent across and within groups. Fathers’ parenting style was perceived as significantly different in three ethnic groups, but mothers’ parenting styles were not perceived as significantly different.

Baumrind’s parenting styles theory has been proven by numerous studies to be an effective way to investigate parenting styles (Baumrind, 2005; Laible & Carlo, 2004; Roman et al., 2015; Roman et al., 2016).

1.2 Key Concepts

Key concepts that I clarify are adolescence, preadolescence and prosocial behaviour and parenting style, since these four concepts are of significance in this study.

Adolescence

Hall (1904) initiated the scientific study of adolescence. Hall (1904) proposed that adolescence is inherently a time of “storm and stress”. During this phase, adolescents tend to behave negatively, engage in conflict and defy social norms, moral principles and rules of conduct (Caissy, 1994; Hall, 1904). However, adolescence is no longer being referred to as a stage of storm and stress and antisocial behaviour. Young people are also being seen from a more positive and strength-based perspective. Problems are viewed from a broader array of outcomes, which include positive change (Lerner, Almerigi, Theokas, & Lerner, 2005). Adolescence refers to the period of
human development that occurs between the ages of 10 and 21 years (Papalia, Olds, & Feldman, 2006). Adolescence can be divided into three stages: preadolescence, middle adolescence and late adolescence (UNICEF, 2011).

**Preadolescence**

Preadolescence is the first stage of adolescence and occurs from the ages of 10 to 14 years (UNICEF, 2011). Preadolescence is a period when several changes take place over a short period of time. For example, rapid physical and hormonal development is experienced during this phase. This transition from childhood also brings about changes in preadolescents’ relationships with their family members. During this developmental stage, young people experience a period of significant demands and challenges (Caissy, 1994; Fabes, Carlo, Kupanopff, & Laible, 1999).

**Prosocial behaviour**

Considering that prosocial behaviour is defined as any behaviour intended to help others, society should be interested in such behaviours, as they will have a positive impact on its people (McGinley, 2008). To expand, prosocial behaviour can be described as charitable activities that are carried out for the benefit of another person or group of individuals, e.g., sharing, comforting and helping others, cooperation and perspective taking (Eisenberg et al., 2006; Lam, 2012, Olivari, Tagliabue & Confalonieri, 2013; Rasit & Razab, 2019).

**Parenting style**

Parenting style has been described as the extent to which parents’ exhibit affection, approval and attention towards their children (Baumrind, 1989; Collins, Duncanson, & Burrows, 2014). Parenting styles reflect the parent’s values, practices, and behaviours, as well as their level of responsiveness or demandingness in raising their children, which has various outcomes for children (Baumrind, 1991; Roman et al., 2015).

1.3 Motivation for this study

This study addresses a gap in the literature. No recently recorded studies have been conducted on the relationship between parenting style and the prosocial behaviour of preadolescents in vulnerable communities in South Africa. The findings of this study will help to understand the relationship between the variables of parenting style and global prosocial behaviour in a very specific South African context. The knowledge gained from this study
could contribute to the advancement of prosocial behaviour in youth, as well as to the implementation of interventions (Eisenberg et al., 2006). The findings of this study may also benefit parents. It will give parents an indication of which parenting style will best promote prosocial behaviour in their children.

It has been suggested in previous studies that low socio-economic status predisposes one to behavioural problems (Brooks-Gunn & Duncan, 1997). However, according to Damon (2004) and Sgaramella et al. (2015), preadolescents from vulnerable communities will develop in positive ways when their strengths are reinforced with support from their parents. Furthermore, the results of this study will help educators to have a better understanding of the behaviour of preadolescents from this specific community.

South African schools have been depicted as having high levels of violence and antisocial behaviour (Burton & Leoschut, 2013). According to the National School Violence Study conducted in 2012 by the Centre for Justice and Crime Prevention, 22.2% of high school learners have been threatened with violence or have been victims of assault, robbery or sexual violence at school (Burton & Leoschut, 2013). This negative picture of youth has been portrayed in the media for many years, and adolescence has become known to be a period of recklessness and antisocial behaviour (Damon, 2004; Lerner, Lerner et al., 2005). Although studies in the past focused mainly on the negative aspects of adolescence (Damon, 2004; Lerner, Lerner et al., 2005), this study focuses on the prosocial behaviour of preadolescents, which is a positive aspect of youth behaviour. The findings of this study may contribute to the body of research in the development of prosocial behaviour interventions in preadolescents in vulnerable communities.

No recent research in this context has been conducted with preadolescents and parents on the Cape Flats in South Africa. It is evident that more research studies on the relationship between parenting styles and prosocial behaviour are needed, since parenting styles may have varied effects on the ultimate behaviour of preadolescents (Hoskins, 2014).

1.4 Aims of this study

The first aim of this study was to determine the correlation between prosocial behaviour of preadolescents and parenting styles in single mothers. Secondly, this study aimed to determine the correlation between prosocial
behaviour of preadolescents and parenting styles in fathers on the Cape Flats, a low-socioeconomic area on the outskirts of Cape Town, South Africa.

1.5 Conclusion

This first chapter served to develop the main idea of the thesis and the motivation for the study. I discuss how I arrived at the research topic from preliminary reading. The aims of the study is specified, and I discussed it briefly, referring to the prevailing literature on the topic under investigation. The ultimate objective of this study was to establish whether parenting style is associated with the prosocial behaviour of preadolescents in a specific South African context.

In Chapter 2, the theoretical framework that informed the study is discussed. Thereafter, Chapter 3 provides a report on the literature pertaining to parenting style and prosocial behaviour. Chapter 4 documents the design and method that I followed during the data collection and analysis phases of the study. In Chapter 5, I report on the results of the study and, in Chapter 6, the findings are discussed in terms of related literature and theory. This is followed by a conclusion on the project as a whole, with recommendations regarding further research.
CHAPTER TWO

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 Introduction

In this chapter, Baumrind’s parenting styles theory (Baumrind, 1971, 1989, 1991), Social Learning Theory (Bandura, 1977, 1999) and the Positive Youth Development perspective (Lerner, Lerner et al., 2005) are discussed. These theories provide a framework to examine parenting style and prosocial behaviour of preadolescents in a correlational study. The first theoretical foundation on which the study is based is that of parenting style. Valuable research contributions were made in this area, and a discussion of parenting styles follows, based on the literature in this regard.

2.2 Parenting Styles

Research conducted over the past era on parenting provides immense evidence of the different parenting styles adopted by parents and its subsequent effect on raising children (Roman et al., 2015). Baumrind (1991) identifies three different parenting styles and how these parenting styles affect children’s behaviour. In a subsequent study, Maccoby and Martin (1983) extended Baumrind’s parenting styles typology and identified two key dimensions of parenting styles, namely demandingness and responsiveness.

**Demandingness** was identified as being responsible behaviour on the part of the parent, supervising or disciplining the child, and the inclination to confront the child’s behavioural difficulties (Baumrind, 1991). Furthermore, demandingness refers to the level of definite supervision practices, direct disapproval and discipline patterns applied by parents, for example implementing regulations for children to follow (Baumrind, 1991; Maccoby & Martin, 1983).

A second dimension is **responsiveness**, which refers to the degree to which parents nurture independence, self-control and self-confidence in their children, by agreeing to or being mindful and sympathetic towards their children’s need and demands (Baumrind, 1989, 1991).

Maccoby and Martin (1983) identified a fourth parenting style, based on these two dimensions, termed **neglectful** or **uninvolved** parenting, which Baumrind (1991) later included in her original parenting-style
typology. Children can be neglected on emotional, social and cognitive levels; therefore, this parenting style is considered to have the worst outcomes for children (Baumrind, 1991). This view is supported by Darling and Steinberg (1993), who identified the uninvolved parenting style as being neglectful.

2.2.1 Baumrind’s Parenting Styles Theory employed by related studies:

In a study conducted by Baumrind (1971), 103 preschool children from 95 families were observed. Baumrind (1971) studied the children’s behaviour by observing their home environment and assessed the children’s behaviour and interviewed their parents to identify their parenting style. In follow-up studies, Baumrind (1989, 1991) identified three parenting styles and classified distinctive behavioural patterns of children raised according to each parenting style. Baumrind’s research inspired a large body of research in the area of parenting styles and children’s behaviour. Maccoby and Martin (1983), added a fourth parenting style, namely neglectful or uninvolved parenting – describing parents who focus on their own needs instead of the child’s needs. Strong associations have been found between parenting styles and certain child behaviours in related studies (Baumrind, 1989; Darling & Steinberg, 1993).

2.2.2 Conclusion of Baumrind’s Framework:

Baumrind (1971, 1989, 1991), a renowned developmental psychologist, defines parenting style as the regular norms and approaches in which parents engage with their children along two dimensions, namely demandingness and responsiveness. Baumrind (1991, 2005) distinguishes between authoritarian, authoritative, and permissive parenting. Demandingness refers to the parental approaches used to assimilate children into the family by demanding responsible behaviour, supervising or disciplining them, and having the inclination to confront behavioural difficulties (Baumrind, 1971, 1989, 1991). Responsiveness refers to the degree to which parents nurture independence, self-control, and self-confidence by agreeing to or being mindful and sympathetic towards their children’s needs and demands (Baumrind, 1971, 1989, 1991). Parenting style refers to the approach parents have in guiding and directing their children (Baumrind, 1991, 2005; Roman et al., 2015).

Baumrind’s theory of parenting styles, typified by levels of control, has frequently been used to conceptualise parentings styles (Baumrind, 1971, 1991). This view is reflected in a study conducted by Darling and Steinberg (1993), who agree that research grounded in Baumrind’s conceptualisation of parenting style has formed an unusually constant depiction of the kind of parenting beneficial to the effective socialisation of children.
Subsequently, Baumrind’s parenting styles theory was used as a conceptual framework to assess children’s behaviour and their mother’s parenting style in a study conducted by Tancred and Greeff (2015) in a South African context.

2.2.3 Views on Baumrind’s Parenting Styles theory

Baumrind’s (1991) theory proposes that there is one “right” way to raise children well, and she identified authoritative parenting as the best parenting style to raise children. This has motivated debates on the topic of parenting styles. According to Holden and Miller (1999) Baumrind’s studies were correlational, therefore they merely established associations between the different parenting styles and the associated child behaviours, this points out that Baumrind’s parenting style categories reflect the dominant North American view of child development and may be different when applied in other cultures. Holden and Miller (1999). For example, a study conducted by Chao (1994) proposes that Baumrind’s concepts of authoritative and authoritarian are rather ethnocentric and do not describe vital topographies of Chinese child rearing. It is not always solely one parenting style that is employed by parents (Holden & Miller, 1999; Papalia et al., 2006). There are times when parents tend to mix their parenting styles. For example, in different circumstances a parent may use an authoritarian style to discipline a child, but generally the parent would display a more authoritative style (Holden & Miller, 1999; Papalia et al., 2006).

2.2.4 Motivation for selecting Baumrind’s Parenting Styles theory for this study

Baumrind classified three parenting styles displayed by parents in child rearing, namely authoritarian, permissive, and authoritative (Baumrind, 1989, 1991). The neglectful parenting style was identified by Maccoby and Martin (1983), who classified two dimensions of Baumrind’s permissive parenting style, namely uninvolved or neglectful parenting. Neglectful parenting was not part of Baumrind’s original parenting style typology (Baumrind, 1989, 1991). Baumrind (1991) accepted Maccoby and Martin’s (1983) neglectful parenting style later and included it in her parenting style theory.

Baumrind’s theory is helpful to assess parenting behaviours in that it distinguishes between different parenting styles, for example authoritarian parenting and permissive parenting (Baumrind, 1989; Darling & Steinberg, 1993). Baumrind’s view of parenting styles is based on sound research and has been found to yield reliable results when used in studies in the past (Baumrind, 1989; Hay, 2001; Robinson et al., 2001; Roman et al., 2015;
Tancred & Greeff, 2015). The validity of parenting style dimensions has been established cross-culturally (Carlo, McGinley, Hayes, Batenhorst, & Wilkenson, 2007; Robinson et al., 2001). Baumrind’s theory is a good foundation upon which to base one’s study, as it has been used in many studies for decades to assess parenting styles (Baumrind, 1989, 1991; Darling & Steinberg, 1993; Davids et al., 2016; Roman et al., 2015; Tancred & Greeff, 2015).

In the next section, a second theory relevant to this study, namely Social Learning Theory (Bandura, 1977), is discussed.

2.3 Social Learning Theory Framework

First, a definition of Social Learning Theory is given, followed by an explanation and an example of the theory that demonstrates practically what the theory entails. This is followed by a discussion of the assumptions upon which the theory is based, and lastly the motivation for using Social Learning theory as a framework is given.

In this current study, Social Learning Theory forms a basis from which to view parents’ behaviours towards their children, as reported by the children in the context of the study. This theory helps in understanding how parenting style models behaviour – the children imitate their parents’ behaviour in the environment in which the children grow up.

2.3.1 Social Learning Theory:

Albert Bandura’s social learning principles, as formulated in Social Learning Theory, upholds that people learn fitting public behaviour mainly by watching and copying models (e.g., a parent), which is known as observational learning (Bandura, 1977, 1999). Imitation of models is an integral part of how children learn language, deal with hostility or develop a sense of acceptable social behaviour (Bandura, 1977, 1999; Papalia et al., 2006).

Observational learning is based on the understanding that we learn from our relations with others in a societal environment, which includes the home environment, for instance (Bandura, 1977). The modelled behaviour is assimilated and imitated by others (e.g., children), particularly if their observational experiences are positive or if they are rewarded for copying the observed behaviour (Bandura, 1977).
An example of observational learning is the following: In 1961, Bandura conducted an experiment known as the Bobo doll experiment to study behavioural patterns through observational learning theory. Bandura experimented to see if behaviours were learned as a result of modelled behaviour (Newman & Newman, 2007). In the experiment, the children observed a video of an adult playing aggressively with toys, which included a Bobo doll (a Bobo doll is a large, blow-up, clown-like doll). The adult in the experiment hit the Bobo doll, knocked it to the floor, jumped on it and shouted words like ‘kick him!’ After watching the video, the children were allowed to play with a number of toys, including the Bobo doll. The results showed that more than 50% of the children copied the behaviour that the adult modelled. They imitated the aggressive behaviour of the adult towards the Bobo doll. The explanation of this modelling behaviour became known as Bandura’s Social Learning Theory (Newman & Newman, 2007).

Bandura’s experiment was remarkable because it moved away from the behaviourist assumption that all behaviour is reinforced or is the result of an incentive to be rewarded. The children in Bandura’s study were not encouraged or spurred on to beat up the Bobo doll; they merely imitated the observed behaviour – that of the adult in the experiment. This phenomenon was called observational learning, and the components of observational learning were categorised as attention, retention, reciprocation, and motivation (Newman & Newman, 2007).

Prosocial behaviour is associated with Social Learning Theory and observational learning through exposure to a model that impacts an onlooker; the model creates an impression on the observer who imitates the role model’s behaviour subsequently. For example, a media personality’s prosocial behaviour impacts members of the audience who may want to be like the media personality and therefore the viewer copies the prosocial behaviour of the media personality (Rasit & Razab, 2019).

### 2.3.2. Basic foundations of Social Learning Theory

Social Learning Theory emphasises the social origins of cognitive processes, therefore this theory falls under the scope of developmental theories (Green & Piel, 2010; Newman & Newman, 2007). Bandura argues that people learn both behaviours and reasoning through the observation of other people’s behaviour, and these actions can be learned without direct stimulation (Green & Piel, 2010).
2.3.3. Motivation for selecting Social Learning Theory as a framework for this study

Social Learning Theory provides a good theoretical framework for examining the relationship between parenting style and prosocial behaviour in preadolescents, because parents’ behaviour (modelled through their parenting style) and children’s (imitated) behaviour are investigated. Children learn through observation and modelling (Bandura, 1977). Social Learning Theory enlightens why parents can be considered as important role models for their children (Eisenberg et al., 2006). Social learning theory explains how preadolescents’ prosocial behaviour is based on the parenting style of their parents, who are in fact modelling behaviour that their children will imitate in society (Bandura, 1986; Chowdhury & Mitra, 2015).

2.3.4 Conclusion of Social Learning Theory as a framework:

Social Learning Theory explains how we learn from our relations with others, for example our parents, and how this learning may be reflected in our own behaviour. Therefore, in my opinion, Social Learning Theory (Bandura, 1977) provides a suitable theoretical framework for this study.

In the next section I discuss the Positive Youth Development perspective as a theoretical departure point to examine how parenting styles are associated with the prosocial behaviour of preadolescents living in a low socio-economic area.

2.4 Positive Youth Development Theory (PYD)

The Positive Youth Development (PYD) perspective is used as a framework to understand the relationship between parenting style and prosocial behaviour in the current study. This research study examines the prosocial behaviours of youth in relation to parenting style, which can be associated with Positive Youth Development (Lerner, Lerner et al., 2005).

