A CASE STUDY FOR INTERGENERATIONAL TRANSFERENCE OF PARENTING IN GENADENDAL: DEVELOPING GUIDELINES

BY

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A Thesis submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the Degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

in the Department of Social Work,
within the Faculty of Community and Health Sciences,
at the

UNIVERSITY OF THE WESTERN CAPE

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SUBMISSION DATE: 26 November 2020

DECLARATION

I declare that the current study 'A case study for intergenerational transference of parenting in Genadendal: Developing Guidelines' is my own work. It has not been submitted before for any degree or examination in any University, and that all the sources I have used have been indicated and acknowledged as references.
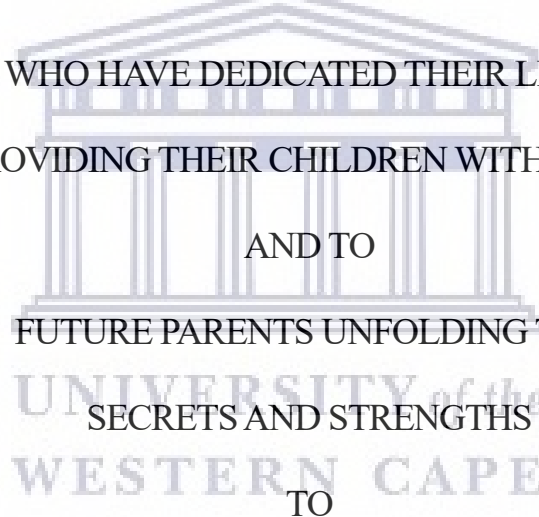
26 November 2020

Mrs Anja Rumina Human - Hendricks   Date of submission

THIS STUDY IS DEDICATED

TO

MY OWN MOTHER AND FATHER

AND TO ALL PARENTS LIKE THEM,

WHO HAVE DEDICATED THEIR LIVES

TO PROVIDING THEIR CHILDREN WITH THE BEST

AND TO

FUTURE PARENTS UNFOLDING THE

SECRETS AND STRENGTHS

TO

SUCCESSFUL PARENTING

DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to my children, Ruth (2 years) and Samuel (4 months) Hendricks, my miracle moments of life and the greatest joy to experiencing parenting.

It is also dedicated to my nephews and nieces, in no particular order: Savannah, Connor, and Reece Human; Hannah and Luke Davids; and Eli, Neriah, Israel, and Zion Tyman.

May this accomplishment inspire all of you to dream the impossible and achieve above and beyond everything and anything that you are faced with on life's journey. Furthermore, that dreams and aspirations with enough hard work, dedication, and faith is within your reach and success is your portion.

May your futures and paths ahead be filled with success, prosperity, and an abundance of goodness, grace and mercy (certainly), and the overflow of blessings of the Lord that added no sorrow. May you always remember that success is nothing without good health, happiness, love, and a family to support and share it with. So, treasure, appreciate, value and uphold these – our family values and morals – which are rooted in love and support, respect, care, compassion, Christianity, and education most dear, as you journey on this course of life and become adolescents, and later emerge into adults and efficient parents yourselves.

Remember always to honour God, honour your parents, honour the sanctuary of marriage, and live in humility with humanity.

All my love, best wishes, and prayers accompany you all the days of your lives.

Study to show yourself approved!

Your mother and Aunty Anja (Gogo)

iv

This next section is to honour the loving memory of my late parents

Peter and Ruth Human

Writing these chapters, which primarily focused on parenting styles and practices, allowed me to reflect on my own upbringing and parenting received.

Parenting of a high calibre, inclusive of provision, love, kindness, unlimited sacrifices, guidance, discipline, and being inspirational parents are the key features bolded in my memory.

Thank you for the phenomenal parents that you were, and continue to be, as your parenting lives on and is transferred through parenting practices to our future generations.

Our generations (your legacy of 11 grandchildren) have enormous shoes to fill, as we continue to embark on life's parenting journey.

Also, thank you too to those who have gone before us, for the generational imprints made on our lives.

And so,

With the inherent memories and teachings, we continue to press forward.

We are, because you were, and therefore we continue to be.

Thank you for being my parents, birthing my dreams, and very being.

With tears of joy of this accomplishment and appreciation

I salute you both!

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Personal

- First and foremost, I would like to thank and honour God for everything He has done for me from the start to the completion of this academic (PhD) journey. I am a kept woman in Christ. All glory and praise be to my Abba, Father.

- Secondly, I would like to thank my husband, daughter, and son, for walking this journey alongside me. Thank you, Emile, for being my pillar of strength! I express my deepest gratitude for your complete and utter devotion and dependability, for being by my side throughout this process, and for holding the fort in so many ways over the last few years. Thank you for your constant love, support, prayers, encouragement, and for believing in me when I felt discouraged. I appreciate and adore you and our children for enduring with me. It has been both a new, exciting, and challenging journey as we became first time parents, but we also had a few very tough years alongside my PhD studies, with my high-risk pregnancies in 2017 and 2019, and the loss of our mom, Mathilda Hendricks, in 2018, after her diagnosis and brave fight against cancer. Therefore, I also take this opportunity to thank and salute her for being an amazing parent and ambassador for education for over 40 years as a teacher, and for always supporting our further studies.

- Then, I would like to express my sincerest gratitude to all I know for their valuable contribution, support, and constant encouragement throughout the duration of my studies. A few people stand out among the many:

- My thankfulness is extended to my siblings: Jason, Trudy, Leweter, Shaun, Russell, Sharon, Mushfeeqah, Egshaan, and Nicarl – you have all been so constant, reliable and dependable.

- A special thanks to my 'Boeta', Jason Human, who, after the passing of my parents, has ever since taken up the parental supportive role. Thank you for the advice, ongoing encouragement, and everything you have done throughout the completion of my degree, master's, and now PhD studies. Furthermore, I would like to extend a heartfelt thank you to my sister and youngest sibling, Leweter Tyman, for her constant presence, love, motivation, resources, skills provided, and support throughout. I am sincerely appreciative of you both, words fail to express the depth of my recognition of who you are, what you mean to me, and all you have done throughout my academic journey.

- Thank you to my sus' Francis, and her daughter, Kim Hendricks, for sharing your space with me.

- My sincerest appreciation to the 'Obsessed to Progress' team, Leweter and Savannah, two amazing souls who brought love and laughter amidst the pressure. We continue to 'PRESS!' May the two of you reach even greater heights academically.

- I also wish to express my deepest thanks to my close circle of friends and family: Maria, Janine, Edwina, Delia, Wilma, Aunty Poppie, Hettie, Johanna, Anita, Dane, Uncle Faizel, Uncle Pat, Ma Margaret, Aunty Vivien, and Tara for their prayers, support, encouragement, and interest in my well-being over the course of my PhD journey.

Professional

- I would like to thank UWC who granted me permission to conduct my research.

- Thank you also to Prof. Van Wyk, Prof Frantz, Prof. Smith, Prof. Rhoda, and the Department of Social Work for their academic support, and for giving me the opportunity to complete my studies.

- My exceptional supervisors, Prof. Roman and Prof. Schenck, who gave their unsurpassed support, guidance, and constructive input throughout this research process. Thank you for the opportunity to work, learn, and grow along two prestigious SARChI Chair researchers and academics. You inspire me to aspire to more. I am forever indebted to both of you for everything you have done throughout, from the commencement, through all the processes in between, to the completion of this PhD journey. THANK YOU!

- My sincerest thanks and gratitude to my mentor, Dr. Beytell, for being such an amazing person. I am deeply grateful for her invaluable input, encouragement, support, and resources to enhance my learning and development both personally and professionally. I am appreciative of the person you are, for all you have done, and for all you continue to mean to me and my family.

- A special thanks to my editor, Lee-Anne Roux, for the time and consideration shown.

- A heartfelt thanks to the community of 'Genaal', the 'Genaalers' who formulated the research population and participants of my research study. Thank you for accepting me into your midst and for sharing your parenting experiences with me, which we were able to document, and now share with others to enrich their understanding of parenting and application of parenting practices. Thank you for your valuable contribution to the domain of parenting, and for enlightening us on the intergenerational transference of parenting between generations and over time. I also thank you for permitting me to document your life stories, developments, and furthermore, for allowing me to learn from your personal life journeys. I am humbled and feel honoured to have had this opportunity.