2.4.1 The Positive Youth Development Theory (PYD)

The PYD perspective is derived from developmental systems theory (Lerner, Lerner et al., 2005). Adolescence is viewed from a strength-based ideology (Damon, 2004; Lerner, Lerner et al., 2005). Developmental systems theory stresses that human development is derived from bidirectional and mutual relations between the developing person and his or her environmental and epigenetic factors – biological, physical, family, community, culture and background (Lerner, Lerner et al., 2005). Developmental systems theory emphasises the intrinsic
flexibility of human development throughout the lifespan, and emphasises the shared contributions of genes, environment and epigenetic factors to developmental processes (Lerner, Lerner et al., 2005).

2.4.2 Conceptualising Positive Youth Development (PYD)

A new perspective of adolescent development has emerged over the past two decades, known as the PYD perspective. The PYD perspective moves away from the negative, discrepant view of youth that has dominated the developmental sciences and other fields throughout the twentieth century, towards a view of the strengths and positive qualities and outcomes we desire youth to develop (Lerner, Lerner et al., 2005). The PYD approach aims to understand, educate, and engage children in proactive behaviour, instead of admonishing them for maladaptive inclinations and labelling them, for example as being called “juvenile delinquent” (Damon, 2004). This perspective stresses that Positive Youth Development is initiated when the underlying flexibility of growth in young people is aligned with their developmental traits (Lerner, Lerner et al., 2005). This approach sees youth as resources (e.g., youth mentors or leaders), instead of problems in society, such as labelling them as drug addicts or delinquents (Damon, 2004). This perspective on youth development has introduced a more positive view of adolescents (Damon, 2004).

The PYD view of the child as competent and having a natural tendency to be prosocial has been supported by a host of studies by developmental psychologists (see Eisenberg et al., 2006). Developmental theories that proceed from such findings maintain that positive social behaviour is a part of the disposition of all children to various degrees, and therefore the capacity for prosocial behaviour is universal across cultures (Feshbach, 1983; Madsen, 1971).

The PYD comprises a broad concept of positive behaviours in youth and arose because of the interest of developmental scientists conducting studies employing developmental systems in understanding the elasticity of human development (Lerner, Lerner et al., 2005). Research studies in PYD practices have also been inspired by contributing factors such as the importance of relationships between people and their reality (Lerner et al., 2005). Further studies of the PYD perspective have been inspired by differences in human development progress (Lerner, Lerner et al., 2005; Lerner, Almerigi et al., 2005). The PYD perspective also came about due to the evaluation of community-orientated youth programmes that were effective in countering risky behaviour amongst adolescents (Lerner, Lerner et al., 2005; Lerner, Almerigi et al., 2005).
Richard M. Lerner at Tufts University, in partnership with the National 4-H Council and the Institute for Applied Research in Youth Development in North America, conducted a study with youth to assess key characteristics of PYD – competence, confidence, character, connection and caring (Lerner & Lerner, 2013). The findings of the study show that youth involved in a community development programme (called the 4-H study) excelled in several areas compared to their peers (Lerner & Lerner, 2013). The findings indicate that youth in the said study are more likely to be prosocial and contribute to their communities, excel academically, and make healthier life choices as a result of their participation in the 4-H Positive Youth Development programmes (Lerner & Lerner, 2013). Furthermore, the study revealed that parents and partnerships between families and communities are key environmental properties, which promote Positive Youth Development (Lerner & Lerner, 2013).

2.4.3 Conclusion of PYD as a theoretical framework:

The PYD perspective recognises the importance of reciprocally influential relationships between parents and children and their home environment for the progression of prosocial development (Lerner, Lerner et al., 2005; Lerner, Almerigi et al., 2005). The PYD perspective has been implemented successfully in previous studies with youth who were exposed to similar socio-economic environments as the participants in this current study (Lerner, Lerner et al., 2005; Lerner, Almerigi et al., 2005). This is echoed in the findings of Lerner and Lerner (2013), who reported that community interventions in which the PYD perspective was used as the framework to conduct research had favourable outcomes (Lerner & Lerner, 2013). Therefore, the PYD perspective is a fitting theoretical framework for this study, which was conducted with youth and parents on the Cape Flats. In this area, the youth have been portrayed as youth at risk, also because of their social background that is plagued by economic deprivation and high levels of crime (Damon, 2004; Lerner, Lerner et al., 2005; Lerner, Almerigi et al., 2005).

The PYD perspective stresses that Positive Youth Development occurs when youth are encouraged and have models (e.g., parents) of positive behaviour, for example prosocial behaviour (Sgaramella et al., 2015). The PYD perspective indicates that youth development can be focused on the advancement of positive outcomes, such as...
prosocial behaviour, instead of introducing preventative measures, for example correction to remedy undesirable behaviour (Lerner et al., 2005).

2.5 Conclusion

In this chapter, I discussed Baumrind’s parenting style theory, Bandura’s Social Learning Theory, and the Positive Youth Development perspective as theoretical frameworks for the study. Baumrind (1971, 1989, 1991) distinguishes between parenting styles, contingent on the extent of responsiveness and demandingness displayed by parents in child rearing, namely authoritarian, permissive, and authoritative. According to Social Learning Theory, children’s learning originates or develops by imitation of a role model, e.g., a parent (Bandura, 1977, 1999). One of the core principles of the PYD perspective suggests that a positive developmental trajectory originates when youth are rooted in relationships that foster their development, for example the parent-child relationship (Damon, 2004). The PYD perspective sees the child as a competent young person with potential to make prosocial contributions to society (Damon, 2004). Given the outcomes of previous research studies that have implemented the discussed theoretical frameworks, I consider them to be appropriate underpinnings on which to base this study.

In the next chapter, I will review relevant literature pertaining to studies on the research question that aims to discover if a relationship exists between parenting style and prosocial behaviour in preadolescents. A review of the existing literature and research on this topic of inquiry follows.
CHAPTER THREE

LITERATURE REVIEW

3.1 Introduction

This chapter gives an integrative review of the relevant literature pertaining to the key constructs, namely parenting style, and prosocial behaviour of preadolescents. Previous research pertaining to Baumrind’s parenting styles typology, Bandura’s Social Learning Theory and the Positive Youth Development (PYD) perspective is reviewed as the frame of reference for this study. Lastly, prosocial behaviours are defined, and the impact of parenting styles on the development of prosocial behaviour is explored.

3.2 Parenting

Parenting is a medium through which children learn appropriate or incongruous behaviour, are exposed to making good or bad choices, attain abilities, and learn about the customs and rules of their community (Aziz; 2017; Carr & Springer, 2010; Davids al., 2016; Hirata & Kamakura, 2018; Roman et al., 2015).

3.2.1 Baumrind’s parenting styles

A central function of parents is to socialise their children through various child-rearing behaviours, which the children will apply to various life situations. However, parents differ in their parenting approach (Berk, 2009). As children mature, parents slowly increase socialisation demands on them. In a study conducted with youths in South Africa, Roman et al. (2015) found that parenting style is associated with the goals and aspirations of adolescents.

Baumrind (1989, 1991) classifies three parenting styles displayed by parents in child rearing, namely authoritarian, permissive, and authoritative. According to Baumrind (1989, 1991), parents use different parental approaches to assimilate children into the family. There are two major dimensions that have been linked to the moral development of the child. One dimension is demandingness, which is identified as being responsible behaviour, supervising or disciplining the child, and the inclination to confront behavioural difficulties (Baumrind, 1991). The second dimension is responsiveness, which refers to the degree to which parents nurture independence, self-control, and self-confidence, and by agreeing to or being mindful and sympathetic towards their children’s needs and demands (Baumrind, 1989, 1991). This view is echoed by Maccoby and Martin (1983),
who state that warmth and control are the foundations of the aforementioned parenting styles. The element of warmth aims to nurture autonomy and boldness, and to develop the child’s identity (Roman et al., 2015).

According to Baumrind (1991), authoritarian parents emphasise control and undisputed obedience, and they are distant and less affectionate than other parents. Authoritarian parents use disciplinary methods such as punishment and spanking (Baumrind, 1989, 1991). They expect the child to conform to inflexible standards and, if the parent is dishonoured, the child is punished (Baumrind, 1989, 1991).

To conceptualise parenting styles and their effects on children, an authoritarian parenting style is low on warmth and high on control. The parent tries to form, regulate, and judge the child’s behaviour and outlook, based on set rules and standards. This parenting style does not allow individuation (Baumrind, 1967). The authoritarian parent does not communicate much with the child (Baumrind, 1967). Children raised by authoritarian parents present with maladaptive behaviour and are repressed, unhappy and sceptical (Baumrind, 1967).

Based on Baumrind’s typology, permissive parents value assertiveness and self-discipline. They are easy and allow children to regulate their own actions most of the time (Baumrind, 1991). Permissive parents consult with children, make joint decisions about policies, and seldom reprimand. They are affectionate, relaxed, unchallenging and indulgent (Baumrind, 1989, 1991). Permissive parents tend to show more warmth and less control (Roman et al., 2015). This style of parenting is permissive, disorganised and renders more approachability and lenience towards their children’s desires and requirements, without setting appropriate restrictions (Roman et al., 2016; Scaramella & Leve, 2004; Weis, 2002). Consequently, these children may have high self-esteem, but could have behavioural problems and be at risk of becoming substance abusers (Roman et al., 2016; Scaramella & Leve, 2004; Weis, 2002). Children raised by permissive parents demonstrate a lack of self-discipline, are self-centred and difficult, and they struggle to form relationships (Baumrind, 1997).

According to Baumrind’s (1991) typology, authoritative parents are confident in their ability to lead their children. They respect their children’s ability to make independent decisions and choices and to have unique dispositions (Baumrind, 1991). These parents are affectionate and tolerant but expect respectable conduct from their children. They adopt firm behavioural standards and are prepared to execute some degree of chastisement, if needed, in a compassionate and supportive context. Furthermore, they support inductive disciplinary methods,
with explanations of their viewpoint, and encourage children to voice their opinions (Baumrind, 1991). Authoritative parents are willing to compromise. This type of parenting cultivates an assurance of parental love and the child knows what is expected (Baumrind, 1991). The authoritative parent combines respect for individuality with an effort to cultivate social values in children. This parenting style is characterised by determining controlled rules of conduct with concessions made for some choices, while simultaneously expecting compliance. The product of an authoritative parenting style is children who are responsible, independent, and confident, and who have higher levels of self-worth, while they are also compliant (Baumrind, 1991; Roman et al., 2015; Steinberg, Lamborn, Dornbusch, & Darling, 1992).

### 3.2.2 Application of Baumrind’s parenting styles theory in the current study

Dianna Baumrind’s parenting styles theory was used as a lens to view the parenting styles of parents in this study. The following three parenting styles, namely authoritative, authoritarian, and permissive, were studied in relation to the prosocial behaviour of preadolescents. The principal aim of this study was to ascertain if there is a relationship between parenting style and the prosocial behaviour of preadolescents living in a low socio-economic area on the Cape Flats, South Africa. Baumrind’s parenting style theory is useful to determine if there is a relationship between parenting style and prosocial behaviour in a sample of preadolescents. Baumrind’s typology of parenting styles is also useful to assess which parenting style is associated with prosocial behaviour in children. Questionnaires were used to assess the parenting style employed by the parents with their children, as well as the prevalence of prosocial behaviour among preadolescents. Baumrind’s parenting styles typology has been used as a framework in several studies (Davids et al., 2016; Gryczkowski, Jordan, & Mercer, 2018; Latouf & Dunn, 2010; Maccoby & Martin, 1983; Robinson et al., 2001; Roman et al., 2015; Roman et al., 2016; Tancred & Greeff, 2015) and a number of related studies in the field of parenting studies. The aforementioned studies confirm that an authoritative parenting style is the recommended approach.

Berns (2007) states that an authoritative parenting style which is accepting, responsive, gives affection, provides encouragement, and is sensitive to children’s needs has shown to be most effective for the development of children’s emotional, academic and social well-being. Based on this premise in relationship to the present study, the relationship between parenting style and prosocial behaviour in preadolescents in a South African situation supports the view that the authoritative parenting style is the most beneficial parenting style for preadolescents in a low socio-economic environment on the Cape Flats (see results in Chapter 5).
3.2.3 Related Studies, Deductions, shortcoming, and relevance

Baumrind’s parenting style theory has been employed as theoretical framework in previous South African studies. Latouf and Dunn (2010) explored the relationship between parenting style and social behaviour among five-year-olds living in the Northern Province of South Africa. The study focused specifically on the qualities related to parenting style and child outcomes. Latouf and Dunn (2010) reported that an authoritative parenting style was associated with socially acceptable behaviour in five-year-olds.

Tancred and Greeff (2015) conducted a study in South Africa with children who have attention deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD) and their mothers. The aim of this study was to determine how the parenting styles of mothers are related to the coping strategies and adaptability of families with a child diagnosed with ADHD. The results indicate that medication and mothers’ authoritative parenting, which includes the dimensions of connection (warmth and support) and regulation (consistent discipline and explanation of rules), contributed significantly to the adjustment in family adaptation with children diagnosed with ADHD (Tancred & Greeff, 2015). This contrasted with mothers’ authoritarian and permissive parenting styles, which were negatively associated with family adaptation (Tancred & Greeff, 2015). Several other studies reported that parenting style influences children’s social skills (Baumrind, 2005; Laible & Carlo, 2004; Roman et al., 2015).

Roman et al. (2015) pioneered a study in South Africa with adolescent learners to examine how parenting style and psychological needs influence adolescents’ life goals and aspirations. The results of this study conducted by Roman et al. (2015) suggest that mother authoritative parenting style had a positive impact on the adolescents’ psychological wellbeing and motivated them to adopt positive life goals. Whereas father authoritarian parenting style had a negative influence on the participants’ wellbeing and future aspirations and life goals (Roman et al., 2015).

The results of this study infer that positive parenting and basic psychological needs influences life goals and aspirations of adolescents. A constraint of this study is the use of a cross-sectional research design and the participants were youth selected from only a part of South Africa. This kind of investigation limits one to examine only one sector of a specific population at one stage. This suggests that the results of this study may not be applicable to all youth in South Africa. A second limitation is the use of self-report measures, which might be affected by societal impetuses.
The parents of the youth in the study did not participate in the data collection process. A more complete picture of how parenting style and psychological needs influences adolescents’ life goals and aspirations would be reflected in the results (Roman et al., 2015).

The afore-mentioned study is relevant in this context of the current study because the parenting style construct was employed in the investigation; both studies examined the parenting styles of adolescents using self-report measures; and both studies were conducted in the Western Cape in South Africa, albeit in different contexts.

Davids, Roman and Leach (2016) undertook a study entitled: Decision Making Styles: A Systemic Review of Their Associations with Parenting. The investigators examined the associations between the decision-making styles and parenting styles of adolescents in South Africa. The results revealed that maladaptive decision-making styles was linked to the parenting style of the participants in the study (Davids et al., 2016). This study is related to the current study since it is in the domain of parenting and adolescent behaviour and developmental psychology.

Roman et al. (2016) conducted a study in South Africa to examine the perceptions of parenting styles and the effects of gender and ethnicity. The study was conducted with university students comparing parenting styles across ethnic groups. The respondents reported on their parent’s style of parenting. The Parenting Style and Dimension Questionnaire (PSDQ) designed by Robinson et al., (2001) was used to collect the data (Roman et al., 2016). The outcome of the study showed that a maternal authoritative parenting style was most predominant across and within the different groups. Further investigation revealed significant differences between and within the groups (Roman et al., 2016). Fathers ’parenting style was professed to be significantly different in three ethnic groups, however mother’s parenting style was not significantly different.

There are similarities between the study conducted by Roman et al. (2016) and this current study. In both studies the youth reported on their parents’ style of parenting. The Parenting Style and Dimensions Questionnaire Designed (PSDQ) by Robinson et al. (2001) was used to collect the data in both studies and the participants in both studies come from different population groups in South Africa.

Hirata and Kamakura (2018) investigated the effects of parenting styles on the personal growth initiative (PGI) and self-esteem of students at a university in Japan. The results showed that the authoritative parenting style
significantly affect their PGI and self-esteem. Secondly, the findings indicate that PGI and self-esteem was not significantly affected by an authoritarian parenting style. However, readiness for change (measured with a subscale of the PGI) was significantly affected by the authoritarian parenting style, reported by the female students. The permissive parenting style did not affect the PGI and self-esteem significantly among the participants. Hirata and Kamakura (2018) conclude that the results indicate the importance of the influence of the authoritative parenting style on the PGI and the self-esteem of Japanese university students.

The aforementioned studies are related to the current study in that all the researchers investigated the effects of the parenting styles namely, authoritarian, authoritative and permissive on youth. Baumrind’s parenting styles typology was mentioned as a theoretical framework and employed by the researchers.

Furthermore, the results in all the studies found the authoritative parenting style to have positive outcomes on the participants in the respective studies (Baumrind, 2005; Hirata & Kamakura, 2018; Latouf & Dunn, 2010; Roman et al., 2015).

3.3 Social Learning Theory

Extensive studies of the power of observational learning in children have been well documented (see Eisenberg et al., 2006). Moral behaviour is acquired through observational learning or imitating role models in society, for example parents (Bandura, 1986). Children who are exposed to people who model prosocial behaviour will be more inclined to imitate such examples, especially if they are closely associated with the person (e.g., a parent), or if the child admires the model. In other words, parents can act as models of prosocial behaviour (Bandura, 1986). Furthermore, the parents play a vital role in encouraging and nurturing prosocial behaviour in their children (Bandura, 1986; Chowdhury & Mitra, 2015).

Parenting styles are the principal social constructions that are responsible for preadolescents’ ability to understand another person’s feelings, and for prosocial behaviour (Bandura, 1986; Chowdhury & Mitra, 2015; Hoffman, 2000). A study conducted in China by Ma et al. (2018) found that social learning can play an important role in the development of honest behaviour. The participants in the Ma et al. (2018) study watched other children showing honesty by admitting to wrongdoing and being praised for being honest by an adult. The children observed this modelled behaviour and, as a result imitated, their peers’ behaviour. From this finding it is evident
that social learning can result in profound honesty – a characteristic of prosocial behaviour. Ma et al.’s (2018) findings point to the importance of doing further studies that involve observational learning to better understand the development of children’s prosocial behaviour.

3.4 Positive Youth Development (PYD)

A perspective on adolescence based on Positive Youth Development (PYD)

In the past, adolescence has been referred to as a stage of rebelliousness and a stressful period for parents (Lerner et al., 2005). However, this perspective of adolescence is changing globally. Young people are increasingly being seen from a more positive and strength-based perspective. Problems are also viewed from a broader array of outcomes, which include positive change. Positive Youth Development (PYD) theory involves a broad perspective that encompasses life-span developmental theory, comparative theory, evolutionary biology and community psychology (Lerner et al., 2005). This theory of human development stresses the plasticity of human development and moves away from reducing social behaviour to genetic influences. The theory of PYD states that, if youth have beneficial relationships with people and institutions in their social environment, these positive relationships will contribute in positive ways towards themselves, family, community, and civil society (Sgaramella et al., 2015). Furthermore, PYD theory stresses that positive youth development occurs when youth are encouraged to display and have models (e.g., parents) of prosocial behaviour (Sgaramella et al., 2015). Lerner et al. (2005) postulates that social behavioural change is possible if there are mutually influential relationships. This view is supported by studies in lifespan developmental psychology (Baltes, Lindenberger, & Staudinger, 1998; Lerner, Almerigi et al., 2005), and bio-ecological developmental psychology (Bronfenbrenner, 2005; Lerner, Almerigi et al., 2005).

3.4.1 The Five C’s Model of PYD

The PYD perspective has been conceptualised in numerous, ways and several theoretical frameworks have been posited over the past few decades (see Lerner, Almerigi et al., 2005). A review of PYD frameworks has shown that the 5Cs model of PYD is the most empirically supported framework (Heck & Subramaniam, 2009). The Five Cs model of PYD highlights the strengths of adolescents and, as a result, contributes to the view of youth as assets to be developed (Roth & Brooks-Gunn, 2003). The PYD perspective postulates that positive development occurs if the strong points of youth (symbolised by the probability for developmental change to
occur within the adolescent period) are associated systematically with positive development (Eccles & Gootman, 2002; Lerner, Lerner et al., 2005; Roth & Brooks-Gunn, 2003). This alignment can be operationalised by the five Cs – competence, confidence, connection, character, and caring.

Definitions of the Five Cs of positive youth development

**Competence:** a confident view of one’s actions in specific domains, namely social, academic, cognitive, and vocational. Social competence alludes to social skills. Cognitive competence refers to cognitive abilities. Academic competence pertains to school grades, attendance, and examination scores. Vocational competence includes work conduct and career trajectory, including self-employment. **Confidence:** an inner sense of overall positive self-esteem and self-worth. **Connection:** positive ties with people and establishments, evident in reciprocal relations between the individual, peers, family, school, and community. **Character:** regard for social and cultural rules, a sense of morality, and integrity. **Caring:** a sense of consideration and empathy for others.

These five Cs are derived from Lerner, Almerigi et al. (2005) and Roth and Brooks-Gunn (2003) and are based on the experiences of practitioners and a review of the developmental literature (Eccles & Gootman, 2002; Lerner, Lerner et al., 2005; Roth & Brooks-Gunn, 2003). Furthermore, the five Cs are prominent terms used by parents, youth workers and community practitioners in development programmes to describe the characteristics of youth who are thriving (King et al., 2005). If the adolescent demonstrates these five Cs, he or she is most probably on a life path marked by shared positive interpersonal relations that contribute to self, family, community and civil society (Phelps et al., 2009; Pittman, Irby, & Ferber, 2001).

### 3.4.2 Research studies that employed the PYD perspective

The Positive Youth Development perspective originates from many sectors, which include community-based organisations, youth workers, government interventions, philanthropic initiatives and academic research conducted to inspire the progression of healthy youth and families (Lerner, Almerigi et al., 2005). One such study is “The process of evaluation of Girls on the Run” (Iachini, Beets, Ball, & Lohman, 2014). The programme has been implemented globally to enhance the psychological, emotional, and social development of youth. The programme targets girls specifically to reduce the bias of a male-dominated sports arena. Iachini et al. (2014) explored the implementation of the PYD perspective in a physical activity-based youth development programme in the United States of America. The “Girls on the Run” programme was implemented to address gender-based
inequality. Iachini et al. (2014) report that girls who finished the programme felt a tangible sense of achievement and left with a strategy for setting and achieving life goals.

Positive youth development programmes have also been implemented in the work of the United States Agency for International Development (USAID), in collaboration with many regional governments and the private sector in Latin America and the Caribbean (Feierstein, 2011). USAID implemented youth development programmes that focus on providing broader educational options, skills training, and opportunities for economically disadvantaged youth to obtain apprenticeships (Feierstein, 2011).

In Kibera, Kenya, the principles of PYD was utilised in a community development programme. The community leaders held participatory talks with the youth. The aim of the programme was to address youth gender inequalities in a male-dominated society. Through this PYD initiative, the youth were given a platform to voice their concerns and express themselves in a male-dominated society in a safe environment. This PYD intervention enabled the participants to express their needs and identify possible solutions related to topics such as HIV/AIDS and family violence, experienced by the youth in Kibera (Williams, Petrucka, Bassendowski, & Betker, 2014).

A participatory study was conducted with preadolescents at a school in Hong Kong, China to determine if a PYD programme could be beneficial to youth in the country (Shek & Sun, 2013). A PYD programme called “P.A.T.H.S. (Positive Adolescent Training through Holistic Social Programmes)” was implemented. This programme is a structured curriculum designed on PYD concepts and is intended for all youth as a “universal prevention initiative”. The results indicate that the PYD programme had a direct impact on life satisfaction and reduced problem behaviour among the participants in the study (Shek & Sun, 2013).

3.5 South African studies

3.5.1 Studies relating to parenting style

There is a gap in the South African literature on scholarship regarding parenting styles. A limited number of South African studies have been conducted on parenting styles and how these are associated with different child outcomes (Davids et al., 2016; Kritzas & Grobler, 2007; Latouf & Dunn, 2010; Makwakwa, 2011; Roman et al., 2015; Roman et al., 2016). A study conducted on the relationship between parenting style and children’s behaviour in early childhood established that an authoritative parenting style was related to the prosocial
behaviour of five-year-olds (Latouf & Dunn, 2010). According to Kritzas and Grobler (2007) and Roman et al. (2015), an authoritative parenting style is associated with the emotional coping mechanisms of adolescents. The goals and aspirations of adolescents have also been associated with an authoritative parenting style (Moyo, 2012; Roman et al., 2015). A study conducted with adolescents in the rural Western Cape found that parenting style has clearly been associated with the ability to make sound decisions (Roman et al., 2015). Parenting style has been shown to be associated with the goals and aspirations of adolescents (Roman et al., 2015). Prosocial decisions made by children later in life are also related to an authoritative parenting style (Makwakwa, 2011; Roman et al., 2016). Studies conducted by Latouf and Dunn (2010), Makwakwa (2011), Moyo (2012), and Roman et al. (2016) reveal that the parents who participated in the aforementioned studies employed mostly an authoritative parenting style, regardless of the cultural differences prevalent in South Africa.

3.5.2 Profile of South African families and youth in low socio-economic communities

According to a research paper by the South African Institute of Race Relations in 2011, many mothers in South Africa raise children in single-parent households in the absence of a father (Holborn & Eddy, 2011). Additionally, it has been found in South Africa that if children live in the same home as their parents it does not guarantee a high standard of care and interaction with the parents (Bray, Gooskens, Khan, Moses, & Seekings, 2010). A South African study on school violence done by the Centre for Justice and Crime Prevention (Burton & Leoschut, 2013) highlights the extent to which parenting, and community factors are related to the violence that occurs at schools in South Africa. Youth have been reported to be involved in drug abuse, theft, and bullying in schools (Burton & Leoschut, 2013). This negative picture of youth has been portrayed in the media for many years, and adolescence has become known to be a period of recklessness and antisocial behaviour (Damon, 2004; Lerner et al., 2005). However, when preadolescents are viewed from a positive perspective, one sees that all youth have strong points, and that they have the potential for healthy development (Sgaramella et al., 2015).

3.6 Prosocial behaviour

3.6.1 Introduction

Prosocial behaviour is also known as voluntary behaviour that benefits others and is beneficial to society in general (Rasit & Razab, 2019). Examples of prosocial behaviour are helping, sharing, donating, volunteering and co-operation. Other behaviours, such as obeying rules and conforming to social norms, for example stopping
at traffic lights, are also considered to be prosocial behaviours (De Guzman, Do, & Kok, 2014; Rasit & Razab, 2019). Prosocial behaviour – that is behaviour enacted for the interests of others – is important and therefore it has become a key socialisation objective for many parents (Eisenberg, et al., 2006). Theorists (Bandura, 1986; Carlo, Hausmann, Christiansen, & Randall, 2003) say that specific cognitive processes (e.g., self-efficacy) are related to specific social behaviours. Likewise, other researchers stress the importance of the work-oriented cognitive skills required to understand how to carry out a specific assignment. Based on these conceptual views, it is probable that specific individual and social contextual characteristics might be related to specific types of prosocial behaviours (Carlo et al., 2003; Knight, Johnson, Carlo, & Eisenberg, 1994).

3.6.2 Types of Prosocial Behaviour

A study conducted by Carlo et al. (2003) postulates that one should differentiate between different types of prosocial behaviour, since there are different correlates for different types of prosocial behaviour. Carlo et al. (2003) designed a multidimensional measure of prosocial tendencies, known as the prosocial tendencies measure – revised (PTM-R) – to assess six different types of prosocial behaviours. The six types of prosocial behaviour measured by the PTM-R are: public, anonymous, dire, emotional, compliant, and altruism. Public prosocial behaviours are defined as any behaviours intended to help others and done in the presence of others. Anonymous prosocial behaviours are defined as the inclination to help others without other people knowing about it. Dire prosocial behaviours refer to helping behaviours enacted in an emergency or crisis. Emotional prosocial behaviours are behaviours meant to benefit others, performed under emotionally distressing circumstances. Compliant prosocial behaviours are described as helping others when asked to. Altruism refers to helping behaviour that is enacted when there is relatively no direct benefit to yourself. The PTM-R multidimensional measure of prosocial behaviour was used to assess the prosocial behaviour of preadolescents in this study (Carlo et al., 2003).

3.6.3 Impact of parenting styles on the development of prosocial behaviour

Studies on parenting have illustrated that there is a link between parenting style and prosocial behaviour (De Guzman et al., 2014). Dunn (2006) states that parents model appropriate social behaviour in the context of the family setting. The familial environment is the ideal place in which children learn to understand other people’s perspectives and make moral judgments from a young age (Dunn, 2006). Parenting that is warm, supportive, and
respectful towards children and vice versa, and that does not use corporal punishment, has been linked to positive outcomes, which include prosocial behaviour (De Guzman et al., 2014). Parents who support their children and listen to them attentively, ask clarifying questions and stimulate proficient thinking in their children, foster high morals in them, which encourages global prosocial behaviour (Pratt, Skoe, & Arnold, 2004).

Alternatively, negative disciplinary methods, such as power-assertive discipline, may reduce prosocial behaviour because they make the child compliant to forced rules, instead of fostering morals, because of the element of fear of punishment, which may inhibit learning (Pratt et al., 2004). This view is supported by Cornell and Frick (2007), and Knafo and Plomin (2006), who state that parenting styles influence adolescents’ prosocial behaviours. Conversely, punishment and rules have constantly been reported to have a negative effect on children’s prosocial behaviour. Parental affection and the implementation of debates, instructions and fostering independence, instead of rules and assertive discipline, are linked to children’s prosocial behaviour (Clark & Ladd, 2000; Knafo & Plomin, 2006; Krevans & Gibbs, 1996).

It is evident that positive parenting styles are associated with more prosocial behaviour among children. This is because parent’s model prosocial behaviour for their children (Knafo & Plomin, 2006; Plomin, De Fries, & Loehlin, 1977). Children respond more positively to parental messages and empathise with people in need because of positive disciplinary practices (Knafo & Plomin, 2006). Furthermore, there is a positive association between supportive child-rearing and interpersonal skills and prosocial behaviour (De Guzman & Carlo, 2004). According to Eisenberg et al. (2006), factors such as parental feelings towards children, as well as disciplinary methods, could be used to gauge prosocial behaviour in the future.

A study by Hastings et al. (2007) found that parenting styles have a meaningful impact on the prosocial conduct of children and adolescents. This view is supported by Bandura (1986), who postulates that parenting styles are the principal social constructions that are responsible for an adolescent’s ability to understand another person’s feelings, and for prosocial behaviour. Furthermore, prosocial behaviour in adolescence is a result of parental modelling, as parents play a vital role in encouraging and nurturing global prosocial behaviour (Chowdhury & Mitra, 2015). Hastings et al. (2007) support this view. They found that parenting style has a meaningful impact on the global prosocial conduct of children and adolescents.
Carlo et al. (2007) conducted a study with adolescents at public high schools in America. The aim of the study was to examine the relationships between the variables parenting styles, parenting practices, sympathy, and prosocial behaviours in adolescents. Darling and Steinberg (1993) suggest that it important to understand the differences between parenting styles and parenting practices. Parenting practices are defined as precise actions (e.g., cultural practices) that parents implement to socialise their children, whereas parenting style is the emotional atmosphere in which parents raise their children (Spera, 2005). In the aforementioned study conducted by Carlo et al. (2007), significant evidence was found pertaining to parenting practices and sympathy associated with adolescents’ prosocial behaviour, but relatively few significant relationships were found between parenting styles and prosocial behaviours.

A separate study was conducted with Spanish and Turkish adolescents by Carlo, Mestre, Samper, Tur and Amenta (2010). The aim of the study was to determine if parenting plays a role in nurturing prosocial behaviours in their offspring. The participants in this study completed measures of fathers’ and mothers’ warmth and strict control, sympathy, prosocial moral reasoning, and self- and peer-reported prosocial behaviours. The results show that parental warmth, sympathy, and pro-social moral reasoning set a precedent for pro-social behaviours in children (Carlo et al., 2010).

Several hypotheses were developed, and it was found that specific prosocial behaviours are related in different ways to specific socio-cognitive and socio-emotive skills (Carlo et al., 2003). Carlo et al. (2003) posit that multidimensional research on specific forms of prosocial behaviours, for example altruism – which is caring for another without personal gain, might be useful to account for previously shown individual differences in prosocial behaviours during adolescence. This multidimensional measure of prosocial tendencies developed by Carlo et al. (2003) was used in the present study to assess the relationship between parenting style and prosocial behaviour in preadolescents in South Africa. In a later study, Carlo et al. (2007) reported that a relationship exists between parenting styles, parenting practices, sympathy and prosocial behaviour in adolescents. In an additional research study, it is asserted that parents play a vital role in nurturing prosocial manners in adolescents (Carlo et al., 2010). The findings of Carlo et al.’s (2010) study show that parental affection, compassion and prosocial ethical thinking result in prosocial behaviour in adolescents.
Yoo, Feng and Day (2013) conducted a study with predominantly European American parents and their adolescent children. Data were collected at three time points for parental behaviours, balanced parent-child connectedness, and adolescents’ empathy and prosocial behaviour respectively. The results of a structural equation modelling analysis suggested that adolescents’ perceptions of parental solicitation (authoritative parenting) and parental psychological control (authoritarian parenting) may be associated with their empathy and prosocial behaviour. Yoo et al. (2013) reported that parental behaviours and the quality of the parent-child relationship are important correlates of adolescents’ development of empathy and prosocial behaviour. These findings suggest that nurturing relations based on mutual agreement between parents and adolescents (an authoritative parenting style) may contribute to promoting prosocial behaviour in adolescents in the long term (Yoo et al., 2013).