- Moreover, much of my research experience in Genadendal was based on the Aged Project, which also included quality time with the elderly where we, during the

research process, shared good old-time stories over tea and home-baked cookies, and had exercise sessions, did devotions, and played dominoes in the Sentrum, also attending traditional events at the Moravian Church. In your homes, you showed me precious and well treasured historic antiques of your loved ones that have passed, such as instruments, ornaments, and pictures. A great part of my life has been altered, enhanced, and changed forever as an individual, parent, community worker, and researcher.

- To all of you, I bow in sincere thanks and humility!!!

ABSTRACT

Parenting practices are known to influence the development of children and family functioning. However, the extent to which these generational influences stretch, and the continuities brought forth between generations has not been adequately studied. Therefore, this study aimed to explore intergenerational parenting in Genadendal for the purpose of developing guidelines for parents and practitioners. The concept of parenting was extensively unpacked to understand the intergenerational transmitted parenting factors being transferred from one generation to the next, in order to examine the parenting styles, parenting practices, parenting traits, and how these are transmitted over generations. The Life Cycle Theory was used to explain the life-course of the family through six (6) life cycle stages. A case study research design with mixed methods was used to implement both qualitative and quantitative research methods. This methodology aimed to define, explore, and examine the intergenerational changes being transferred within parenting from one generation to the next over time. Furthermore, this methodology examined the effects on parenting practices that have been transferred from one generation to the second generation to even the third generation of parents. The case study was conducted in Genadendal, a community with a population of 5,700 people, using a case study sample of three families over three generations, n=9. Qualitative interviews and a quantitative questionnaire were designed and used to collect the data. Data analyses: qualitatively, the data was captured, coded, transcribed and further categorised for meaningful themes. Quantitatively, SPSS was used to analyse the data, by using descriptive and inferential statistics. Reliability and validity were established, and ethical considerations were adhered to in this study. This was followed by the development of principle guidelines. The findings of this study indicated that parents lack parental warmth in parenting and that parents may be struggling to express warmth and love to their children through affection. This occurs as parents are placing more emphasis on being

strict to instil discipline, punishment, and rules. Therefore, less emphasis is placed on expressing and verbalising love, warmth, and affection between the parent and child. In addition, parenting was described as hard and difficult, and a practice that needs continuous work. The findings also show that parenting is intergenerationally transferred. With this intergenerational transference, there are certain skills, attributes, and knowledge parents require to parent well that are transferred, but there are also changes in parenting that have occurred over generations. Noteworthy is that grandparents are performing and assuming more roles and responsibilities in parenting. The role of the involved father was identified as important in cultivating positive parenting, while reducing the challenges experienced by single mothers. In having fathers involved, more support and shared responsibilities are offered, which in turn improves child well-being and strengthens family functioning. In conclusion, it was established that there are continuities and discontinuities of parenting approaches and changes across the three generations and over time, over the life cycle of parenting. This notion of continuities and discontinuities of parenting is certainly intergenerationally transferred and influenced by family values, traditional cultural practices, parent-child relationships, and peer association, which is further linked to child behaviour outcomes. The life-course of a person allows parents and children to experience these intergenerational transferences over the life cycle and between generations over time.

DEFINITION OF KEYWORDS

Parenting – Parenting encompasses the behaviours, styles, and practices adopted by parents to rear their child optimally from infancy to emerging adulthood (Arnett, 2000).

Good parenting – Good parenting is described as consistent discipline, monitoring, communication, involvement, and positive affection (Arnett, 2000; 2007; Brooks, 2011; Human, 2010).

Parenting styles – Parenting styles have been considered as dimensions of parental awareness and demandingness (Baumrind, 1991c).

Parenting practices – Parenting practices are recognised as specific behaviours that parents use to socialise their children (Darling & Steinberg, 1993).

Parenting factors – Parenting factors are skills, teachings, practices, styles, performs, within the family and society. Additionally, parenting factors include the quality of the parent-child relationship, warmth and strict control, and parental knowledge (Harakeh, Scholte, Vermulst, de Vries, and Engels, 2004).

Socialisation – The interactional association between a 'parent and child', 'child and peers', 'child and society' enables a process of socialisation (Roman, 2011).

Life Cycle Theory – The family life cycle theory is defined as consisting of "the expansion, contraction, and realignment of the relationship system in order to support the entry, exit, and development of family members in a functional way" (McGoldrick & Carter, 2003, p. 384).

Intergenerational transmission – The influence and impact of one generation transferred on another generation is referred to as intergenerational transmissions (Serbin & Karp, 2003).

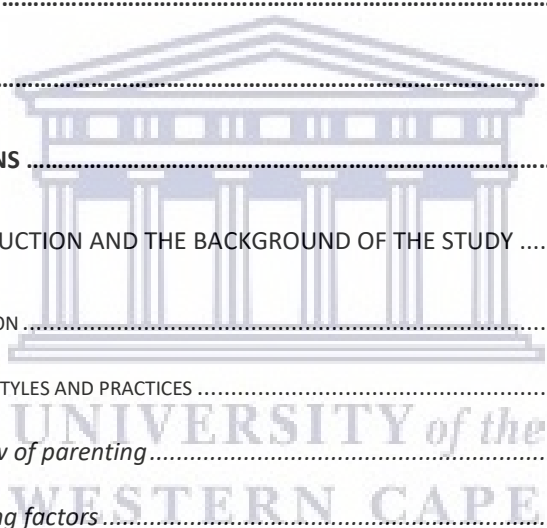**Change –** Change is an adaptation to the environment (Barr, Stimpert, & Huff, 1992)

Genadendal – Genadendal is located just 5km from Greyton, Overberg area, South Africa. This community was first built in 1738 by George Schmidt, a missionary from the Moravian Church, and is still existent today (Le Grange, 2002, pp. 20–21). It is a community rich in history, built on cultural practices and family ideals, also known as one of the few communities with multiple generations of families co-existing.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

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LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF ABREVIATIONS

ACVV	Afrikaanse Christelike Vroue Vereniging
AUTGRNT	Autonomy Granting Dimension
AUTHORITARIAN	Authoritarian parenting
AUTHORITATIVE	Authoritative parenting
AUTIVE (Authoritative)	Authoritative Parenting Style
CHAOS (E) (Chaos Dimension)	Dimension of chaos
COMMUNIC (F) Parent-child communication	Parent-child communication
CONNECT	Connection Dimension
CONTROL (D) (control)	Control
DISCIPLINE (D) (discipline and boundary setting)	Discipline and boundary setting
EMOAFFECT (D)	Self -efficacy;
(Self -efficacy; emotion and affection)	emotion and affection
EMPATH (D) (empathy and understanding)	Empathy and understanding
FLCF	Family Life Cycle Framework
FST	Family Systems Theory
LCT	Life Cycle Theory
LEARNING (D) (learning and knowledge)	Learning and knowledge
PARENTAUTH (G) (Parental Authority)	Parental Authority
PERMISS (Permissive)	Permissive Parenting Style
PERMISSIVE	Permissive parenting
PHYSCOERC	Physical Coercion
PLAY (D) (play and enjoyment)	Play and enjoyment
PRESSURES (D) (pressures of parenting)	Pressures of parenting
PSE (C) (Parental Self Efficacy)	Parental Self Efficacy
PSYCHCONTROL (I)	Psychological control
PUNITIVE	Non-Reasoning/Punitive Dimension
REG	Regulation Dimension
REJECT (E) (Parent social context)	Parent social context
SELFACCEPT (D) (self -acceptance)	Self –acceptance
STRUCTURE (E) (Parent social context)	Parent social context
TARIAN (Authoritarian)	Authoritarian Parenting Style
VERBHOST	Verbal Hostility
WHO	World Health Orginisation

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION AND THE BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Parenting is an area of research interest globally due to its many complexities and the effects it has on the well-being and adjustment of individuals. Parenting is a complex task which is consistently evolving over time, as many research efforts are directed toward understanding the broad pattern of parenting, its specific parenting practices, associated child outcomes and its influence on the development of individuals (Baldwin, 1962; Baumrind, 1971; Erickson 1985; Lubiewska, 2019; Marco & De Marco, 2010). Parenting at a very rudimentary level, includes an array of roles, responsibilities, and approaches to nurture children, which include compassion, guidance, and affection (Brooks, 2011; Vasilyeva & Shcherbakov, 2016). These approaches are displayed differently with each parenting style. There are four distinct parenting styles, namely: authoritarian, authoritative, permissive and uninvolved parenting. Additionally, the approach adopted is dependent on the underlying fundamental practices used for raising children and can be identified by a number of different characteristics. The difference between these two components is that the 'parenting style' is the psychological construct representing standard strategies that parents use in rearing their child (Bi et al., 2018). Whereas the characteristics is the feature to identify the parenting style that is being practiced by the parent (Jago et al., 2011). Thus, there are variations in parenting styles which are linked to the related parenting practices These then forms the concrete behaviours, used on a regular basis, such as rules and expectations on children, which relates to child outcomes(Anderson, 2011).

1.2 PARENTING STYLES AND PRACTICES

Parenting styles have been found to predict child well-being that include the domains of social competence, academic performance, psychological development, and behavioural outcomes (Brooks 2011, p. 9). These parenting styles are categorised based on two dimensions of parenting behaviours. The parenting behaviours are: i) demandingness, which refers to the extent of parents control exercised over their children's behaviour, and ii) responsiveness which indicates the degree to which parents are accepting and sensitive to their children's emotional and developmental needs (Baumrind, 1971). For example: characteristics of authoritarian parenting is that parents display high levels of parental control and low levels of responsiveness, whereas authoritative parents are affectionate and supportive; they provide their children with autonomy and encourage independence, thus displaying higher levels of responsiveness. Consequently, authoritative parenting, on the other hand, results in well-adjusted independent children, while authoritarian parenting, on the other hand, results in children exhibiting less independence and insecure tendencies. It is therefore apparent that some of these characteristics within parenting practices are positive and others are more destructive to the child's rearing and wellbeing ((Rodrigo, Byrne, & Rodríguez, 2014). Thus, there is a clear association between parenting styles, systematic patterns or approaches, and parenting practices of child rearing and child outcomes.

The multidimensional domain of *parenting practices,* which is of particular interest in this study, includes aspects such as love, nurturance, care, warmth, affection, acceptance, and the provision of needs which are taught and transferred to children (Brooks, 2011). Parenting and parenting practices are transferred to children to then formulate the key component in the development of individuals, families and future parenting (Marco & De Marco, 2010; Gelatt et. al., 2015). Therefore, parenting is identified as the principal role player in the process of child-rearing, as it formulates the cornerstone of child rearing dimensions that impacts on

determinants of emotional, social, cognitive and behavioural aspects of child outcomes. The types of parenting styles and parenting practices, and how child rearing has evolved over time, is discussed further in Chapter 3 of this study.

1.2.1 The purview of parenting

The scope of learning and experience of child-rearing and child-care practices encompasses many aspects for the parent, which use, these varied approaches to parenting. However, it is essential to recognise the child in the process, who is at the receiving end of the approach adopted and re-enacts it later in life (Hosokawa & Katsura, 2018). These determinant aspects vary from emotional to physical demands, and from relational to social and interpersonal skills (Amos, 2013). Yet, parenting is but one mechanism through which child-rearing practices occur (Roman, 2014). Other mechanisms are the social, genetic, and environmental stimuli that influences parenting and related practices (Kolijn et al., 2017). Thus, parenting occurs through the parenting practices that parents employ to rear their child, which are modelled, taught, and inhibited through parent-child relational interactions. This parent-child relational interaction requires different parenting approaches at different stages of the child's development over the entire life course, which is further discussed in Chapter 2 of this study. Hence, parenting remains a multifaceted and complex domain of study as it impacts on family life (life course), family functioning and future parenting (Amoateng, Barber & Erickson, 2006; Byrne, Salmela-Aro, Read, & Rodrigo, 2013; Lubiewska, 2019).

Therefore, parenting is a component central to families. Within families, there is a general expectation for affection, protection, support, and communication (Brooks, 2011). However, in many instances these components are absent in the family, which predisposes children to fall prone to violence and other at-risk factors that could potentially be transferred across generations (Roman, 2019). Thus, parenting plays a fundamental role in the

development of a child, including social, behavioural, and emotional competence and welfare. With the family being the origin of children's earliest experiences, it is imperative to consider the parenting component and its influences within families (Roman, 2019). These experiences may ultimately enhance or be to the detriment of children's future development, as it produces either positive or negative effects in their behaviour and socialisation as children, and as they develop into adults and parents later in life. Some of these contributing aspects that produce positive or negative effects in children may be considered in relation to the social issues confronting these child-rearing environments, such as the family, household, and communities.

Furthermore, these aspects confronting children, parenting, families, and communities may consist of social ills, such as family risk factors, child protection aspects, and other challenges experienced in families. These vary from violence and at-risk factors against women and children; harm and injury to vulnerable persons, such as the elderly and disabled; increased kidnappings; abductions, child labour; sex trade; sodomised boys in engagements of boy relations; physical abuse by partners; stereotyping and victimisation of people's sexuality; and social economic issues, which include poverty, unemployment, substance abuse, crime, and teenage pregnancies. In addition, research findings display those aspects such as 'abuse, neglect, violence, substance abuse, poor relationships and disconnectedness in families to have dire consequences for children, parenting, families and societies' (Roman, 2019). The experiences and effects of these social aspects may be conveyed through parent-child relations, and consequently affect the child's operative abilities (Thapar et al., 2017). To this end, if parents are unable to cope or parent their child effectively, the effects thereof may be detrimental to the child's development and may further influence how they react to and interact with others in society, but more so, how they will re-enact parenting later in life.

Furthermore, questions posed include: What is occurring in the family regarding parenting, and specifically parenting in relation to the styles, practices, and performs children receive, re-enact, and captivate within parent-child interaction and communication? What is ultimately being transferred between the parent and child, and future generations? What are children actually being role modelled and taught? Finally, how are they being moulded in the family from the parenting they receive?

In respect of these interrogations regarding parenting, this study deliberated to provide insight into the extent of the experiences occurring within parenting, affecting families and societies, both internationally and nationally. An exploration of the components of parenting was therefore deemed necessary to understand the current at-risk factors and influences within child-rearing frameworks and contextualising influences of future parenting across generations.

1.2.2 Parenting factors

Parents are considered as individuals who nourish, protect and "guide new life to maturity" (Brooks, 2011, p. 6). In addition, parenting is described as "the process of promoting and supporting the physical, emotional, social and intellectual development of a child from infancy to adulthood (Department of Social Development's (DSD) Annual Report 2011/2012, p. 9). Parents therefore make a lifetime commitment to participate, invest, and contribute to the optimal rearing, functioning and development of a child to their full potential by being responsible care-givers (Kirby, 2008; Thapar et al., 2017). The parenting styles, practices, and behaviours assumed by parents are therefore used to rear their child optimally from infancy to emerging adulthood (Arnett, 2000). This suggests parenting involvement over the entire life course of an individual.

Furthermore, parenting encompasses the following mechanisms: "1) An on-going attachment and relationship with the child, 2) Provision of material resources such as food, clothing and shelter, 3) Access to medical and dental care, 4) Responsible discipline, 5) Avoiding injuries, cruel criticism, and harmful physical punishment, 6) Intellectual and moral education, 7) Preparation for taking on responsibilities of adulthood, and 8) Assuming responsibility for the child's actions and socialization in the larger society" (Brooks (2011, p. 6). Hence, parents are the carers and protectors of children, and further provide the support required for formulating both the internal (emotional, spiritual, mental) and external (social, physical) fundamentals needed for a child's optimal growth and development (UNICEF South Africa, 2008). Additionally, parents provide both direct and indirect activities with children, and these manifest in diverse forms, such as; encouragement, teachings and communication as mechanisms of engagement with their children (Darling, 1999; Lenka & Vandana, 2016). One may therefore deduce that 'good parenting' encompasses consistent discipline, monitoring, supervision, communication, participation, and acts of affirmation, such as warmth, love, and support, which produce positive benefits (Belsky et al., 2005). It also encourages constructive parenting to achieve positive outcomes in later life, for future generations (Chen & Kaplan, 2001; Kerr, Capaldi, Pears, & Owen, 2009). Thus, the assumption is that in an ideal world "parents play a critical role in the development of children, and therefore effective and efficient parenting is of utmost importance to ensure well balanced and stable children" (DSD, 2011/2012, p. 8). However, increased social ills, such as poverty, unemployment and the many situational challenges within the family, society, and the broader community, may lead to ineffective parenting, which may negatively impact the development and care of children (DSD, 2011/2012).