In a study conducted in America by Gryczkowski et al. (2018) the relationship between mothers and fathers ‘parenting practices and children’s prosocial behaviour along with the moderating roles of the child’s gender, age, and race was examined. Parallels exist between the study conducted by Gryczkowski et al. (2018) and this current study. The participants in this current study, were Non–Caucasians from a low socio-economic background, similar to the children in the study conducted by Gryczkowski et al. (2018). Secondly, in this current study both mothers and fathers parenting styles were examined in relation to their children’s prosocial behaviour. Gryczkowski et al. (2018) reported in their findings that corporal punishment, a characteristic of authoritarian parenting was significantly related to prosocial behaviour in girls, but not in boys. Paternal involvement, a characteristic of authoritative parenting was correlated to prosocial behaviour in school-aged children, but not for adolescents (Gryczkowski et al., 2018). These findings suggest that paternal parenting is important and may influence children differently depending on the cultural background, age, or gender of the child. These findings highlight the importance of examining both mothers’ and fathers’ parenting in relation to child outcomes (Gryczkowski et al., 2018).

3.7 Conclusion

This review is topical and covers historical as well as recent studies related to parenting styles and prosocial behaviour. It is based on the study’s research question, which aims to ascertain whether there is a relationship between parenting style and prosocial behaviour in preadolescents. The key concepts of this study, namely parenting styles and prosocial behaviour, as well as the relevant theoretical frameworks that underpin this study
– specifically Baumrind’s parenting style typology, Social Learning Theory, and the Positive Youth Development perspective – were explored. Baumrind’s parenting styles theory was reviewed extensively. Therefore, one can deduce that the authoritative parenting style is the recommended parenting style for children (Baumrind, 1996; Davids et al., 2016; Hay, 2001; Roman et al., 2015). On the other hand, there is a shortage of research on prosocial behaviour in preadolescence (Aziz, 2017; Carlo & Randall, 2001; Carlo et al., 2003; Carlo et al., 2010; Orrie, 2014; Roman et al., 2016; Roman et al., 2015).

To conclude, the review highlights gaps in the literature focusing on parenting style in relation to prosocial behaviour in preadolescents in a South African context, indicating that further research in this context may contribute to global scholarship on parenting styles and prosocial behaviour in preadolescence.
CHAPTER FOUR

METHOD

4.1 Introduction

This is a quantitative study. The research design is discussed, followed by an explanation of the participants who took part and the sampling strategy that was employed. After that, a full description of the various measures that were utilised is provided, followed by details of the research procedures that took place. Lastly, quantitative methods of data analysis are discussed, ethical issues are addressed, and a conclusion is provided.

4.2 Research design

A correlational cross-sectional survey research design was used in this study. The aim of this study was to determine whether there is a correlation between the variables of parenting style and prosocial behaviour of preadolescents (Kalla, 2011). Data was gathered in numerical form and was used to analyse the relationship between these variables, namely prosocial behaviour and parenting style (Wagner, Kawulich, & Garner, 2012).

4.3 Participants

I obtained permission to conduct this study at the senior secondary schools in the Athlone district from the Western Cape Department of Education (WCED) (see Addendum A). I obtained a list of all the senior secondary schools (eight in total) in the Athlone district, Cape Town, South Africa from the WCED. I telephoned all the school principals (and e-mailed them a letter) explaining my study and requesting permission to conduct this study, “The relationship between parenting style and prosocial behaviour in preadolescents in a South African context”, with grade 8 learners at their respective schools. I had to call back many times before they replied to my emails and telephone calls.

Eventually, I went to the schools to meet with the principals to discuss this study and address all their concerns regarding the study. After contacting the principals of the eight schools in the Athlone district on numerous occasions, I received confirmation from two schools to conduct the study with their learners. The other six schools declined my invitation to participate in the study because they did not have enough time during school hours to include the study in the school curriculum for the year.
The two school principals in Athlone who agreed that I may conduct this study with their grade eight learners, sent me letters granting me permission to conduct the study at their schools (see Addenda B and C).

I went to the schools to collect the data on the set dates and during school time, as arranged with the principals. On my first visit to the school I introduced myself to the learners and explained that I was conducting a study with children aged 13 to 14 years in the Athlone district. I explained the nature of the study and asked them to participate by completing three questionnaires and a consent form. I explained to the learners what prosocial behaviour is and parenting styles. They were encouraged to ask questions. They participated in the discussions. I asked them to take the ‘Introduction Page’ home and to speak to their parents about participating in the study. Several children were very interested to be a part of the study. I allowed the children and parents to read through the introduction of the study and the ascent and consent forms. However, only 120 consent forms were returned and therefore, these learners could participate in the study. The other parents did not return the consent forms and consequently their children could not participate. No reasons for non-participation were given.

4.3.1 The sample

A total of 220 Grade eight preadolescents aged 13 or 14 were learners at these two participating schools. One school had 100 Grade 8 learners and the other school had 120 Grade 8 learners. This was a self-report study and the participants had to report on their parents’ style of parenting. Although preadolescence starts at age approximately 11 years. Learners at primary school level would not be able to give their consent nor complete the questionnaires. Therefore, the participants selected for this study were aged 13 to 14 years and at high school. The participants could understand and complete the questionnaires. They represented the study population – learners at the eight schools aged 13 to 14 in the Athlone District (Terre Blanche, Durrheim, & Painter, 2006).

The final sample consisted of 120 participants at two public schools in the Athlone district in the Western Cape Province, South Africa. The number of learners at the two schools who agreed to participate in the study determined the sample size (Terre Blanche et al., 2006). The sample size of 120 was more than 50% of the study population (n = 220) (Wagner et al., 2012). The age distribution of the participants was as follow: 74 were 13 years of age (62%), and 46 were 14 years of age (38%). The mean age of the participants was 13.5 years. The sample comprised 86 (71%) girls and 34 (29%) boys. They were a mixed group of both English and Afrikaans speakers. Ninety-nine (81%) participants spoke English at home and 23 (19%) were Afrikaans speakers. Most
of the participants resided with their mothers (n = 83, 69%), 32 (27%) participants lived with both parents, and five (4%) participants lived with their father.

4.4 Quantitative measures

A demographic and two self-report measures were used to capture the quantitative data. The Parenting Styles and dimensions Questionnaire (PSDQ) (Robinson et al., 2001) assessed parenting styles based on Baumrind’s (1991) parenting style theory. The prosocial tendencies measure – revised (PTM – R) (Carlo et al., 2003) was used to measure prosocial behaviour by the participants. The questionnaires used in this study were available in English and Afrikaans, which are the mediums of instruction used at the schools where the study was conducted. The items in the questionnaires were easy to understand and designed to assess the prosocial behaviour of adolescents and the participants’ views of their parents’ parenting styles.

(i) Demographic Questionnaire

All participants completed a demographic questionnaire, that I developed to gather information regarding their demographic particulars, namely age; gender; with whom the participant resides (mother, father, both parents); and home language (English or Afrikaans) (see Addendum F).

(ii) Parenting Styles Dimensions Questionnaire (PSDQ)

The PSDQ (Robinson et al., 2001) was used to assess parenting styles based on Baumrind’s (1991) parenting styles theory, namely authoritative, authoritarian and permissive. The PSDQ comprises three factors, namely:

Authoritative Parenting Style (Factor 1); Subfactor 1: Connection dimension (warmth & support). Subfactor 2 – Regulation dimension (reasoning/induction). Subfactor 3 – Autonomy-granting dimension; democratic participation (Robinson et al., 2001).


Permissive Parenting Style (Factor 3); Indulgent dimension (Robinson et al., 2001).
The PSDQ has 32 items and participants rated aspects of their parents’ parenting style on a five-point Likert-type scale for each item, ranging from 1 (never) to 5 (always). The validity of the PDSQ had been established cross-culturally (Robinson et al., 2001). In this study, the following reliability coefficients (Cronbach’s alphas) were found: 0.79 for authoritative mother, 0.75 for authoritarian mother, no reliability score for permissive mother (measured with one item only), 0.81 for authoritative father, 0.61 for authoritarian father, no reliability score for permissive father (measured with one item only).

In support of the use of the PSDQ measure designed by (Robinson et al., 2001) and the view that its validity has been established cross-culturally, I sourced a review of the reliability and validity of PDSQ conducted by Olivari, Tagliabue and Confalonieri (2013). Robinson et al.’s (2001) scale has been used frequently in literature and applied to numerous cultural settings: North America (58.49%), Europe (15.09%), Africa (1.89%), Asia (18.87%), and Oceania (5.66%) (Olivari et al., 2013). Moreover, cross cultural differences have been assessed in four different studies (Olivari et al., 2013). Olivari et al. (2013) provide a review of published studies that chose the PSDQ to measure parenting, predominantly concentrating on the various applications of the measure and on its psychometric properties.

Irrespective of the great number of scholars using this instrument, not many studies reported statistics about composite psychometric analyses conducted to verify the validity and reliability of the scale (Olivari et al., 2013). However, several selected studies provided information on Cronbach’s alpha, showing adequate values for both the authoritative (.71 to .97) and authoritarian (.62 to .95) parenting styles. Conversely, the permissive parenting style showed lower Cronbach’s alpha values (.38 to .89) (Olivari et al., 2013). The variance of the measure was constant across two different countries where the instrument was tested for invariance in two studies and both studies reported good overall validity (Olivari et al., 2013). Furthermore, it became apparent that the value of PDSQ is its flexibility. Investigators were able to assess parents’ perception of their own parenting styles, and adult offspring’s perceptions of their parents, as well as childrens’ perceptions of their parents parenting styles. These different applications of the PDSQ permit various observations of the same parenting style, increasing its validity (Olivari et al., 2013).
(iii) **Prosocial Behaviour Questionnaire**

The prosocial tendencies measure – revised (PTM-R) is a multidimensional measure that was developed to assess the prosocial behaviour of preadolescents and adolescents (Carlo et al., 2003). The items of the PTM-R scale were selected from previous developed behavioural scales (Carlo & Randall, 2001; Johnson et al., 1989; Rushton, Chrisjohn, & Fekken, 1981). The PTM-R consists of six types of prosocial behaviours, namely public, anonymous, dire, emotional, compliant, and altruism. **Public prosocial behaviours** are defined as behaviours meant to benefit others and are performed in the presence of others. The scale has four prosocial behaviour items; and a sample item is, “I can help others best when people are watching me” (Carlo et al., 2003).

**Anonymous** prosocial behaviours are defined as the tendency to help others without anyone knowing that you were the person who helped. The scale has five anonymous prosocial behaviour items, and a sample item is, “I think that helping others without them knowing is the best type of situation” (Carlo et al., 2003).

**Dire** prosocial behaviours refer to helping other people when they are in a crisis or experiencing an emergency. The scale has three dire prosocial behaviour items, and a sample item is, “I tend to help people who are in real crisis or need” (Carlo et al., 2003). **Emotional** prosocial behaviours are behaviours meant to benefit others and are carried out under highly emotional circumstances. The scale has five emotional prosocial behaviour items, and a sample item is, “I respond to helping others best when the situation is highly emotional” (Carlo et al., 2003).

**Compliant** prosocial behaviours are defined as helping others when asked personally to help. The scale has two compliant prosocial behaviour items, and a sample item is, “When people ask me to help them, I don’t hesitate” (Carlo et al., 2003). **Altruism** refers to helping others when there is only a small chance, or no apparent chance, of receiving a definite reward oneself. The scale has six altruistic items, and a sample item is, “I often help even if I don’t think I will get anything out of helping” (Carlo et al., 2003).

The (PTM-R) is a self-report scale and consists of 25 items to assess prosocial behaviours. Respondents has to indicate for each item which sentence might or might not describe him or her, choosing one of the following options: 1 “Does not describe me at all”; 2 “Describes me a little”; 3 “Describes me”; 4 “Describes me well”; or
“Describes me greatly”. An example of an item is: “I can help others best when people are watching me” (Carlo et al., 2003).

The calculated Cronbach’s alpha coefficient in the present study was 0.81; this score matches Carlo et al., (2003) findings. Presently, it appears that no other studies pertaining specifically to parenting style and prosocial behaviour have made use of this scale.

“The Prosocial Tendencies Measure (PTM) and the PTM-R. Based on theory and research that suggests that there are distinct forms of prosocial behaviors, this new self-report, paper-and-pencil measure is designed to assess six different types of prosocial tendencies.” G. Carlo (personal communication, July 30, 2017).

The measure was originally developed to use with college aged students and young adults (PTM) and was later modified (the PTM-R) to use with middle and high school aged adolescents.” G. Carlo (personal communication, July 30, 2017).

The six subscales of the measure are public, anonymous, compliant, altruism, emotional and dire prosocial tendencies. Analyses of the psychometric properties of the measure are promising but much more validation work is needed.” G. Carlo (personal communication, July 30,2017). Permission to use the scale was obtained from Gustavo Carlo, the researcher who designed the PTM-R. (see Addendum S).

Previous studies seldom differentiate between separate forms of prosocial behaviours and most investigators study prosocial behaviours as a universal construct (Mestre, Carlo, Samper, Tur-Porcar, & Mestre, 2015). Moreover, rigorous trials of psychometric properties of prosocial behaviour measures are uncommon, especially in countries other than the United States. (Mestre et al., 2015).

A study was conducted with adolescents in Spain to examine the structure and functions of the Prosocial Tendencies Measure-Revised (PTM-R), a multidimensional measure of prosocial behaviours. The participants completed the Prosocial Tendencies Measure-Revised (PTM-R), measures of sympathy, perspective taking, and a global measure of prosocial behaviour. The results revealed that the six-factor model of the PTM-R was well suited to assess the prosocial behaviour of adolescents in Spain. (Mestre et al., 2015). This instrument was found suitable for this current study conducted with preadolescents in high school, given that it was developed by Carlo
et al. (2003) to assess adolescents prosocial behaviour tendencies in America and with adolescents in Spain (Mestre et al., 2015).

In a study conducted in Germany by Rodrigues, Ulrich, Mussel, Carlo and Hewig (2017), the PTM-R (Carlo et al., 2003) was translated into German and the psychometrics were investigated in exploratory and confirmatory analyses to assess prosocial behaviour of participants. The measurement invariance was evaluated, comparing the English version of the original PTM to confirm that the measure is suitable for use cross-culturally. Overall, the results suggest that the six factors of the PTM-R, recommended by Carlo et al. (2003), was viable. Additionally, there was evidence that the German language translation of the PTM-R corroborates with several theoretically related concepts, which adds validity evidence to the measure (Rodigues et al., 2017).

Considering the findings of previous studies who used the measure with respondents representing different gender and cultural backgrounds, the factor structure measurement equivalence of the PTM-R has been established in diverse ethnic and cultural groups.

4.5 Procedure

**Phase 1: Meeting the study population (all the grade 8 learners, 220 in total)**

I telephoned and confirmed with the school principals the dates arranged for the study to be conducted at the two schools that had agreed to participate in this study. Each of the principals of the two schools where the study was conducted nominated a teacher to oversee the data-collection visits to the school. I went to the schools on the scheduled days at the times indicated by the nominated teachers. The teachers assisted with regulating and supervising the children.

The learners from all the grade 8 classes gathered in the school hall to be introduced to the study. During this meeting with the learners, I introduced herself to them, explained that I am a Master’s Research Psychology student at Stellenbosch University and that I am exploring the relationship between parenting style and prosocial behaviour in youth living in the Athlone district aged 13 to 14 years. I explained that youth in this age group are called preadolescents or early adolescents. I asked learners if they would like to participate in the study and explained that their participation would help to better understand if there is a link between their parents’ style of parenting and the children’s behaviour.
I discussed the information page with the learners in detail to inform them about the study. They were encouraged to ask questions and engage with me about the study. I handed out information sheets regarding the study to the learners, and consent forms for their parents to grant permission for their children to participate in the study. I also handed out assent forms for the children themselves to complete to agree to participate in the study.

Parents of Grade 8 pupils from these two schools who participated in this study received letters informing them about the proposed research study, what the aim of this study was and what would be expected from their child, should they (parent/s) and the child agree to take part in the study. They were requested to complete the parental consent forms (two forms, one for the mother and another for the father). The children were asked to complete an assent form, agreeing to participate in the study. I explained the meaning of the assent form to them, saying in simple terms that the forms states that they are willing to participate in the study. I had a practice session where I completed the assent form as an example for them. I also showed them an example of a completed consent form that the parent would complete. I asked the children to take the forms home and return them on my next visit, which was planned for two days later, to give the parents and children time to complete and return the consent and assent forms. I met with the children at the two schools on separate days over a period of two weeks.

Phase 2: Meeting with the participants and data collection

Two days later I returned to the school as arranged with the principle and teachers to collect the completed parental consent and participant assent forms from the learners, and to conduct the data collection phase of the study. All the participants gathered in the school hall (along with the nominated teacher) to complete the questionnaires. I explained to the children that I was there to collect the consent forms from them and that she would hand out three questionnaires that they have to complete. I encouraged them to answer truthfully and to choose the answers that they felt best described their parents’ behaviour and themselves.

I explained the purpose of the research to the preadolescents a second time to ensure they understood everything. I explained that, if they felt emotional or needed to talk to a counsellor about their feelings, they could speak to me in private at any time and I would refer them to someone who would help them (refer to Participant Assent Form, Addendum D). Secondly, I explained to the participants that they were free to withdraw from the study at any stage without any possible negative consequences for them. The participants’ rights were explained to them.
At no point were the participants in any physical danger or emotional discomfort. The children were not forced in any way to participate in the study.