Parenting is a therefore a continuous learning and growing process. The challenge for parents is to learn to integrate and develop parenting skills that impact the positive

functioning and well-being of a child. Parenting is thus a characteristic of an individual's lifespan that has become a natural phenomenon influenced by the socialisers of children. These include culture, tradition, society, parents, teachers, grandparents, and other significant others. Parenting is also focused on enhancing competencies and skills of children through parenting practices (Baumrind, 1991b; Dumais, 2006; Johnson, Berdahl, Horne, Richter, & Walters, 2014; Lareau, 2003). It is evident that parents play an influential role in the rearing and socialising of children into well-adjusted adults and future second-generation parents. The interactional relationship between a 'parent and child', 'child and peers', and 'child and society' enables a process of socialisation (Roman, 2008; 2014).

During this process of socialisation and further into parenthood, children internalise the roles, rules, parenting practices, and morals pertinent to the family and wider community in which they live (Roman, 2014). The question is, which roles, rules, and parenting practices are children internalising into adulthood, and subsequently practicing when they become parents? Different parenting styles and parenting practices advance different outcomes within the rearing of the child. This directly impacts how children perceive and react to parenting skills, teachings, practices, styles and performs within the family and society. Additionally, parenting factors (i.e., quality of parent-child relationship, psychological control, strict control, parental knowledge), allow children to grow their character by developing the necessary skills to equip them for mastering and overcoming the many challenges in adulthood, such as when they become parents themselves, second generation parents (Baumrind, 1967; Harakeh et al., 2004; Louw & Louw, 2007; Shahsavari, 2012). Serbin and Karp (2003) argue that second-generation parents are inclined to repeat the first-generation parenting model which their parents applied with them. In addition to becoming a parent and adopting parenting skills and practices, many perceive parenting to be a natural instinctive (innate) phenomenon that surfaces mechanically upon becoming a parent (Powell, 1978).

7

However, if this is so, the following questions come to light; how has this innate information come about within the individual? From which sources and influences have these innate characteristics emanated from? Or has parenting been genetically transferred? The assumption therefore is that parenting could be (1) inherent (Van Ijzendoorn, 1992) or (2) transferred intergenerationally (Littlewood, 2009). The latter is discussed next.

1.3. INTERGENERATIONAL TRANSFERENCE

The influence and impact of one generation on another generation is referred to as 'intergenerational transmissions or transference' (Serbin & Karp, 2003). Intergenerational transmissions often pertain to the parenting aspect of one generation to the next, to indicate at least three generations: G1 grandparents, G2 parents, and G3 children (Van Ijzendoorn, 1992). Intergenerational transmissions are described as the parental experiences and behavioural tendencies of one generation being subsequently transposed onto another generation (Capaldi, Conger, Hops, & Thornberry, 2003). Therefore, parents of one generation have the inclination to reiterate the parenting model of their parents (Serbin & Karp, 2003). Patterns of parenting behaviour tend to be concordant across generations (Belsky & Jaffee, 2006), which raises the question: What are the explanations for and origins of 'these' transferred parenting behaviours?"

Van Ijzendoorn (1992) counteracts these questions by stating that

If children have been reared by grandparents and parents within the same environmental factors including physical and social environmental conditions, their child rearing behaviour and attitudes may tend to be comparable, although the former generation may not have applied any direct, psychological influence on the next generations parenting (p.77).

Additionally, previous research depicts that parenting experiences may lead to behaviours that are transferred to children within adopted behaviours and will eventually be

displayed in parenting their own children (Shaffer, Burt, Obradović, Herbers, & Masten, 2009). Therefore, Belsky (1984) argues that a person's parenting practices are influenced by their own history and childhood experiences. Identifiable links between childhood experiences are discernible, including household functioning, cultural practices, environmental factors, and parental adulthood performs. In light of the above, the factors contributing to intergenerational transference of parenting factors over time require further exploration.

1.3.1 Intergenerational parenting: continuities and discontinuities

Research over the past 75 years suggests that intergenerational transmission (transference) and the continuity of parenting styles, behaviours, and values, change over time, both within families and from one generation to the next (Littlewood, 2009). The intergenerational continuity of parenting is described as the extent to which a child's interaction with his/her parents during childhood and in their child-parent interactions is replicated later in adulthood (Conger, Neppl, Kim, & Scaramella, 2003). Intergenerational transference is therefore perceived to be an influenced phenomenon (Van Ijzendoorn, 1992); however, the extent and influence of the parental *continuities* and d*iscontinuities* across generations and over time remains questionable.

Intergenerational transmission of parenting was first explored by Itkin (1952) when he conducted a study on intergenerational parenting on 400 junior college students and their parents. His research revealed that the two generations share about 14% of the variance in parenting attitudes (Van Ijzendoorn, 1992). Additionally, intergenerational transmission of parenting indicates the; influence of parents' own experiences as a child, as well as their child-rearing practices and attitudes assumed and transferred (Marin et al., 2013). This suggests that intergenerational parenting is transferred between generations.

1.3.2 Intergenerational transference: Socialisation and influences

Furthermore, "[I]ntergenerational transmission is part of the socialization of the 'socializer' and the concept concerns the origin of parenting behaviour and attitudes in the earlier generation" (Van Ijzendoorn, 1992, p. 76). Generational influences on parenting may also include genetic factors (Van Ijzendoorn, 1992). Thus, the transmission of genes from one generation to the next may shape the next generations experiences of the social and physical environment. On the contrary, research suggests that the level of parental influence on children through DNA gene transmission is less influential (Brooks, 2011, Vasilyeva & Shcherbakov, 2016). This, therefore, could mean that even though there are gene transmissions, parents already imprint on their child/ren, by implementing basic parental experiences and knowledge; this suggests that the greater influence is not genetically transferred but could rather be relational.

Thus, there is a clear difference between intergenerational transmissions (social, behavioural) and genetically (DNA) determined continuity of parenting styles (Kitamura et al., 2009). Also, parenting styles are, to a certain extent, genetically identified (Lipscomb et al., 2012). In consequence, this may directly or indirectly impact on an individual parenting style being adopted and transferred (Jefferis & Oliver, 2006 & Gežová, 2015). Hence, parenting styles differ from parent to parent, household to household, as well as society to society. The parent, household, and community could then formulate foundations which stimulate changes in parenting styles and practices, allowing one to compare the parenting factors and practices across generations. However, changes in society and societal circumstances are constantly impacting on the continuity or discontinuity of parenting practices on future generations. This brings forth a reason for further study as to why offspring mature to adulthood to repeat or deter from the child-rearing practices and performs they received (considering constant changes in times), and which parental factors impact

children negatively or positively to make a choice in either direction, to assimilate or dissimilate certain parental factors (Shaffer et al., 2009).

Parenting is not a one-way street, there are multiple other role players and factors involved (Quinton & Rutter, 1988). Therefore, parenting may be viewed as an interactional process of action and reaction between, firstly the *parent and child*, which requires continuity in practices throughout the developmental life-span (Gežová, 2015). The social interactions and behavioural performs are transferred from one generation to the next, which is a secondary form taking place through *family interactions* (Scaramella, Conger, Spoth & Simons, 2002). *Society* may be considered the third dynamic force in the child-rearing and transference process, as it provides support and stressors for parents and children, and can change in response to the needs and actions of parents and children (Brooks, 2011; Erzinger & Steiger, 2014). Thus, one could argue that the *child, parent, and society* all influence the process of parenting and its practices, and in turn, are either changed or remain constant across generations. Generations residing in the same neighbourhood or family household may contribute to factors which allow for intergenerational continuity, as the environment and social circumstances impact on children's intellect and their future parenting practices (Byford, Kuh, & Richards, 2012). This is an example of cumulative continuity in which an individual's environment reinforces a certain interactional style, in that way sustaining the performance pattern across the life-course, and maybe even across generations (Van Ijzendoorn, 1992). Ijzendoorn (1992) identifies three transmission models: 1) modelling based on observational learning of a parent interacting with a child; 2) modelling consists of the child's past experiences of interacting with the parent; and 3) modelling parental coaching of the child during interaction with another child (p. 79).

Parenting therefore includes not only parent's behaviour toward children intended to change the course of their development, but also attitudes toward child-rearing that may

influence children's development. Harkness and Super (1992) support this by reiterating that parenting practices, such as child-rearing views, are inferred within the contexts of history and culture. The culture and practices of a family impacts on children's growth and knowledge, and ultimately influence adult parenting perceptions and actions (Henrich, Heine & Norenzayan, 2010;). Furthermore, parental control and individualism have been associated with religious beliefs and child-rearing practices across cultures (Gershof et al., 2010; Vittrup & Holden, 2010; Morling & Lamoreaux, 2008). However, the effects of parenting factors, such as warmth and control, vary. For example, parental control was positively associated in Asia but negatively associated among children in North America and Germany (Chao & Tseng, 2002). This shows that although parenting factors may be intergenerationally transferred, the effects on children may vary across countries and cultures, and therefore, within parenting across generations, and over time.

1.4 THE COMMUNITY CONTEXT: GENADENDAL

A community is described as any group of people at a certain period of time that consumes a certain amount of living geographical space, including its resources and shared values, where the community at large functions independently, and its societal members interdependently (Nicholas, Rautenbach, & Maistry, 2010). This sense of community is evident in a small town and mission station 200 km outside of Cape Town called Genadendal. Genadendal is also referred to as 'Genaal' for short by its community members, and the community members are referred to as 'Genalers' (this is very unique). The community has a rich history as it has been in existence for over 200 years. Translated, Genadendal means the 'Valley of Grace,' as 'Genade' means 'Grace' in Afrikaans (SAHO, 2019).

1.4.1   Rural context: Genadendal

Parents are often faced with the difficulty of balancing different aspects of life, such as employment, child-rearing practices, community roles and responsibilities, amongst others. These in turn affect the parenting process (Joseph Rowntree Foundation, 2020). Prior studies have established that parenting attitudes in rural and urban communities differ (Saricam, Halmatov, Halmatov, & Celik, 2012). This is evident in the parenting practices, child-rearing styles, and family functioning adopted by parents within rural and urban communities (Saricam et al., 2012). Despite the restrictions imposed on parenting in rural contexts, e.g., due to limited resources, parents still preferred raising their children in a rural context (Joseph Rowntree Foundation, 2020). These limitations include inadequate recreational activities for children and youth to partake in the community, as well as inadequate transport services, work prospects, and access to professional health care facilities (Joseph Rowntree Foundation, 2020). Parents of rural communities are also faced with the challenges of seasonal work and unemployment. This negatively impacts parental involvement (Kgaffe, 2001), and affects parents' ability to provide for their family, often leading to poverty. The resultant strain placed on parents affects family functioning and child development. To examine these influences further, a rural community was selected as the main location of the study. By selecting a rural area, we are able to identify how parents cope and sustain their livelihoods as well as the abilities and skills parents possess in raising their children, and evidently, how this affects the children and the future parenting practices.

Research studies and guiding policies have concentrated on the economic and social sustainability as well as the societal fragility of rural disadvantaged communities (Joseph Rowntree Foundation. 2020). This study thus focuses on extending these studies, with the aim to explore and identify the parenting factors that parents inherently possess in relation to their skills, abilities, and other competencies, and how these are continued or discontinued

between generations to influence future parenting. In addition, this study seeks to explore what parenting factors future generations may own and retain, and how this will inadvertently affect parenting, child outcomes in relation to the current escalating social ills, violence and at-risk factors in societies. Moreover, irrespective of the enumerated numerous challenges experienced within rural communities, parents indicated that they still preferred to rear their children in a rural environment. Their reasons included: they found it to be a more relaxed lifestyle; there is more tolerance and acceptance of cultural diversity; and there is a greater existance of supportive social networks in the community (Joseph Rowntree Foundation, 2020).

The rural town of Genadendal was thus selected to investigate and explore: (1) the domain of parenting in order to understand parenting styles and practices; (2) how parents' innate parenting characteristics and practices inherently may be transferred to affect and change children's functioning and future generational parenting; (3) the impact of generational parenting on the broader family and; (4) how parenting styles and practices are influenced and transferred between parents and children intergenerationally.

The fundamental focus of the current study was then formulated on understanding parenting and the related practices that may or may not be intergenerationally transferred over time to future generations through child-rearing, family associations, and communal social-cultural engagements.

1.4.2 Current profile of Genadendal

According to the 2011 census (Frith, n.d.), Genadendal has an area of 3.97 km^2; the population is 5,663 (1,426.81 per km^2), and households are 1,593 (401.36 per km^2). The gender, population groups, and language are outlined in Table 1.1 below.

Table 1.1 Demographic profile of the community of Genadendal from the 2011 Census (Frith, n.d.).

Variables		N	%
Gender	Male	2915	51.47
	Female	2748	48.53
Race and Ethnicity	Coloured	5323	94
	Black African	174	3.07
	Other	118	2.08
	White	29	0.51
	Indian or Asian	19	0.34
Language	Afrikaans	5186	94.89
	English	167	3.06
	Other	50	0.91
	IsiXhosa	22	0.40
	Setswana	14	0.26
	Sesotho	9	0.16
	IsiNdebele	7	0.13
	Sign language	5	0.09
	IsiZulu	2	0.04
	Sepedi	1	0.02
	Not applicable	198	

Note. N = Population

As indicated in Table 1 above, the dominant race of Genadendal is Coloured, and Afrikaans is the most prominent spoken language. The majority of the people in Theewaterskloof Municipality (of which Genadendal is a part) are between the ages 25–29 years, followed by 20–24 years, and lastly, 0–4 years (this is illustrated in Figure 1.1 below).

Figure 1.1 provides an overview of the male–female ratio in relation to age categories: 51.47% are female, and 48.53% are male. This sketches the contextual background of the community, which may be linked to understanding parenting for the purpose of this study.
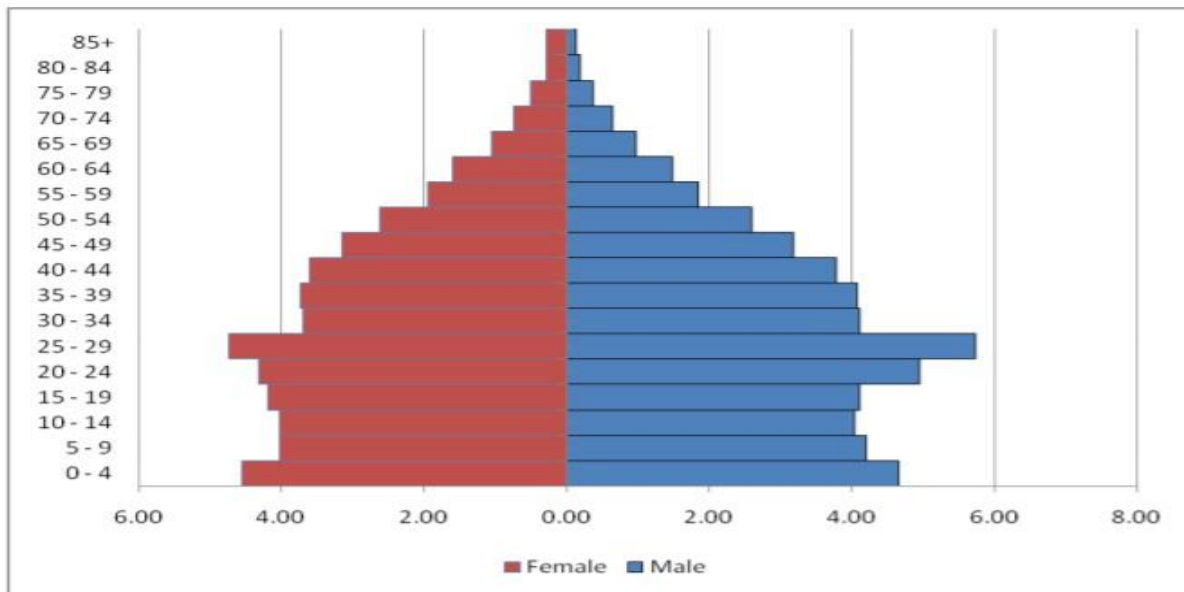
Figure 1.1 Age distribution in the Theewaterskloof Municipality (retrieved October 2019) (https://www.statssa.gov.za/stories/Grabouw_Service%20delivery.pdf)

1.4.3 Origins and development of Genadendal (study context)

Genadendal is a small historical village, situated in the Western Cape Province of South Africa, originally known as 'Baviaanskloof' (Baboon Ravine) by the local inhabitants (Le Grange, 2002, pp. 20–21). The oldest mission station in the country is found in Genadendal (Le Grange, 2002, pp. 20–21).