After this second introductory talk (a short introduction was given to refresh the children’s minds and clarify what they going to do) about this study, I collected the parental consent forms and the assent forms from the children who had returned them. Thereafter, I explained to the participants that there were three (3) forms that they were required to complete, namely the demographic questionnaire, the parenting style questionnaire and the prosocial behaviour questionnaire.

Firstly, I explained that the demographic questionnaire was the form on which they had to complete their personal details, e.g., their age. I encouraged the children to ask questions and explained what was unclear. On completion of the demographic questionnaires, I collected all the forms from the participants and filed them in an arch lever file for my records. Thereafter, I handed out the parenting style questionnaires to the participants. I explained the form to them and asked if they had any questions. (I gave examples of different parenting styles.). I answered their questions and clarified what was required on the parenting style questionnaire. I read out each question and checked that the participants had answered all the questions. The participants then completed the parenting style questionnaires. I collected the parenting style questionnaires and filed them for record keeping.

Lastly, I handed out the prosocial behaviour questionnaire and explained prosocial behaviour to the participants and gave examples to clarify what it is. The participants were encouraged to ask questions. I answered their questions and made sure they understood the questions. I read out each question and checked that the participants had answered all the questions on the form. Thereafter I collected the prosocial behaviour questionnaires from the participants and filed them in an arch lever file for my records. I spent two weeks at each school respectively, to collect the data from the participants.

I thanked the learners for their interest and willingness to participate in the study. The completed questionnaires were safely stored in a lock-up facility in the office of the research supervisor. My supervisor and I are the only people who have access to the data. The digital data will be stored for a period of five years on my personal password-protected computer.
None of the children were distressed in any way by the questions asked in the questionnaires. The participants were willing and at ease while completing the questionnaires. They were in a safe environment at the schools where they studied, and the survey was conducted in the presence of one of their teachers. I have made provision for counselling services should any of the children need help after the study was conducted. This was done with a registered psychologist who counsels youth and parents in vulnerable populations. In addition, I arranged for a social worker at an NGO in the Athlone area to support participants should they need counselling or support. I contacted the psychologist and the social worker on a regular basis. However, no parent or child approached the psychologist or the social worker for assistance related to this study.

4.6 Data analysis techniques

In this study, I endeavoured to identify relationships between parenting style and prosocial behaviour, called a bivariate relationship. This process sought to identify an association between two variables (Terre Blanch et al., 2006). I organised and transferred the participants’ responses from the questionnaires to datasets on a Microsoft Excel data spreadsheet. Two statistical analyses were conducted, namely Pearson product-moment correlations, and reliability coefficients (Cronbach alpha coefficients), of the two self-report measures used in this study.

4.6.1 Pearson product-moment correlations

The relationship between two variables can be evaluated through correlations, which reckon the progression and extent of the relationship (Graziano & Raulin, 2010). Pearson product-moment correlations (r) are interpreted using interval and ratio scale data (Cozby, 2009). Pearson product-moment correlations were calculated between the parenting style, namely authoritarian, authoritative, and permissive, and the six dimensions of prosocial behaviour, namely, dire, public, anonymous, emotional, compliant, and altruism. The covariation is determined by the strength of the correlation between the two variables in the study (Graziano & Raulin, 2010; Tredoux & Durrheim, 2013).

4.6.2 Reliability analyses

Reliability is the dependability of a scale (questionnaire), which is the extent to which the scale produces the same results in repeated trials (Terre Blanche et al., 2006). The Cronbach alpha coefficient was used to calculate
the reliability (also referred to as internal consistency) of the items included in the questionnaires (Taber, 2018).

A reliability score of .70 or higher for each scale (or subscale) is considered acceptable (Taber, 2018).

The data analyses were administered with the assistance of a senior statistician at the Statistical Consultation Services Department of Stellenbosch University. All analyses were conducted with a statistical software programme (Statsoft Inc., 2012).

4.7 Ethical considerations

This study’s research proposal, the information letter to the parents and participants, the data collection instruments, namely the demographic questionnaire, parenting styles questionnaire, and prosocial behaviour questionnaire, assent letter from the parents of the participants and the permission letters from the two school principals were submitted to the Department of Psychology for academic and ethical approval (DESC) and, based on the departmental recommendations, these were submitted to the Research Ethics Committee (Humanities) of Stellenbosch University for ethical approval before the data was collected. Furthermore, permission was obtained from the Western Cape Department of Education to conduct research at secondary schools on the Cape Flats.

To adhere to ethical principles, I undertook to keep all personal information about the participants confidential and not to share information with unauthorised people. The identities of the participants remained anonymous. The school remained unnamed to protect the identities of the participants. Only my supervisor and I had access to the data (Terre Blanche et al., 2006).

I informed the participants about the purpose, timespan, methods and possible uses of the findings. The participants were not intimidated to participate in the research. They participated of their own free will. Individuals had the right to agree or disagree to participate in the research study and were fully aware of the overall research process and significance. I asked the participants to complete an informed consent form (Wagner et al., 2012).

4.8 Conclusion

The quantitative measures employed in this study were appropriately selected and applied to ascertain which aspects of parenting style are associated with the prosocial behaviour of the preadolescents who participated in
this study. In this chapter, I explicitly described the methods and procedures that were followed to ensure that similar studies of this nature may be carried out in the future. An exhaustive account of the procedures followed to recruit the participants was given. I defined and described the quantitative measures and outlined the procedures implemented in the study. Ethical considerations were observed throughout the collection, analysis, and recording of data. In the next chapter, the results of my research are presented.
CHAPTER FIVE

RESULTS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter reports on the quantitative results of this study. The Pearson correlations between the mothers’ parenting styles and related factors and the dimensions of prosocial behaviour are presented. The significant correlations ($p < .05$) reflect the associations between the three parenting styles, namely authoritarian, authoritative, and permissive, and the characteristics of the parenting styles.

5.2 Quantitative results

The quantitative statistical analysis was conducted using the datasets from all the participants ($N = 120$). The sample comprised 83 participants who resided with a single mother, 32 participants who resided with both parents, and five participants who resided with a single father.

5.2.1 Pearson product-moment correlations (mothers)

Correlations were calculated between the dependent variable parenting style (as well as the corresponding parenting characteristics, namely authoritarian mother, authoritative mother, and permissive mother) and the six dimensions of the independent variable, prosocial behaviour, namely altruism, anonymous, compliant, dire, emotional, and public. The parenting style characteristics are autonomy granting, connection, indulgent, non-reasoning/punitive, permissive, physical coercion, regulation, and verbal hostility. All these correlations were calculated separately for the mothers and are shown in Table 1.
Table 1

Pearson Correlations between the Single Mothers’ Parenting Styles and the Characteristics and Dimensions of Prosocial Behaviour (n = 83)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parenting style</th>
<th>Compliant r</th>
<th>Public r</th>
<th>Anonymous r</th>
<th>Dire r</th>
<th>Emotional r</th>
<th>Altruism r</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>p</td>
<td>p</td>
<td>p</td>
<td>p</td>
<td>p</td>
<td>p</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Authoritarian</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Verbal hostility (using verbal abuse to correct the child)</td>
<td>0.11</td>
<td>0.23</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>0.76</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>0.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical coercion (using physical punishment)</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>0.81</td>
<td>-0.01</td>
<td>0.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Authoritative</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Connection (showing affection, understanding and acceptance)</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>0.33</td>
<td>-0.02</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>0.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Regulation (behaviour control; use of rules and accountability)</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>0.47</td>
<td>-0.15</td>
<td>0.11</td>
<td>0.22*</td>
<td>0.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Autonomy granting (independence of the child)</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>0.48</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>0.36</td>
<td>-0.02</td>
<td>0.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Permissive</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indulgent (Open-mindedness)</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>0.38</td>
<td>0.11</td>
<td>0.24</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>0.33</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p-value ≤ .05; ** p-value ≤ .01

It follows from Table 1 that the maternal authoritarian parenting style is significantly positively correlated with dire prosocial behaviour, and that the connection and regulation parenting characteristics are both positively correlated with anonymous prosocial behaviour.

5.2.2 Pearson product-moment correlations (fathers)

A quantitative statistical analysis was conducted using the datasets of 32 fathers (this number includes five single-parent fathers and 27 dual-parent families). Correlations were calculated between the dependent variable parenting style (as well as the corresponding parenting characteristics, namely authoritarian father, authoritative father, and permissive father) and the six dimensions of the independent variable prosocial behaviour, namely altruism, anonymous, compliant, dire, emotional, and public. The parenting style characteristics are autonomy granting, connection, indulgent, non-reasoning/punitive, permissive, physical coercion, regulation, and verbal hostility. All these correlations were calculated separately for the fathers and are shown in Table 2.
Table 2

Pearson Correlations between the Fathers’ (in Single Father and Dual Parent Households) Parenting Styles and Characteristics and Dimensions of Prosocial Behaviour (n = 37)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parenting style</th>
<th>Compliant r</th>
<th>Public r</th>
<th>Anonymous r</th>
<th>Dire r</th>
<th>Emotional r</th>
<th>Altruism r</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Authoritarian</td>
<td>-0.04</td>
<td>0.83</td>
<td>-0.18</td>
<td>0.28</td>
<td>0.19</td>
<td>0.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-0.07</td>
<td>0.69</td>
<td>-0.3</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>0.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-0.02</td>
<td>0.88</td>
<td>-0.02</td>
<td>0.91</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>0.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>0.97</td>
<td>-0.1</td>
<td>0.56</td>
<td>0.31*</td>
<td>0.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-0.14</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>0.35*</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>-0.09</td>
<td>0.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Authoritative</td>
<td>-0.01</td>
<td>0.95</td>
<td>0.33*</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>0.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-0.05</td>
<td>0.77</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>-0.14</td>
<td>0.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-0.3</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>0.24</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td>-0.1</td>
<td>0.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-0.08</td>
<td>0.63</td>
<td>-0.05</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>0.11</td>
<td>0.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-0.08</td>
<td>0.63</td>
<td>-0.05</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>0.11</td>
<td>0.51</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p-value ≤ .05; **p-value ≤ .01

Parental Parenting

A paternal authoritative parenting style was significantly positive correlated with public prosocial behaviour. The parenting style characteristics, connection and punitive, were also significantly positively correlated with public and anonymous prosocial behaviour respectively, while the parenting characteristic of autonomy granting was significantly negatively correlated with altruistic prosocial behaviour.

5.3 Conclusion

In this chapter, the quantitative findings have been reported in terms of two constructs, namely parenting style (with corresponding parenting characteristics) and the dimensions of prosocial behaviour. Maternal authoritarian parenting was significantly positively associated with one type of prosocial behaviour, namely dire. The parenting characteristics, namely connection and regulation, displayed by the mothers are both positively correlated with anonymous prosocial behaviour. Paternal authoritative parenting is significantly positively associated with one type of prosocial behaviour, namely public. The results for fathers reflect a significant
positive correlation between the parenting style characteristics of connection, punitive, and public and anonymous prosocial behaviour. However, the fathers’ parenting characteristic, namely autonomy granting, was significantly negatively correlated with altruistic prosocial behaviour. No significant correlations were found between parenting style and permissive parenting. The results reflect a relationship between the parenting styles (and the characteristics of the parenting styles) and certain types of prosocial behaviour by the participants in this study.

The quantitative results of this study will be discussed in Chapter 6, and the chapter concludes with the limitations of this study, as well as recommendations for future studies.
CHAPTER SIX

DISCUSSION, LIMITATIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

6.1 Introduction

Many existing studies on adolescent outcomes tend to focus on how parents might prevent problematic adolescent behaviours (e.g., delinquency and antisocial behaviour), rather than on how parenting might enhance their positive behaviour. As a result, the current literature contains an abundance of studies about the preventive function of parenting, while comparatively less is known about parents’ influence on preadolescents’ positive outcomes. The aim of this study was to examine the relationship between parenting styles and six dimensions of prosocial behaviour among preadolescent youth.

6.2 Discussion

Preadolescent children are in the intermediate stage of adolescence, from puberty to adolescence. They are experiencing developmental transformation – mentally, physically and emotionally (Bray et al., 2010; La Guardia & Ryan, 2002; Thom, Louw, Van Ede, & Ferns, 1998). Research has shown that an authoritative parenting style is associated with helping behaviours (Baumrind, 2005, Berns, 2007). An authoritative parental style is characterised by warmth, support and nurturing (Baumrind, 2005). Conversely, mothers who use an authoritarian parenting style are stricter and more demanding (Baumrind, 1991, 2005).

Pearson correlations were calculated between three parenting styles, namely authoritarian parenting, authoritative parenting and permissive parenting, for the mothers and fathers of the participants in this study (see Tables 1 and 2). The Pearson correlations in this study showed that the authoritarian parenting style of the participants’ mothers was significantly and positively correlated with dire prosocial behaviour (see Table 1). The characteristics of the authoritative parenting style displayed by mothers, namely connection and regulation, are also both positively correlated with anonymous prosocial behaviour (see Table 1). This result is consistent with the findings of previous studies (e.g., Laible & Carlo, 2004), which propose that children who are securely connected to their parents and are respected as independent individuals by authoritative parents have the ability to be prosocial towards others (Yoo et al., 2013). Children’s prosocial behaviour plays an important role in their
interactions with others (Yoo et al., 2013). The parenting style and the parent-child relationship are important correlates of the development of prosocial behaviour in the child (Yoo et al., 2013).

Pearson correlations were also calculated between the fathers’ parenting style and the prosocial behaviour of the preadolescents in the study. The authoritative parenting style of the participants’ fathers was significantly and positively correlated with public prosocial behaviour (see Table 2). Previous research has also shown that the authoritative parenting style is associated with prosocial behaviour (Baumrind, 2005).

The results for the fathers’ authoritative parenting characteristics, namely connection and punitive, also show significant positive correlations with public and anonymous prosocial behaviour respectively. The democratic manner adopted by an authoritative parenting style allows for more connection and flexibility within the parent-child relationship (Walsh, 2002).

However, the fathers’ authoritative parenting characteristic, namely autonomy granting, was significantly negatively correlated with altruistic prosocial behaviour (see Table 2). This finding is supported by Nduna (2014) and Sylvester and Bojuwoye (2011), who found that an authoritative parenting style is frowned upon in an African context and that fathers are respected if they embrace an authoritarian parenting style.

Lastly, the calculated Pearson’s correlations between the permissive parenting style (the indulgence characteristic) show no significant correlations between the permissive parenting style and prosocial behaviour for the mothers or the fathers in this study.

6.3 Limitations

A limitation of the current study is that I only used self-report measures, which could be open to social desirability influences. Further, the views of parents were not sought, as data from parents and preadolescents would provide a more comprehensive picture of associations between parenting style and the prosocial behaviours of preadolescents.
6.4 Recommendations

The findings of this study show that research on specific forms of prosocial behaviours might be valuable for further investigation of individual differences in prosocial behaviours in preadolescents. This reflection calls for studies that include a multimethod assessment of children’s prosocial behaviours and parenting styles.

6.5 Conclusion

This study addressed the relationship between parenting and preadolescents’ prosocial behaviour. The results of this study indicate that the authoritarian parenting style of mothers is positively related to the preadolescents’ prosocial behaviour in dire situations. The children’s prosocial behaviour was significantly positively related to the parenting characteristics of connection and regulation in mothers who are authoritative. Furthermore, there was a positive association between regulation (one of the characteristics of the authoritative parenting style) and anonymous prosocial behaviour by the preadolescents who participated in this study. The anonymous prosocial behaviour of the participants is also positively related to their fathers’ authoritarian parenting characteristics, namely connection and punitive. On the other hand, the fathers’ authoritative parenting characteristic of autonomy granting was significantly negatively correlated with altruistic prosocial behaviour.

No significant correlation was found between permissive parenting and prosocial behaviour of preadolescents in this study.

The findings of this study point to some significant associations between children’s prosocial tendencies as a result of their parents’ style of parenting. This study leads to the conclusion that two of the three parenting styles studied, namely authoritarian and authoritative, are in different ways associated with different dimensions of prosocial behaviours by preadolescents residing in the demographic area of Athlone in Cape Town, South Africa.


Moyo, A. R. (2012). The influence of parenting styles and practices on the identification of goals and aspirations of Grade 11 learners in the Western Cape (Master's thesis). University of the Western Cape, Cape Town, South Africa.


The relationship between prosocial behaviour of preadolescents and parenting style in a South African Context

You are asked to participate in a research study conducted by Wendy La Vita, who has a BA Honours Degree in Psychology and is a registered Masters Research Psychology Student, from the Psychology department at Stellenbosch University. This study is done in order to obtain a Masters degree. You were selected as a possible participant in this study because you are aged between 13 or 14 years and you are a learner at a high school on the Cape flats.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY
The study is designed to determine whether there is a relationship between prosocial behaviour of preadolescents and the parenting style of parents on the Cape flats.

PROCEDURES
If you volunteer to participate in this study, we would ask you to do the following things:
Complete a demographic questionnaire, a Self-report prosocial behaviour questionnaire and lastly, to complete a Parenting style questionnaire. The questionnaires will be completed at the participant’s school, in a classroom or in the school hall. It will be done during school hours and it will take approximately one hour to complete.