This traditional town was first established in 1702. It came into existence by the influence of Georg Schmidt, a German missionary, who arrived in the region and ministered to the Khoi people in 1738 (Le Grange, 2002, pp. 20–21). Upon his arrival, the Khoisan were in distress due to the spread of the smallpox endemic and the invasion of white farmers (South African History Online (SAHO), 2019). The people of the community were on the verge of extinction and confronted with various challenges. Schmidt therefore formed a small church community and taught the Khoisan religious practices, as well as skills to read and write, in order to help build the community again (SAHO, 2019). Recognising the potential of this community, Schmidt helped this community to advance. As a result, many establishments and developments occurred. However great, his efforts were challenged, and

he was forcefully sent back to Europe in 1743 as the rival Cape Dutch Reformed priesthood prohibited religious practices of baptism and refused him to continue working with the community (SAHO, 2019). It was only many years later that the church community recommenced Schmidt's initial work, spearheading Genadendal into one of the leading settlements in the Cape Colony (SAHO, 2019). The village of Genadendal is known as the oldest Moravian mission village in Africa and has a proud heritage. The heritage extends to include both a tangible and intangible inheritance. Among the tangible assets are the church buildings, and a school that dates back to 1738. Genadendal is also known for being a farming town, with cattle and vegetable farming being commonplace. The community is very skilled and the first knife factory, the museum with many historical artefacts, may still be visited today since its existence in 1896 (SAHO, 2019). Genadendal is well known for their brass band musical events. This music heritage is an integral part of the community, as it fosters the music talents of many, especially the youth (www. moravianbrass.co.za). The Brass Band movement is also linked to the Moravian Church, which originated in the Czech Republic in 1457, and was later introduced to South Africa in 1734. Thus, the origins of this town are far reaching.

1.4.4 Historical account of Genadendal

Through this settlement came many developments, such as the first printing press (drukkery), the first knife making, and the first teachers' college in South Africa. It is for these reasons that this town is regarded to be rich in history, as it has spearheaded many developments and advancements for South Africa. Additionally, the town has beautiful architectural designs, musical customs, and the people have a 'history that was succumbing by humanitarian efforts and political struggles' (SAHO, 2019). Some of these include the church square, inclusive of the 'Die Werf' which includes the old watermill, Khoi huts, vegetable gardens, the restaurant, the printing museum, bookshop, the pottery house, and the museum which showcases the

development of the town across generations and over time (Garner, Jones, & Miner, 1994). The original Moravian Church still stands, housing the oldest pipe organ in South Africa (Garner et al., 1994). The long-standing bell is located in the churchyard, along with thatched roofed cottages (Garner et al., 1994). The scenic Genadendal Hiking Trail is another characteristic feature (Garner et al., 1994).

Nearly 50 years later, three missionaries attempted to further the ministry, and like their forerunner Schmidt, they also encountered resistance from the Dutch Church at the Cape (SAHO, 2019). The opposition was so great that they were initially denied permission to build a church. However, they eventually succeeded in 1800, but were in later years denied permission to ring the traditional bell that signals the gathering of the community for church (Le Grange, 2002).

After the abolishment of slavery in 1838, Genadendal accommodated over a thousand slaves, becoming the first permanent residency for the Khoi. Due to increased development, by educating and labourers becoming skilled, people were streaming into this town, and it became the second largest settlement after Cape Town.

The first guest house, public library, and chemist shop was established in 1830, and the first Teachers' Training College in South Africa was founded there in 1838 (SAHO, 2019). However, when industrialisation took root and factories began mass producing, many local hand-crafted items became less widespread, reducing production and employment (SAHO, 2019), exacerbating poverty. Many were forced to leave the village in search of employment elsewhere.
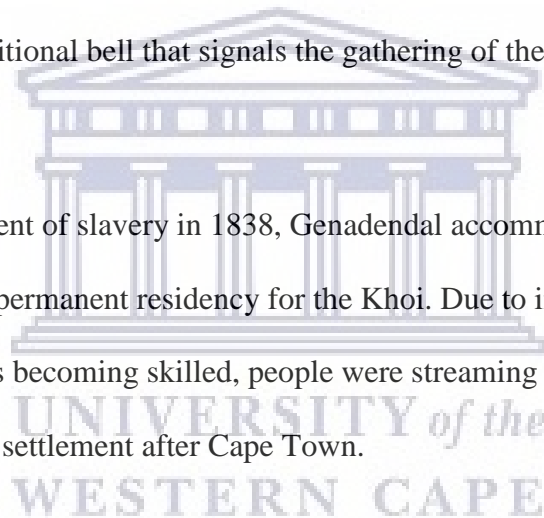
1.4.5   Legislative development of Genadendal

The legislation at the time – the Communal Reserve Act of 1909 for Mission Stations (Mokrosinska & Mokrosiska, 2012) – granted inhabitants occupational rights only, and not property rights. This resulted in some challenges between the missionaries and residents (Le Grange, 2002). The Teachers' Training College was then closed down by the Department of Public Education in 1926, claiming that tertiary education was not a necessity for coloured people employed on local farms (SAHO, 2019). Apartheid laws and legislations later resulted in a further decline of resources and lack of development (SAHO, 2019). These executed policies caused severe destitution, poverty, overall degradation, and stagnation of the town. To this day, poverty is still rife, with 81% of the population's earning capacity being less than R3,500 per month (Theewaterskloof Municipality, n.d.). This is perpetuated by limited work opportunities.

Thus, the need for job creation and skills development is required in the area. A few years ago, a restoration project was completed, which was largely assisted by the Dutch Government who still provides aid to the town (Greyton Accommodation, 2013). This improvement positively affected the infrastructure and quality of life for citizens in Genadendal. Furthermore, there are many other projects also directed toward improving the standard of living and generating employment and skills development.

The next sub-section looks at Genadendal today.

1.4.6   Contemporary Genadendal

At present, Genadendal celebrates its 270th year of existence and currently has 3,500 registered occupants (SAHO, 2019). By understanding the history and evolvement of the town, the notion of parenting and how it progressed and continues to develop with time, can

be studied. Furthermore, these developments, including the cultural and socio-political affects that parenting has undergone, is explored to determine the true development, growth, and progress of parenting across generations, and over time, to determine the fundamental truths and meanings formulated and experienced about parenting over time and across generations, and to identify the continuities and discontinuities of parenting.

Many of the inhabitants of Genadendal are teachers who have since retired and have returned to their birthplace. This was once a sustainable town. Some today still do pottery, arts and crafts. The town is infamous for its rich instrumental music, special honeybush tea, and local wine. Although there are a few schools and shops, many seek employment and education in the 'City' (meaning, Cape Town) across the 'steg'. The '*steg*' is an Afrikaans word used by the community members to describe a little bridge separating Genadendal and the main road, leading out to the City in search of broader horizons.

Frequenting the City or neighbouring towns to buy essentials is common. Employment is mostly on nearby farms, such as the apple farms in Grabouw, while others do general employment, e.g., cleaners, security guards, and crèche or school teachers. As a result, the town is confronted with a number of social issues, such as poverty, unemployment, and substance abuse.

Thus, current social issues draw the attention of researchers to further explore and investigate how the social-cultural richness of the town has patently been upheld to include family values and traditions through generations. The sentiment that a little town, that has been in existence since the 1700's, and that patently uphold family values and traditions through generations, would be an ideal place to explore the interests of parenting and the intergenerational aspects being transferred from one generation to the next. It is therefore an ideal place to explore parenting and the intergenerational aspects that are transferred from

one generation to the next, focusing on parenting practices that have remained dynamic and sustainable throughout the political and socio-economical changes that have occurred over the years.

1.5 PROBLEM STATEMENT

Internationally and cross-culturally, parenting was studied in 13 cultural groups and in nine different countries including China, Columbia, Italy, Jordon, Kenya, Philippines, Sweden, Thailand, and the United States (Deater-Deckard et al., 2011). These studies highlight dimensions of parenting, including parenting styles and practices. Furthermore, international research also highlights the effect of parenting on different aspects of life (Belsky, Hancox, Sligo, & Poulton, 2012; Farver, Narang & Bhadha, 2002). There is however a paucity of research on parenting in the South African context, with most studies focusing on quantitative research which highlights styles and practices (Human, 2010; Roman 2014), and parenting effects on different aspects of life (Lenka & Vandana, 2016; Walsh, 2012). This depicts limited research conducted to date in relation to intergenerational transference of parenting, therefore, many of the resources are dated due to the partial research found. Previous research has a lessor focus on the continuities, discontinuities and the changes occurring within intergenerational parenting over time and within families.

Parenting has several components that include styles, practices, factors, dimensions and mechanisms. All these aspects contribute to developing either positive or negative parenting in individuals. Positive parenting encompasses consistent discipline, monitoring, communication, involvement, and positive affection, whereas negative parenting is destructive and harmful (Arnett 2000; 2007; Brooks, 2011, Human, 2010;). Positive parenting in childhood is believed to result in positive outcomes in adulthood and contrary negative parenting will result in detrimental outcomes (Chen & Kaplan, 2001; Gežová, 2015;

21

Shahsavari, 2012). The question is whether parenting, experienced as positive or negative, would be transferred across generations and within families over time.

Families are diversified across generations and over time as practices, cultures and ideologies change (Kliman & Madsen, 2011). Families are further affected by the social, historical, economic and political factors of its era (Elder & Johnson, 2002; Elder & Shanahan, 2006; Gladwell, 2008). However, families are believed to share the same historical and cultural events of their past, and therefore similarly share a unified future (VanKatwyk, 2003). In addition, the life cycle theory proposes that the norms, standards, and meanings of generations are reliant on the socio-cultural background of a community, societal influences and family practices (Falicov et al., 2011 & Hines, 2011). Thus, an assumption could be that parenting, as a practice of family, could also be generational. This further suggests that positive or negative parenting could be generationally transferred within families and over time. Therefore, the following assumptions pertain to this study: 1) parenting factors are transferred intergenerationally over time; 2) there is a significant difference in parenting factors, such as social, cultural, and socio-economic influences (Bronfenbrenner, 1985; Owen et al., 2000), and child-rearing practices (Harkness, 1980; Vygotsky, 1978) across generations over time; and 3) there are factors that contribute towards intergenerational transference of parenting. Thus, the aim of this study is to explore intergenerational parenting in Genadendal for the purpose of developing guidelines for parents and practitioners.

1.6 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The following research questions were formulated:

1. What are the parenting factors (parenting styles and practices, skills, teachings, practices, styles, performs, quality of parent-child relationship, warmth and strict control, parental knowledge) which are intergenerationally transferred over time?

2. Is there a significant difference in parenting factors (parenting styles and practices, skills, teachings, practices, styles, performs, quality of parent-child relationship, warmth and strict control, parental knowledge) between generations?

3. How is parenting intergenerationally transferred?

4. Which factors contribute towards intergenerational transference of parenting factors over time?

5. What guidelines are needed for parents and practitioners to improve parenting in Genadendal?

1.7 AIM & OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The aim of this study was to explore intergenerational parenting in Genadendal for the purpose of developing guidelines for parents and practitioners.

The objectives of the study were to:

1. Determine and explore the parenting factors (parenting styles and practices, skills, teachings, practices, styles, performs, quality parent-child relationship, warmth and strict control, parental knowledge) of generations in Genadendal;

2. Explore the intergenerational transference of parenting factors (parenting styles and practices, skills, teachings, practices, styles, performs, quality parent-child relationship, warmth and strict control, parental knowledge) in Genadendal;

3. Compare the parenting factors across generations in Genadendal;

4. Explore the contributing factors towards intergenerational transference of parenting factors over time in Genadendal;

5.   Develop guidelines for parents and practitioner to improve parenting in Genadendal.

1.8 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This study used a qualitative framework to achieve an informative and in-depth understanding of the phenomenon of intergenerational parenting under study. This research approach allowed the study to be conducted within an exploratory and descriptive framework; as exploratory research designs explore the perceptions around the nature of a problem and raising questions to be investigated by studies that are more extensive (Creswell, 2013). This study employed a case study research design, consisting of nine participants from three generational families, with parenting forming the object of study. A case study design enables the use of multiple methods for data collection and analysis (Stake, 1995; Creswell & Plano Clark, 2017). Both qualitative and quantitative research data collection methods were used to explore intergenerational transference of parenting within the community of Genadendal. The qualitative process allowed for in-depth interviews to be conducted, and the quantitative process applied a questionnaire. A comprehensive description of the case setting provides background information that describes how the research appropriately and suitably matches the setting. In order to understand parenting and the transitions over the life cycle of parenting, the research setting, the community of Genadendal was selected (as a case study) to conduct the research processes of this study. Being in existence for more than twenty decades, this multi-generational close-knit community with its golden rich history was selected to study the domain of parenting over generations, with the assumption that opulent information regarding parenting over more than one generation would be able to be extracted. This would then enable one to explore the changes and continuities of parenting over time, and take into consideration the social, economic, and cultural factors that have influenced parenting, as well as to explore these transitions over the

life-course of individuals within the same community. The research methodology is discussed in more detail in Chapter 4.

1.9 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

For the purposes of this study, ethical clearance was obtained from the Research Ethics Committee of the University of the Western Cape (UWC). In addition, this study was conducted in an area, namely, Theewaterskloof (TWK), of which Genadendal is a sub-area. A partnership exists between UWC and TWK since 2004. This UWC and TWK partnership formulates a collaboration project; it is a community-based education and involvement project focused on development and growth in rural areas. This collaboration came about when the Director of Community Services of the TWK Municipality approached the UWC Faculty of Community and Health Sciences to place students for practical's and fieldwork in the affiliated areas, to provide services through learning to the community in respective domains. This allows practitioners and students to not only formulate research studies, but also to apply research findings in practices within the community and to further develop the community. Thus, a formal agreement exists between these associates that permit research to be conducted to advance and develop the community. Henceforth, accessibility into the area to conduct research that is focused on development and growth of the community is easier as stakeholders are aware of the partnership. Thus, the community developer and stakeholders in the area, relating to parenting and access to parents, such as the Clinic, ACVV, Library and Aged centre, were all approached and informed of the intent of the study through formal meeting processes, and platforms were provided to voice their ideas and concerns. Thus, permission was sought from stakeholders and community representative members to conduct the study. Consequently, the stakeholders provided positive feedback and permitted the study to be conducted in relation to the nature and scope of the study. Lastly, the research findings of the study will allow for the implementation of the guidelines to be reiterated back into the

community and other similar rural community contexts to strengthen the parenting education of future generations.

The participants who partook in the study were treated with respect and dignity adhering to the following principles in order to protect their rights: **Informed consent:** The participants were informed in terms of the process and purpose of the research, and thus completed a written consent form for their voluntary participation. The contact details of the researcher and the supervisor was clearly stipulated on the consent form. This form was separated from the questionnaire before parents completed the questionnaire. **Voluntary information:** Participation in the research was voluntary. Parents were informed about their rights to refuse participation and their freedom to withdraw from the research at any point. **Privacy, anonymity and confidentiality:** Information acquired was stored securely as each survey was coded using a number instead of a name, for identification purposes during the process of data analysis. Through confidentiality, the identities of the participants were protected, and participants were assured that no private information would be disclosed in further research or publications that emanate from the research. Furthermore, counselling services to social services for further support was established in the event that parents who were affected by the study and who required further intervention could be referred to. However, none of the participants indicated further support services or required referrals for further intervention.