POTENTIAL RISKS AND DISCOMFORT
There are no foreseeable risks or discomfort expected. Participants will not be uncomfortable or inconvenient in any way.

POTENTIAL BENEFITS TO PARTICIPANT AND/OR TO SOCIETY
The outcome of the study could be used in parenting and youth development programmes. It will benefit society as a whole if we can determine a relationship between parenting style and prosocial behaviour of preadolescents living in low socio-economic communities. It will add to the scientific body of knowledge about parenting and adolescents.

NO PAYMENT FOR PARTICIPATION
The participants will not receive payment for participation. However, they will receive a snack and beverage after completion of questionnaire. (The researcher will find a sponsor to donate refreshments).

CONFIDENTIALITY
Any information that is obtained in connection with this study and that can be identified with you will remain confidential and will be disclosed only with your permission, or as required by law. Confidentiality will be maintained. The
data will be collected by the researcher and stored in a lock up facility at Stellenbosch University where only the researcher and her supervisor will have access to it. All data will be kept confidential. No third parties will have access to the information. The school teachers and principal or parents will not have access to the information. No information will be disclosed to third parties.

The results of the study will be published, but the names of participants and the school where the study is done will not be disclosed. The confidentiality of the participants will be maintained in the publication.

**PARTICIPATION AND WITHDRAWAL**

You can choose whether to be in this study or not. If you volunteer to be in this study, you may withdraw at any time without consequences of any kind. You may also refuse to answer any questions you don’t want to answer and still remain in the study. The researcher may withdraw you from this research if circumstances arise which warrant doing so. If the participant is disruptive or misconduct during the study or tries to intimidate other participants, the participant’s participation may be terminated by the researcher without the participant’s consent.

**IDENTIFICATION OF INVESTIGATORS**

If you have any questions or concerns about the research, please feel free to contact:

Principal Investigator: Wendy La Vita - Cell NO: 083 5030902
Address: Unit 25, AGAPE Complex
DS Botha Street, Stellenbosch
Supervisor: Prof A.P. Greeff -Tel No: 021 8083464
Office Address: Department of Psychology, Wilcocks Building, Stellenbosch University.

**RIGHTS OF RESEARCH PARTICIPANTS**

You may withdraw your consent at any time and discontinue participation without penalty. You are not waiving any legal claims, rights or remedies because of your participation in this research study. If you have questions regarding your rights as a research participant, contact Ms Maléne Fouché [mfouche@sun.ac.za; 021 808 4622] at the Division for Research Development at Stellenbosch University.
Titel: Die verhouding tussen ouerskapstyl en prososiale gedrag van tienderjariges in ’n lae inkomste woongebied in Suid-Afrika.

U word gevra om deel neem aan ’n navorsingstudie wat uitgevoer gaan word deur Wendy La Vita, Meestersgraad Sielkunde Student van die Sielkunde Departement aan die Universiteit Stellenbosch. Die resultate van die studie sal deel van ’n tesis wees. Jy sal as moontlike deelnemer aan die studie gekies word omdat jy in die Athlone gebied woon en omdat jy dertien of veertien jaar oud is.

1. DOEL VAN DIE STUDIE
Die Studie wil vasstel of daar ’n verhouding bestaan tussen ouerskapstyl en prososiale gedrag in tienderjariges in die Athlone woongebied.

2. PROCEDUREN
Indien jy inwillig om deel neem aan die studie, sal jy versoek word om twee vraelyste, naamlik die ouerskapstyl vraelys en die prososiale gedrag vraelys te voltooi.

Die navorser sal die skool gedurende skooltyd besoek. Sy sal die vraelyste verduidelik. Die voltooide vraelyste sal deur die navorser ingesamel word. Die inligting sal vertroulik gehou word.

MOONTLIKE RISIKO’S EN ONGEMAKLIKHEID
Daar is geen voorsienbare risiko’s of ongemaklikheid en ongerief verbonde aan deelname van die navorsing nie. In geval kinders berading benodig sal hulle vir berading gestuur word. Die navorser het voorsorg getref vir berading met ’n sielkundige en maatskaplike werker in die Athlone gebied.

3. MOONTLIKE VOORDELE VIR PROEFPERSONE EN/OF VIR DIE SAMELEWING
Deelnemers sal nie dadelike voordele geniet nie, maar daar bestaan moontlike voordele vir die gemeenskap. Die navorser beplan om ouerskap en jeug ontwikkeling werkwinkels in die Athlone gebied te hou. Die uitslae sal hydra tot die samelewing en die wetenskap, aangesien daar geen soortgelyke studie in hierdie gemeenskap gedoen was nie.

4. GEEN VERGOEDING VIR DEELNAME
Deelnemers sal nie vergoed word vir hulle deelname nie.

5. VERTRouLIKHEID
Enige inligting wat deur middel van die navorsing verkry word en wat met u kind in verband gebring kan word, sal vertroulik bly en slegs met u toestemming bekend gemaak word, of soos deur die wet vereis. Dit
sal in die kluis van die toesighouer se kantoor op die perseel van Universiteit Stellenbosch bewaar word. Die inligting sal nie aan ander partye bekend gemaak word nie. Net die toesighouer het ’n sleutel vir die kluis.

Die navorser is van plan om die resultate van die studie te publiseer. Sy sal onderneem dat die identiteit van die deelnemers nie bekend gemaak word nie, as ook die name van die skole waar die navorsing plaasvind.

6. DEELNAME EN ONTTREKKING
U kan self besluit of u aan die studie mag deelneem of nie. Indien u inwillig aan die studie deel te neem, kan u te eniger tyd daaraan onttrek sonder enige nadelige gevolge. U kan ook weier om op bepaalde vrae te antwoord, maar steeds aan die studie deelneem. Die ondersoeker kan u aan die studie onttrek indien omstandighede dit noodsaaklik maak. As iemand gedurende die ondersoek ander mense in die studie hinder of geraas maak in die klas, sal die persoon gevra word om te onttrek.

7. IDENTIFIKASIE VAN ONDERSOEKERS
Indien u enige vrae of besorgdheid omtrent die navorsing het, staan dit u vry om in verbinding te tree met die hoofondersoeker, Mev. Wendy La Vita Sel No: 0835030902 of haar toesighouer, Prof. A.P.Greeff

Tel No: 021 8083464/021 8083585

REGTE VAN DEELNEMERS
U kan te eniger tyd u inwilliging terugtrek en u deelname beëindig, sonder enige nadelige gevolge vir u. Deur deel te neem aan die navorsing doen u geensins afstand van enige wetlike regte, eise of regsmiddel nie. Indien u vrae het oor u regte as deelnemer by navorsing, skakel met Me Maléne Fouché [mfouche@sun.ac.za; 021 808 4622] by die Afdeling Navorsingsontwikkeling.
Dear Participant

For the purpose of this study, we require some information from you. Please complete the following.

Information

Date (MM/DD/YY) ____________________

Gender: Female □ Male □

Age of participant ______

Home Language: English □ Afrikaans □

Who participant resides with: Father □ Mother □

Both parents □ Other ____________________

Thank you for taking the time to complete the questionnaire.
Geagte Deelnemer

Voltooi asseblief die volgende inligting oor jouself vir navorsingwerk doeleindes.

Inligting:

Datum (MM/DD/YY) ______________

Gelsag: Vroulik □ Manlik □

Ouderdom van deelnemer _______

Huis Taal: Engels □ Afrikaans □

Wie deelnemer woonagtig is: Vader □ Moeder □

   Altwee ouers □ Ander ______________________

Dankie
The relationship between global prosocial behaviour of preadolescents and parenting style in a South African Context

You are asked to participate in a research study conducted by Wendy La Vita, who has a BA Honours Degree in Psychology and is a registered Masters Research Psychology Student, from the Psychology department at Stellenbosch University. This study is done in order to obtain a Master’s degree. You were selected as a possible participant in this study because you are aged between 13 or 14 years and you are a learner at a high school on the Cape flats.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The study is designed to determine whether there is a relationship between global prosocial behaviour of preadolescents and the parenting style of parents on the Cape flats.

PROCEDURES

If you volunteer to participate in this study, we would ask you to do the following things:

Complete a demographic questionnaire, a Self-report prosocial behaviour questionnaire and lastly, to complete a Parenting style questionnaire. The questionnaires will be completed at the participant’s school, in a classroom or in the school hall. It will be done during school hours and it will take approximately one hour to complete.

POTENTIAL RISKS AND DISCOMFORT

There are no foreseeable risks or discomfort expected. Participants will not be uncomfortable or inconvenient in any way.

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The outcome of the study could be used in parenting and youth development programmes. It will benefit society as a whole if we can determine a relationship between parenting style and prosocial behaviour of preadolescents living in low socio-economic communities. It will add to the scientific body of knowledge about parenting and adolescents.

NO PAYMENT FOR PARTICIPATION

The participants will not receive payment for participation. However, they will receive a snack and beverage after completion of questionnaire. (The researcher will find a sponsor to donate refreshments).

CONFIDENTIALITY
Any information that is obtained in connection with this study and that can be identified with you will remain confidential and will be disclosed only with your permission, or as required by law. Confidentiality will be maintained. The data will be collected by the researcher and stored in a lock up facility at Stellenbosch University where only the researcher and her supervisor will have access to it. All data will be kept confidential. No third parties will have access to the information. The school teachers and principal or parents will not have access to the information. No information will be disclosed to third parties.

The results of the study will be published, but the names of participants and the school where the study is done will not be disclosed. The confidentiality of the participants will be maintained in the publication.

**PARTICIPATION AND WITHDRAWAL**

You can choose whether to be in this study or not. If you volunteer to be in this study, you may withdraw at any time without consequences of any kind. You may also refuse to answer any questions you don’t want to answer and still remain in the study. The researcher may withdraw you from this research if circumstances arise which warrant doing so. If the participant is disruptive or misconduct during the study or tries to intimidate other participants the participant’s participation may be terminated by the researcher without the participant’s consent.

**IDENTIFICATION OF INVESTIGATORS**

If you have any questions or concerns about the research, please feel free to contact:

Principal Investigator: Wendy La Vita - Cell NO: 083 5030902
Address: Unit 25, AGAPE Complex
DS Botha Street, Stellenbosch
Supervisor: Prof A.P. Greeff -Tel No: 021 8083464
Office Address: Department of Psychology, Wilcocks Building, Stellenbosch University.

**RIGHTS OF RESEARCH PARTICIPANTS**

You may withdraw your consent at any time and discontinue participation without penalty. You are not waiving any legal claims, rights or remedies because of your participation in this research study. If you have questions regarding your rights as a research participant, contact Ms Maléne Fouché [mfouche@sun.ac.za; 021 808 4622] at the Division for Research Development at Stellenbosch University.

**SIGNATURE OF RESEARCH PARTICIPANT**

The information above was described to [me/the participant] by [name of relevant person] in [Afrikaans/English/Xhosa/other] and [I am/the participant is] in command of this language or it was satisfactorily translated to [me/him/her]. [I/the participant] was given the opportunity to ask questions and these questions were answered to [my/his/her] satisfaction.

[I hereby consent voluntarily to participate in this study/I hereby consent that the participant may participate in this study.] I have been given a copy of this form.
I declare that I explained the information given in this document to Learner [name of the participant] and/or [his/her] representative Teacher [name of the representative]. [He/she] was encouraged and given ample time to ask me any questions. This conversation was conducted in Afrikaans/English and no translator was used/this conversation was translated into by _______________________.

Signature of Researcher Date
STELENBOSCH UNIVERSITY
PARENT/LEGAL GUARDIAN CONSENT FOR CHILD TO PARTICIPATE IN RESEARCH

I would like to invite your child to take part in a study conducted by Wendy La Vita, from the Psychology Department at Stellenbosch University. Your child will be invited as a possible participant because we will be conducting a study at your child’s school with children in grade 8, aged 13 or 14 years old.

8. PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The study is to gain a better understanding about which parenting style is used by parents with children in early adolescence, living in a low socio-economic area such as the Athlone district. The researcher would like to find out if there is a relationship between children's prosocial behaviour (e.g., acts of kindness) and the manner in which parents are raising their children for example (e.g., strict parenting).

9. WHAT WILL BE ASKED OF MY CHILD?

If you consent to your child taking part in this study, the researcher will approach your child for their consent to take part in the study. If the child agrees to take part in the study, he/she will be asked to complete a short biographical questionnaire about where they live and who they live with, their age and whether the child is a girl or boy. The child will complete another questionnaire, which is about their prosocial behaviour (e.g., "have you helped somebody push their car"). The child will also complete another questionnaire, which informs the researcher about the manner in which they are raised by their parent or guardian. The three questionnaires will be completed in class at the school. The researcher will hand out forms to children and a teacher from the school will be present. The questionnaires will be explained to the child. It will take approximately 1 hour to complete all three questionnaires. The questionnaire will be completed at the same time on one day during school hours. No information will be shared with teachers or children or parents. All information will be confidential.

10. POSSIBLE RISKS AND DISCOMFORTS

The researcher does not foresee any possible risks, discomforts or inconveniences to the well-being of your child. However if the child has any reservations about participating in the study, he or she may withdraw from the study. If the child needs counselling or therapy, the researcher will follow the protocol of the school.

11. POSSIBLE BENEFITS TO THE CHILD OR TO THE SOCIETY

Society will possibly benefit from the outcome of the study in that parents will have a better understanding of how their parenting style impact the way in which their children behave in society. Based on the outcomes of the study interventions could be developed to assist parents to better understand children in early adolescence and to parent their children accordingly. Children will benefit from the study in the sense that if their parent’s practice positive parenting styles, their wellbeing will improve. The study has the potential to influence parents to adopt the most constructive parenting style and in so doing promote prosocial behaviour in children and ultimately society in general.
12. NO PAYMENT FOR PARTICIPATION

No payment will be received for participating in the study.

13. PROTECTION OF YOUR AND YOUR CHILD’S INFORMATION, CONFIDENTIALITY AND IDENTITY

Any information that you or your child will share with me during this study and that could possibly identify you or your child, will be protected. This will be done by ensuring that all information collected will remain anonymous. The child does not have to reveal his or her identity on the forms to be part of the study. The name of the school will also not be disclosed. Teachers and the school principal will not have access to the information collected during the study. The information collected will only be accessible to the researcher and her supervisor at the Department of Psychology, Stellenbosch University. The information will be stored in a locked cabinet in the supervisor’s office at the University of Stellenbosch. The data may be used in scientific journals in the future. Confidentiality and anonymity will be maintained in that no personal information about the participants will be shared.

14. PARTICIPATION AND WITHDRAWAL

You and your child can choose whether to be part of this study or not. If you consent to your child taking part in the study, please note that your child may choose to withdraw or decline participation at any time without any consequence. Your child may also refuse to answer any questions they don't want to answer and still remain in the study. The researcher may withdraw your child from this study if the child is disruptive during the study or tries to intimidate other participants.

15. RESEARCHERS’ CONTACT INFORMATION

If you have any questions or concerns about this study, please feel free to contact Wendy La Vita at Cell No: 0835030902 and/or the supervisor Professor Awie Greeff at the Department of Psychology, Wilcocks Building, Stellenbosch University. Office Tel No: 021 8083464

16. RIGHTS OF RESEARCH PARTICIPANTS

Your child may withdraw their consent at any time and discontinue participation without penalty. Neither you nor your child are waiving any legal claims, rights or remedies because of your child’s participation in this research study. If you have questions regarding your or your child’s rights as a research participant, contact Ms Maléne Fouché [mfouche@sun.ac.za; 021 808 4622] at the Division for Research Development.

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**DECLARATION OF CONSENT BY THE PARENT/ LEGAL GUARDIAN OF THE CHILD-PARTICIPANT**

As the parent/legal guardian of the child I confirm that:

- I have read the above information and it is written in a language that I am comfortable with.
- I have had a chance to ask questions and all my questions have been answered.
- All issues related to privacy, and the confidentiality and use of the information have been explained.
By signing below, I ______________________________ (name of parent or guardian) agree that the researcher may approach my child to take part in this research study, as conducted by Wendy La Vita

____________________________________  ______________________
Signature of Parent/Legal Guardian       Date

DECLARATION BY THE PRINCIPAL INVESTIGATOR

As the principal investigator, I hereby declare that the information contained in this document has been thoroughly explained to the parent/legal guardian. I also declare that the parent/legal guardian was encouraged and given ample time to ask any questions.

____________________________________  ______________________
Signature of Principal Investigator       Date
Titel: Die verhouding tussen ouerskapstyl en prososiale gedrag van tiendejariges in ’n lae inkomste woongebied in Suid Afrika.

Jy word gevra om deel te neem aan ’n navorsingstudie wat uitgevoer gaan word deur Wendy La Vita, Meesters Sielkunde Student van die Sielkunde Afdeling aan die Universiteit Stellenbosch. Die resultate van die studie sal deel van n’ tesis wees.

Jy is as moontlike deelnemer aan die studie gekies omdat jy in die Athlone gebid woon en omdat jy dertien of veertien jaar oud is.

1. DOEL VAN DIE STUDIE
Die Studie wil vasstel of daar n’ verhouding ontstaan, tussen die ouerskapstyl en prososiale gedrag in tiendejariges in die Athlone woongebied.

2. PROSEDURES
Indien jy inwillig om aan die studie deel te neem word u versoek om die volgende te doen.

Voltooi asseblief die twee vraelyste namens; die ouerskapstyle vraelys en die prosoiale gedrag vralys.

Die navorser sal die skool gedurende skool tyd besoek. Sy sal die vraelyste verduidelik. Die voltooiide vraelyste sal deur die navorser versamel word. Die inligting sal vertroulik gehou word.

MOONTLIKE RISIKO’S EN ONGEMAKLIKHEID
Daar is geen voorsienbare risko’s of ongemaklikheid en ongerief verbonde aan deelname van die navorsing nie. In geval kinders berading benodig sal hulle vir berading gestuur word. Die navorser het voorsorg getref vir berading met ’n sielkundige en maatskaplike werker in die Athlone gebied.

3. MOONTLIKE VOORDELE VIR PROEFFERSONE EN/OF VIR DIE SAMELEWING
Deelnemers sal nie dadelike voordele voordat geniet nie, maar daar bestaan moontelike voordele vir die gemeenskap. Die navorsiger beplan om ouerskap en jeug ontwikkelings werkinkels te gee in die Athlone gebied. Die uitsale sal hydra tot die samelewing en die wetenskap, aangesien daar geen soortgelyke studie in hierdie gemeenskap gedoen was nie.

4. GEEN VERGOEDING VIR DEELNAME
Die Deelnemers sal nie vergoed word vir hulle deelname nie.

5. VERTRouLikiHEId
Enige inligting wat deur middel van die navorsing verkry word en wat met jou in verband gebring kan word, sal vertroulik bly en slegs met u toestemming bekend gemaak word of soos deur die wet vereis. Dit sal in die kluis
van die toesighouer se kantoor op die perseel van Universiteit Stellenbosch bewaar word. Die inligting sal nie aan ander partye bekend gemaak word nie. Net die toesighouer het n sleutel vir die kluis.

Die navorser is van plan om die resultate van die studie te publiseer. Sy sal onderneem dat die identiteit van die deelnemers nie bekend gemaak word nie, as ook die name van die skole waar die navorsing plaas vind.

### 6. DEELNAME EN ONTTREKKING
U kan self besluit of u aan die studie wil deelneem of nie. Indien u inwillig om aan die studie deel te neem, kan u te eniger tyd u daaraan onttrek sonder enige nadelige gevolge. U kan ook weier om op bepaalde vrae te antwoord, maar steeds aan die studie deelneem. Die ondersoeker kan u aan die studie onttrek indien omstandighede dit noodsaaklik maak. As iemand gedurende die ondersoek ander mense in die studie hinder of geraas maak in die klas sal die persoon gevra word om te ontrek.

### 7. IDENTIFIKASIE VAN ONDERSOEKERS
Indien u enige vrae of besorgdheid omtrent die navorsing het, staan dit u vry om in verbinding te tree met die hoofondersoeker, Mev. Wendy La Vita Sell No: 0835030902 of haar toesighouer, Prof. A.P.Greef

Tel No: 021 8083464/021 8083585

### 8. REGTE VAN DEELNEMERS
JY kan te enige tyd u inwilliging terugtrek en u deelname beëindig, sonder enige nadelige gevolge vir u. Deur deel te neem aan die navorsing doen u geensins afstand van enige wetlike regte, eise of regsmiddel nie.

Indien u vrae het oor u regte as deelnemers by navorsing, skakel Me. Maléne Fouché [mfouche@sun.ac.za; 021 808 4622] van die Afdeling Navorsingsontwikkeling.

### VERKLARING DEUR PROEFPERSOON OF SY/HAAR REGSVERTEENWOORDIGER

Die bostaande inligting is aan my, [naam van proefpersoon/deelnemer], gegee en verduidelik deur [naam van die betrokke persoon] in [Afrikaans/English/Xhosa/other] en [ek is/die proefpersoon is/die deelnemer is] dié taal magtig of dit is bevredigend vir [my/hom/haar] vertaal. [Ek/die deelnemer/die proefpersoon] is die geleentheid gebied om vrae te stel en my/sy/haar vrae is tot my/sy/haar bevrediging beantwoord.

[Ek willig hiermee vrywillig in om deel te neem aan die studie/Ek gee hiermee my toestemming dat die proefpersoon/deelnemer aan die studie mag deelneem. ] ’n Afskrif van hierdie vorm is aan my gegee.

________________________________________
Naam van deelnemer

________________________________________
Handtekening van deelnemer

Datum
VERKLARING DEUR ONDERSOEKER

Ek verklaar dat ek die inligting in hierdie dokument vervat verduidelik het aan [naam van die proefpersoon/deelnemer] en/of sy/haar regsverteenwoordiger [naam van die regsverteenwoordiger]. Hy/sy is aangemoedig en oorgenoeg tyd gegee om vrae aan my te stel. Dié gesprek is in [Afrikaans/*Engels/*Xhosa/*Ander] gevoer en [geen vertaler is gebruik nie/die gesprek is in ______________ vertaal deur ________________________].

________________________________________  ____________________________
Handtekening van ondersoeker                         Datum

___________________________________________________________________________________
**UNIVERSITEIT STELLENBOSCH**

Ouer Toestemming vir deelname aan Navorsing Studie

**Titel:** Die verhouding tussen ouerskapstyl en prososiale gedrag van tiendejariges in ’n lae inkomste woongebied in Suid Afrika.

U kind is gevra om deel neem aan ’n navorsingstudie wat uitgevoer gaan word deur Wendy La Vita, Meesters Sielkunde Student van die Sielkunde Afdeling aan die Universiteit Stellenbosch. Die resultate van die studie sal deel van n’ tesis wees.

U kind sal as moontlike deelnemer aan die studie gekies word omdat hy/sy in die Athlone gebid woon en omdat hy/sy dertien of veertien jaar oud is.

1. **DOEL VAN DIE STUDIE**
Die Studie wil vasstel of daar n’ verhouding ontstaan, tussen die ouerskapstyl en prososiale gedrag in tiendejariges in die Athlone woongebied.

2. **PROSEDURES**
Indien u inwillig om u kind to laat deel neem aan die studie, sal u kind versoek word om twee vraelyste namens; die ouerskapstyle vraelys en die prosoiale gedrag vralys te voltooi.

Die navorser sal die skool gedurende skool tyd besoek. Sy sal die vraelyste verduidelik. Die voltooide vraelyste sal deur die navorser versamel word. Die inligting sal vertroulik gehou word.

3. **MOONTLIKE RISIKO’S EN ONGEMAKLIKHEID**
Daar is geen voorsienbare risko’s of ongemaklikheid en ongerief verbonde aan deelname van die navorsing nie. In geval kinders berading benodig sal hulle vir berading gestuur word. Die navorser het voorsorg getref vir berading met ’n sielkundige en maatskaplike werker in die Athlone gebied.

4. **MOONTLIKE VOORDELE VIR PROEPERSONE EN/OF VIR DIE SAMELEWING**
Deelnemers sal nie dadelike voordele geniet nie, maar daar bestaan moontlike voordele vir die gemeenskap. Die navorsiger beplan om ouerskap en jeug ontwikkelings werkwinkels in die Athlone gebid te hou. Die uitsale sal bydra tot die samelewing en die wetenskap, aangesien daar geen soortgelyke studie in hierdie gemeenskap gedoen was nie.

5. **GEEN VERGOEDING VIR DEELNAME**
Die Deelnemers sal nie verhoed word vir hulle deelname nie.

6. **VERTROULIKHEID**
Enige inligting wat deur middel van die navorsing verkry word en wat met u kind in verband gebring kan word, sal vertroulik bly en slegs met u toestemming bekend gemaak word of soos deur die wet vereis. Dit sal in die kluis van die toesighouer se kantoor op die perseel van Universiteit Stellenbosch bewaar word. Die inligting sal nie aan ander partye bekend gemaak word nie. Net die toesighouer het n sleutel vir die kluis.
Die navorser is van plan om die resultate van die studie te publiseer. Sy sal onderneem dat die identiteit van die deelnemers nie bekend gemaak word nie, asook die name van die skole waar die navorsing plaas vind.

7. **DEELNAME EN ONTTREKKING**

U kind en u kan self besluit of hy/sy aan die studie mag deelneem of nie. Indien u inwillig dat u kind aan die studie deel neem, kan u kind te enige tyd daaraan onttrek sonder enige nadelige gevolge. U kind kan ook weier om op bepaalde vrae te antwoord, maar steeds aan die studie deelneem. Die ondersoeker kan u kind aan die studie onttrek indien omstandighede dit noodsaaklik maak. As iemand gedurende die ondersoek ander mense in die studie hinder of geraas maak in die klas sal die persoon gevra word om te onttrek.

8. **IDENTIFIKASIE VAN ONDERSOEKERS**

Indien u enige vrae of besorgdheid omtrent die navorsing het, staan dit u vry om in verbinding te tree met die hoofondersoeker, Mev, Wendy La Vita Sell No: 0835030902 of haar toesighouer, Prof. A.P.Greef Tel No: 021 8083464/021 8083585

9. **REGTE VAN DEELNEMERS**

U kan te enige tyd u inwilliging terugtrek en u kind se deelname beëindig, sonder enige nadelige gevolge vir u of u kind. Deur deel te neem aan die navorsing doen u geensins afstand van enige wetlike regte, eise of regsmiddel nie. Indien u vrae het oor u regte as proefpersoon by navorsing, skakel met Me Maléne Fouché [mfouche@sun.ac.za; 021 808 4622] van die Afdeling Navorsingsontwikkeling.
The Parenting Styles and Dimensions Questionnaire (Self Report)

Instructions to Participants:
The following questions are about the attitudes and behaviours of your parents or guardians. If you stay with someone other than your mother, who is a female still complete the mother / female parenting form, if you stay with someone other than your father, who is male still complete the father / male form. If you do not stay with both your parents / guardians complete only the relevant form and leave the other section blank.

Mother / Female Parenting Figure Form
This questionnaire lists various attitudes and behaviours of parents. As you remember your MOTHER / MATERNAL PARENTAL FIGURE you should choose a number from the scale below that best represents her about each statement. Write the number that best represents your response in the blank space beside each statement.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Not at all like her</th>
<th>Not like her</th>
<th>Somewhat like her</th>
<th>A lot like her</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. Was responsive to my feelings or needs
2. Used physical punishment as a way of disciplining me.
3. Took my desires into account before asking me to do something.
4. When I asked why I had to conform, [she stated]: because I said so, or I am your parent and I want you to.
5. Explained to me how she felt about my good and bad behaviour.
6. Spanked me when I was disobedient.
7. Encouraged me to talk about my troubles.
8. Found it difficult to discipline me.
9. Encouraged me to freely express myself even when I disagreed with them.
10. Punished me by taking privileges away from me with little if any explanations.
11. Emphasized the reasons for rules.
12. Gave comfort and understanding when I was upset.
13. Yelled or shouted when I misbehaved.
14. Gave praise when I was good.
15. Gave into me when I caused a commotion about something.
16. Exploded in anger towards me.
<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>17.</td>
<td>Threatened me with punishment more often than actually giving it.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18.</td>
<td>Took into account my preferences in making plans for the family.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19.</td>
<td>Grabbed me when I was being disobedient.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20.</td>
<td>Stated punishments to me and did not actually do them.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21.</td>
<td>Showed respect for my opinions by encouraging me to express them.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22.</td>
<td>Allowed me to give input into family rules.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23.</td>
<td>Scolded and criticized me to make me improve.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24.</td>
<td>Spooned me.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25.</td>
<td>Gave me reasons why rules should be obeyed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26.</td>
<td>Uses threats as punishment with little or no justification.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27.</td>
<td>Had warm and intimate times together with me.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28.</td>
<td>Punished me by putting me off somewhere alone with little if any explanations.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29.</td>
<td>Helped me to understand the impact of my behaviour by encouraging me to talk about the consequences of my own actions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30.</td>
<td>Scolded and criticized me when my behaviour didn't meet their expectations.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31.</td>
<td>Explained the consequences of my behaviour.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32.</td>
<td>Slapped me when I misbehaved.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Father / Male Parenting Figure Form

This questionnaire lists various attitudes and behaviours of parents. As you remember your FATHER / PATERNAL PARENTAL FIGURE you should choose a number from the scale below that best represents him about each statement. Write the number that best represents your response in the blank space beside each statement.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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</table>

1. Was responsive to my feelings or needs
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3. Took my desires into account before asking me to do something.
4. When I asked why I had to conform, [he stated]: because I said so, or I am your parent and I want you to.
5. Explained to me how he felt about my good and bad behaviour.
6. Spanked me when I was disobedient.
7. Encouraged me to talk about my troubles.
8. Found it difficult to discipline me.
9. Encouraged me to freely express myself even when I disagreed with them.
10. Punished me by taking privileges away from me with little if any explanations.
11. Emphasized the reasons for rules
12. Gave comfort and understanding when I was upset.
13. Yelled or shouted when I misbehaved.
14. Gave praise when I was good.
15. Gave into me when I caused a commotion about something.
16. Exploded in anger towards me.
17. Threatened me with punishment more often than actually giving it.
18. Took into account my preferences in making plans for the family.
19. Grabbed me when I was being disobedient.
20. Stated punishments to me and did not actually do them.
21. Showed respect for my opinions by encouraging me to express them.
22. Allowed me to give input into family rules.
23. Scolded and criticized me to make me improve
24. Spoiled me.
25. Gave me reasons why rules should be obeyed.
26. Uses threats as punishment with little or no justification.
27. Had warm and intimate times together with me.
<p>| | |</p>
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<td>Explained the consequences of my behaviour.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32.</td>
<td>Slapped me when I misbehaved.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Ouerskap styl vraelys – Moeder/Vroue ouer figuur
C.C.Robinson, B. Mandleco, S.F. Olsen, & C.H. Hart

INSTRUKSIES: Die volgende vraelys bevat ’n lys van moontlike gedragsopsies wat ouers in interaksie met hulle kinders openbaar. Die vraelys meet hoe dikwels jou ouer/ouers sekere gedrag teenoor jou as kind toon. Reageer asseblief op elke vraag so eerlik as moontlik.

ONTHOU: Toon aan hoe dikwels jou Moeder/vroue ouer figuur sekere gedrag teenoor jou as kind openbaar en omkring die gepaste beskrywing.

**MY OUER OPENBAAR DIE VOLGENDE GEDRAG**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Nooit</th>
<th>Soms</th>
<th>Die helfte van die tyd</th>
<th>Baie dikwels</th>
<th>Altyd</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. My ouer reageer op my gevoelens en behoeftes.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. My ouer maak van fisieke straf gebruik as ’n wyse om my te dissiplineer.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. My ouer neem my begeertes in ag voor hy/sy my vra om iets te doen.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Wanneer ek vra waarom ek iets moet doen, antwoord my ouer, omdat ek so sê, of omdat ek jou ouer is en wil hê dat jy dit moet dit doen.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. My ouer verduidelik aan my hoe hy/sy oor my goeie en slegte gedrag voel.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. My ouer gee my pak wanneer ek ongehoorsaam is.</td>
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<td>2</td>
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<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. My ouer moedig my aan om oor my probleme te praat.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Dis moeilik vir my ouer om my te dissiplineer.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. My ouer moedig my aan om myself vrylik uit te druk selfs wanneer hy/sy nie met my saamstem nie.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. My ouer straf deur voorregte van my weg te neem, sonder veel of enige verduideliking.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. My ouer beklemttoon waarom daar reëls is.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. My ouer vertroos my en toon begrip wanneer ek ontsteld is.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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<tr>
<td>13. My ouer skree of gil wanneer ek my wangedra.</td>
<td>1</td>
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<tr>
<td>14. My ouer prys my wanneer ek my goed gedra.</td>
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<td>5</td>
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<tr>
<td>15. My ouer laat my begaan wanneer ek ’n bohaai oor iets opskop.</td>
<td>1</td>
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<td>5</td>
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<tr>
<td>16. My ouer bars in woede uit teenoor my.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. My ouer dreig my dikwels met straf meer as wat hy/sy dit werlik toepas.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
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<tr>
<td>18. My ouer neem my voorkeure in ag wanneer hy/sy planne maak vir ons gesin.</td>
<td>1</td>
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<tr>
<td>19. My ouer begin om met my te baklei wanneer ek ongehoorsaam is.</td>
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<td>20. My ouer sê hoe ek gestraf gaan word, maar voer dit dan nie uit nie.</td>
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<tr>
<td>21. My ouer toon respek teenoor my menings deur my aan te moedig om daaroor te praat.</td>
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<td>5</td>
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<td>22. My ouer laat my toe om 'n bydrae te lewer tot gesinsreëls.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>5</td>
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<tr>
<td>23. My ouer raas en kritiseer om my te help verbeter.</td>
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<td>5</td>
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<td>24. My ouer bederf my.</td>
<td>1</td>
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<tr>
<td>25. My ouer verduidelik aan my waarom reëls gehoorsaam behoort te word.</td>
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<tr>
<td>26. My ouer dreig met straf al is dit feitlik ongeregverdig of glad nie geregverdig nie.</td>
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<td>27. My ouer bring gesellige en intieme tydjie saam met my deur.</td>
<td>1</td>
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<tr>
<td>28. My ouer straf my deur my sonder enige verduideliking lewers alleen te laat.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29. My ouer help my om die invloed van gedrag te verstaan, deur my aan te moedig om oor die gevolge van my eie gedrag te praat.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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<tr>
<td>30. My ouer raas en kritiseer my, wanneer my gedrag nie na hom/haar verwagtinge voldoen nie.</td>
<td>1</td>
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<tr>
<td>31. My ouer verduidelik die gevolge van my gedrag aan my.</td>
<td>1</td>
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<tr>
<td>32. My ouer klap my vir wangedrag.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
## Addendum L

### Ouerskap styl vraelys – Vader/Manlike Figuur

*C.C. Robinson, B. Mandleco, S.F. Olsen, & C.H. Hart*

**INSTRUKSIES:** Die volgende vraelys bevat ’n lys van moontlike gedragsopsies wat ouers in interaksie met hulle kinders openbaar. Die vraelys meet hoe dikwels jou ouer/ouers sekere gedrag teenoor jou as kind toon. Reageer asseblief op elke vraag so eerlik as moontlik.

**ONTHOU:** Toon aan *hoe dikwels* jou ouer/s sekere gedrag teenoor jou as kind openbaar en omkring die gepaste beskrywing.

**MY OUER OPENBAAR DIE VOLGENDE GEDRAG**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Nooit</th>
<th>Somtyds</th>
<th>Die helfte van die tyd</th>
<th>Baie dikwels</th>
<th>Altyd</th>
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<tr>
<td>1</td>
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<tr>
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<tr>
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</tbody>
</table>
Prosocial Behaviour Questionnaire


Dear Participant

Below are sentences that might or might not describe you. Please indicate *HOW MUCH EACH STATEMENT DESCRIBES YOU* by using the scale below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DOES NOT DESCRIBES SOMEWHAT DESCRIBES DESCRIBES DESCRIBES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>DESCRIBE ME AT ALL ME A LITTLE DESCRIBES ME ME WELL ME GREATLY</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 2 3 4 5

---

*Pub* 1. I can help others best when people are watching me.

*Emot* 2. It makes me feel good when I can comfort someone who is very upset.

*Pub* 3. When other people are around, it is easier for me to help others in need.

*Alt* 4. I think that one of the best things about helping others is that it makes me look good.

*Dire* 5. I tend to help people who are in a real crisis or need.

*Com* 6. When people ask me to help them, I don't hesitate.

*Anon* 7. I prefer to help others without anyone knowing.

*Dire* 8. I tend to help people who are hurt badly.

*Alt* 9. I believe that giving goods or money works best when I get some benefit.

*Anon* 10. I tend to help others in need when they do not know who helped them.

*Emot* 11. I tend to help others especially when they are really emotional.

*Pub* 12. Helping others when I am being watched is when I work best.

*Dire* 13. It is easy for me to help others when they are in a bad situation.

*Anon* 14. Most of the time, I help others when they do not know who helped them.

*Emot* 15. I respond to helping others best when the situation is highly emotional.

*Com* 16. I never wait to help others when they ask for it.

*Anon* 17. I think that helping others without them knowing is the best type of situation.

*Alt* 18. One of the best things about doing charity work is that it looks good.

*Emot* 19. Emotional situations make me want to help others in need.
20. I feel that if I help someone, they should help me in the future.

21. I usually help others when they are very upset.

* indicates item is reverse scored. Pub = Public, Emt = Emotional, Dire = Dire, Anon = Anonymous, Alt = Altruism, Com = Compliant.
**Prososiale Gedragsvraelys**

**Carlo, Gustavo; Hausmann, Anne; Christiansen, Stacie; and Randall, Brandy, A. (2003)**

**Instruksies aan deelnemers**

Die volgende sinne mag dalk of mag dalk nie vir jou beskryf nie. Dui asseblief die antwoord aan wat die beste van toepassing is op jou, deur gebruik te maak van die skaal hieronder.

Kies een van die volgende opsies. Byvoorbeeld: No 1 = beskryf my glad nie, OF, opsie No 5 = beskryf my baie goed.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Beskryf my glad nie (BMG)</th>
<th>Beskryf my ŉ bietjie (BMB)</th>
<th>Beskryf my min of meer (BMM)</th>
<th>Beskryf my goed (BG)</th>
<th>Beskryf my baie goed (BBG)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Ek kan ander mense die beste help wanneer mense my dophou.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Dit laat my goed voel as ek iemand kan troos wat baie ontsteld is.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Dit is maklier vir my om mense in nood te help wanneer daar ander mense in die omgewing is.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Ek dink een van die beste dinge om ander mense te help, is dat dit my laat goed lyk.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Ek is geneig om mense te help wat in groot nood of krisis is.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Wanneer mense my vra om te help, doen ek dit sonder om te huier.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
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<th>Beskryf my min of meer</th>
<th>Beskryf my goed</th>
<th>Beskryf my baie goed</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Ek verkies om mense te help sonder dat ander daarvan weet.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Ek is geneig om mense te help wie ernstig beseer is.</td>
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<td>2</td>
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<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Ek glo om goedere of geld te skenk, werk die beste wanneer ek daardeur baat vind.</td>
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<td>10</td>
<td>Ek is geneig om ander in nood te help wanneer hulle nie weet wie hulle gehelp het nie.</td>
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<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Ek is geneig om ander te help veral as hulle baie ontsteld is.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Ek verleen die beste hulp wanneer ander mense my dophou.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Dit is maklik vir my om ander te help wanneer hulle in 'n moeilike situasie verkeer.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
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<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Meeste van die tyd help ek ander wanneer hulle nie weet wie hulle gehelp het nie.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Ek reageer beste om ander te help wanneer die omstandighede baie ontstellend is.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Ek wag nooit om ander te help wanneer hulle om hulp vra nie.</td>
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<td>2</td>
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<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Ek dink dit is die beste om ander mense te help sonder dat hulle daarvan bewus is.</td>
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<td>Een van die beste aspekte van liefdadigheidswerk is dat dit 'n goeie indruk skep.</td>
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<tr>
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<td>Ontstellende omstandighede spoor my aan om ander in nood te help.</td>
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<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>Ek voel as ek iemand help moet hulle my in die toekoms help.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>Ek help gewoonlik ander mense wanneer hulle baie ontsteld is.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3 August 2017

The Director, Research Services
Western Cape Education Department
Private Bag X9114
CAPE TOWN
8000

Dear Dr. Audrey Wyngaard

RE: Ms Wendy La Vita as a registered Masters student at Stellenbosch University

I would like to confirm that Ms. La Vita (18049222) is registered for the MA (Psychology) degree and that I will supervise her research project.

All the best.

Prof. Arie Greeff
APPLICATION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS WITHIN THE WESTERN CAPE

Note

• This application has been designed with students in mind.
• If a question does not apply to you indicate with a N/A
• The information is stored in our database to keep track of all studies that have been conducted on the WCED. It is therefore important to provide as much information as is possible

1

APPLICANT INFORMATION

1.1 Personal Details

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1.1.1 Title (Prof / Dr / Mr/ Mrs/Ms)</th>
<th>Ms</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.1.2 Surname</td>
<td>La Vita</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.1.3 Name (s)</td>
<td>Wendy Winnefred</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.1.4 Student Number (If applicable)</td>
<td>18049222</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1.2 Contact Details

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1.2.1 Postal Address</th>
<th>P O Box 44865 Claremont,7735</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.2.2 Telephone number</td>
<td>021 8833404</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.2.3 Cell number</td>
<td>0835030902</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.2.4 Fax number</td>
<td>0865732304</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.2.5 E-mail Address</td>
<td><a href="mailto:trendsetter.lavita@gmail.com">trendsetter.lavita@gmail.com</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.2.6 Year of registration</td>
<td>2016</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.2.7 Year of completion</td>
<td>2018</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2

DETAILS OF THE STUDY

2.1 Details of the degree or project

| 2.1.1 Name of the institution     | Stellenbosch University |
2.1.2 Degree / Qualification registered for | Master’s Thesis/Research Psychology  
2.1.3 Faculty and Discipline / Area of study | Dept. Psychology/ Psychology  
2.1.4 Name of Supervisor / Promoter / Project leader | Prof. A.P. Greeff  
2.1.5 Telephone number of Supervisor / Promoter | 021 88083464/ 021 8803585  
2.1.6 E-mail address of Supervisor / Promoter | Apg@sun.ac.za  

2.1.7 Title of the study

The relationship between parenting styles and prosocial behaviour of preadolescents in a South African Context.

2.1.8 What is the research question, aim and objectives of the study

**The research question:** Is there a relationship between parenting styles and prosocial behaviour of preadolescents living in a low socio economic status community on the Cape Flats (Athlone District).

**Aims:** The first aim is to investigate the prosocial behaviour of preadolescents in a low socio economic area (Athlone District) in relation to the parenting styles of the parents of the preadolescents in a low socio econoimic area (Athlone District). The secondary aim is to ascertain if there is a difference between single parent households and two parent households in the study.

2.1.9 Name (s) of education institutions (schools)

Bridgetown Senior Secondary School (High School). Brushwood Road Bridgetown, Athlone  
Arcadia Senior Secondary School (High School) Karee Rd, Bonteheuwel

2.1.10 Research period in education institutions (Schools)

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>2.1.11</strong> Start date</td>
<td>4 September 2017</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>2.1.12</strong> End date</td>
<td>29 September 2017 (subject to availability to conduct study at schools).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

Hereby wish to indicate our willingness to participate in the Research Study as will be presented by Mrs. Wendy La Vita.

We further request that permission is granted by the WCED before the commencement of the project.

Yours in Education

MICHÈLE VASSIN
PRINCIPAL
7 August 2017
Dear Mrs Wendy La Vina,

It is my pleasure to inform you that we will warmly welcome you to our school to conduct your research study.

Yours in education,

[Signature]

A. Windsor
Principal
Addendum S

July 30th, 2017

Dear Colleague:

Enclosed is a copy of the Prosocial Tendencies Measure (PTM) and the PTM-R. Based on theory and research that suggests that there are distinct forms of prosocial behaviors, this new self-report, paper-and-pencil measure is designed to assess six different types of prosocial tendencies. The measure was originally developed to use with college aged students and young adults (PTM) and was later modified (the PTM-R) to use with middle and high school aged adolescents. Based on analyses with additional samples and using more sophisticated analytic techniques, we have since revised further the PTM-R. Below we list the primary original publications of the measure.

The six subscales of the measure are public, anonymous, compliant, altruism, emotional and dire prosocial tendencies. Analyses of the psychometric properties of the measure are promising but much more validation work is needed. Therefore, reports of the results of your research using this scale would be much appreciated.

If you have any questions, please feel free to contact me through e-mail: carlog@missouri.edu or phone (573) 884-6301.

Thank you for your interest.

Sincerely,

Gustavo Carlo
Millsap Professor of Diversity & CFPR Director
8 December 2017

Project number: 0983

Project Title: The Relationship between parenting style and prosocial behaviour of preadolescents in a South African context

Dear Ms Wendy Lavita

Your response to stipulations submitted on 6 November 2017 was reviewed and approved by the REC: Humanities.

Please note the following for your approved submission:

**Ethics approval period:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Protocol approval date (Humanities)</th>
<th>Protocol expiration date (Humanities)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>28 September 2017</td>
<td>27 September 2018</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Please take note of the General Investigator Responsibilities attached to this letter. You may commence with your research after complying fully with these guidelines.

**If the researcher deviates in any way from the proposal approved by the REC: Humanities, the researcher must notify the REC of these changes.**

Please use your SU project number (0983) on any documents or correspondence with the REC concerning your project.

Please note that the REC has the prerogative and authority to ask further questions, seek additional information, require further modifications, or monitor the conduct of your research and the consent process.

**FOR CONTINUATION OF PROJECTS AFTER REC APPROVAL PERIOD**

Please note that a progress report should be submitted to the Research Ethics Committee: Humanities before the approval period has expired if a continuation of ethics approval is required. The Committee will then consider the continuation of the project for a further year (if necessary).
If you have any questions or need further help, please contact the REC office at cgraham@sun.ac.za.

Sincerely,

Clarissa Graham

REC Coordinator: Research Ethics Committee: Human Research (Humanities)
Investigator Responsibilities
Protection of Human Research Participants

Some of the general responsibilities investigators have when conducting research involving human participants are listed below:

1. **Conducting the Research.** You are responsible for making sure that the research is conducted according to the REC approved research protocol. You are also responsible for the actions of all your co-investigators and research staff involved with this research. You must also ensure that the research is conducted within the standards of your field of research.

2. **Participant Enrollment.** You may not recruit or enroll participants prior to the REC approval date or after the expiration date of REC approval. All recruitment materials for any form of media must be approved by the REC prior to their use.

3. **Informed Consent.** You are responsible for obtaining and documenting effective informed consent using only the REC-approved consent documents/process, and for ensuring that no human participants are involved in research prior to obtaining their informed consent. Please give all participants copies of the signed informed consent documents. Keep the originals in your secured research files for at least five (5) years.

4. **Continuing Review.** The REC must review and approve all REC-approved research proposals at intervals appropriate to the degree of risk but not less than once per year. There is no grace period. Prior to the date on which the REC approval of the research expires, it is your responsibility to submit the progress report in a timely fashion to ensure a lapse in REC approval does not occur. If REC approval of your research lapses, you must stop new participant enrollment, and contact the REC office immediately.

5. **Amendments and Changes.** If you wish to amend or change any aspect of your research (such as research design, interventions or procedures, participant population, informed consent document, instruments, surveys or recruiting material), you must submit the amendment to the REC for review using the current Amendment Form. You may not initiate any amendments or changes to your research without first obtaining written REC review and approval. The only exception is when it is necessary to eliminate apparent immediate hazards to participants and the REC should be immediately informed of this necessity.

6. **Adverse or Unanticipated Events.** Any serious adverse events, participant complaints, and all unanticipated problems that involve risks to participants or others, as well as any research related injuries, occurring at this institution or at other performance sites must be reported to Malene Fouche within five (5) days of discovery of the incident. You must also report any instances of serious or continuing problems, or non-compliance with the RECs requirements for protecting human research participants. The only exception to this policy is that the death of a research participant must be reported in accordance with the Stellenbosch University Research Ethics Committee Standard Operating Procedures. All reportable events should be submitted to the REC using the Serious Adverse Event Report Form.

7. **Research Record Keeping.** You must keep the following research related records, at a minimum, in a secure location for a minimum of five years: the REC approved research proposal and all amendments; all informed consent documents; recruiting materials; continuing review reports; adverse or unanticipated events; and all correspondence from the REC.

8. **Provision of Counselling or emergency support.** When a dedicated counsellor or psychologist provides support to a participant without prior REC review and approval, to the extent permitted by law, such activities will not be recognised as research nor the data used in support of research. Such cases should be indicated in the progress report or final report.

9. **Final reports.** When you have completed (no further participant enrollment, interactions or interventions) or stopped work on your research, you must submit a Final Report to the REC.
10. On-Site Evaluations, Inspections, or Audits. If you are notified that your research will be reviewed or audited by the sponsor or any other external agency or any internal group, you must inform the REC immediately of the impending audit/evaluation

Addendum U

REFERENCE: 20170814 –3846
ENQUIRIES: Dr A T Wyngaard

Ms Wendy La Vita
PO Box 44865
Claremont
7735

Dear Ms Wendy La Vita

RESEARCH PROPOSAL: THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PARENTING STYLES AND PROSOCIAL BEHAVIOUR OF PREADOLESCENTS IN A SOUTH AFRICAN CONTEXT

Your application to conduct the above-mentioned research in schools in the Western Cape has been approved subject to the following conditions:

1. Principals, educators and learners are under no obligation to assist you in your investigation.
2. Principals, educators, learners and schools should not be identifiable in any way from the results of the investigation.
3. You make all the arrangements concerning your investigation.
4. Educators’ programmes are not to be interrupted.
5. The Study is to be conducted from 23 January 2018 till 28 September 2018
6. No research can be conducted during the fourth term as schools are preparing and finalizing syllabi for examinations (October to December).
7. Should you wish to extend the period of your survey, please contact Dr A.T Wyngaard at the contact numbers above quoting the reference number?
8. A photocopy of this letter is submitted to the principal where the intended research is to be conducted.
9. Your research will be limited to the list of schools as forwarded to the Western Cape Education Department.
10. A brief summary of the content, findings and recommendations is provided to the Director: Research Services.
11. The Department receives a copy of the completed report/dissertation/thesis addressed to:

The Director: Research Services
Western Cape Education Department
Private Bag X9114
CAPE TOWN
8000

We wish you success in your research.

Kind regards.
Signed: Dr Audrey T Wyngaard
Directorate: Research
DATE: 24 October 2017

Audrey.wyngaard@westerncape.gov.za
Tel: +27 021 467 9272
Fax: 0865902282
Private Bag X9114, Cape Town, 8000
wc.wcape.gov.za