1.10   SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

This study is deemed important to understanding parenting as it includes a holistic overview of parenting styles, practices, and dimensions that impact on the parenting (child-rearing and nurturing) of parents. This understanding of parenting further strengthened parenting practices, as parents through the guidelines, developed a comprehensive understanding of the positives and negative effects of different parenting styles and their

associated practices. This study highlights the importance of educating parents and practitioners with certain competencies that formulate the fundamentals of parenting. These fundamentals may be perceived as the core functions and guiding practices for effective operative parenting.

Furthermore, the empowerment of parents and practitioners with these guidelines formulated may in turn reduce the problematic outcomes and effects on children's development. It will also reduce the behavioural outcomes displayed by children, as parents will have greater insight and a consciousness of their parenting styles and the related effects on their children, both during their developmental years and as latter parents. This study allows practitioners to understand the domain of parenting and offer support and care to parents experiencing difficulties within parenting, and they may explore approaches to strengthen parenting, by providing them with structured guidelines that has worked for other parents over generations. Thus, this study allows practitioners to develop supportive structures such as training and workshops to present parents with the components of parenting. More so, this study provides practitioners and parents with guidelines outlining the parenting practices that have been continued and discontinued across generations within families. Additionally, this study shows the generational similarities and dissimilarities of families, parenting styles, practices, traditions, values and social enculturation to mention a few; as well as the subsidiary reasons that have influenced the continuity and discontinuity of certain parenting styles and practices across generations.

This study is therefore devoted to providing knowledge to strengthen positive parenting practices, and caution against identifying and producing or generating these undesirable parenting influences. Therefore, the findings in this study will strongly contribute to understanding parenting experiences, impacting factors which encourage continuities and discontinuities of parenting, intergenerational transference of parenting over time and

empowering educators, professionals and parents with guidelines for early intervention. This study furthermore allows for the cross examination and exploration of three generational families, which then provides an in-depth synopsis of the generational transference of parenting across three generations of families. Thus, this study is fundamental to the research paradigm of intergenerational transference of parenting between Generation one (G1), Generation two (G2) and Generation three (G3) parenting. Thus, this study provides an overview of parenting over time, how it may be developed and strengthened over time and improve the functioning of parents and children, and even improve the functioning of communities. Also, this study produces guidelines which offer specified guidance and structure to parents as to parenting styles and practices that are effective to constructive parenting performs and child outcomes. It also indicates how parenting processes have evolved over time and contributes to the formulation of parenting styles and practices assumed and reiterated by parents.

1.11   STRUCTURE OF THE THESIS

This study encompasses nine chapters as outlined below:

Chapter 1 included an introduction and background of the study to provide the study context. This chapter also outlines the research goal, objectives, and the research questions which guide the study.

Chapter 2 introduced the Life Cycle Theory (LCT) as the theoretical framework of the study. The LCT has six life cycle stages which were applied to explain the life course of individuals and the family at large. The LCT was suited to this study because of the life stages a family experiences and practices, and the transitioning processes and changes experienced from one developmental stage to another within a family, as well as the changes

that occur over time as the person adapts to the changing stages of life and other influential factors such as the environment.

Chapter 3 comprises the literature review focused on parenting, and the transference occurring within parenting, with the intent to unpack the parenting styles, practices and other parenting factors such as skills, teachings, knowledge, parent-child relationships and performs that contribute to understanding the transference of parenting between generations of families. It thus provides an in-depth review of the nature and scope of parenting, to describe the experiences and understanding of parenting and how it has developed generationally over the course of time. This allows for the intergenerational component of parenting to be explored in greater depth in relation to the transferred continuities and discontinuities within the parenting paradigm.

Chapter 4 discussed the research methodology of the study to outline the methodological processes that were followed to conduct the study. This study used a case study research design with mixed methods to include both quantitative and qualitative collection methods. Using both quantitative and qualitative approaches as a research study was beneficial as a research strategy. This mixed approach provided an all-inclusive approach to produce the perspectives, views, and experiences on the issue of intergenerational transmission of parenting being studied.

Chapter 5 provides the presentation of the themes, sub-themes and categories related to the data analysis conducted. This was followed by the presentation of the research findings and the discussions, based on the contributions of participants through the interviews and questionnaire instrument used. The discussions are further supported and complemented by literature. This is done for Chapter 5, Chapter 6, and Chapter 7. However, Chapter 5 is conducted in the frame of the parent-child relationship.

Chapter 6 provides the presentation of the data analyses and findings in relation to the environmental influences that impact on parenting.

Chapter 7 provides the presentation of the data analysis conducted and subsequent findings in relation to the intergenerational transference of parenting. The qualitative findings presented are further supported by the integration of the quantitative results which were combined into the discussions.

Chapter 8 outlines the practice guidelines on the intergenerational transmission of parenting for parents and professionals**.** The information from these chapters, particularly chapters 3, 4, 5, 6 and 7, informed, assisted and guided the development of the parenting guidelines.

Chapter 9 provides a summary of the previous chapters, and the conclusions drawn from the study and the recommendations of the study. This is followed by a reference list. Appendixes are also provided.
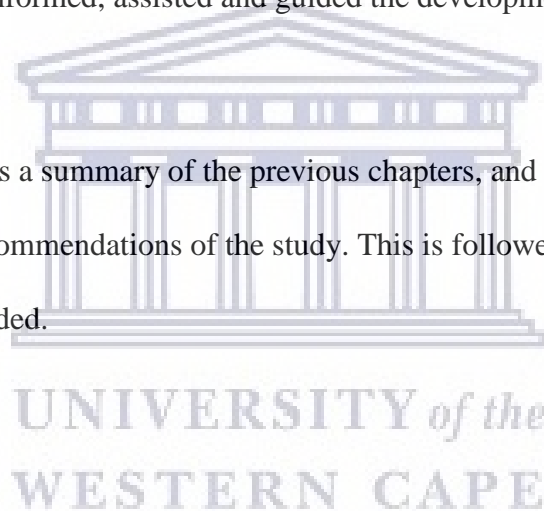
CHAPTER 2

A THEORETICAL UNDERSTANDING OF THE LIFE-COURSE THEORY

2.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter examines and explores the theoretical framework of this study. The purpose of the chapter is to build a theoretical understanding of the Life-Course Theoretical (LCT) Framework and its influence on the intergenerational transference of parenting over time. The stages of the LCT Framework are also explored to obtain a greater understanding of the possible influences on parenting, and the continuities and discontinuities of parenting across generations. This theoretical chapter therefore presents the LCT as the umbrella theory of the study, as it provides an overview of the periodical existence of an individual's life from birth to death; and considers all the social and historical influences that emerge over the life course of a person within a family context. However, the LCT is different from the Family Life Course Theory (FLCF) as the FLCF looks at the 'cyclical patterns' that are existent within families over time. It also looks at the changes occurring within families over time, while the notion of the life course theory particularly focuses on the individual life trajectory (course) as a person moves through different roles and experiences.

2.2 LIFE-COURSE THEORY

The notions 'life-course' and 'life-span development' have emerged from ontogenetic ('ontogenetic' refers to the study of the entire organism's life-span) (Schaie, 1967) and psychological paradigms (Baltes, 1987; Hill & Hansen, 1960). These terms are often used interchangeably and are extensively referred to in contemporary family and developmental research (Elder, 1975; Featherman, 1983; Rossi & Rossi, 1990). However, the ideology of the term 'life-span' was used to refer to the ontogenetic and contextual components of the social and environmental structure and related historical accounts, as influencing ontogenetic

development (Baltes, 1987; Featherman & Lerner, 1985). Alternatively, the term 'life cycle' was used to describe structured phases of the family's composition and how these transformations impact family members' performance over time (Mattessich & Hill, 1987). The notion is that these performances transcend to inform parenting over time. Other concepts used in the life sciences to understand, explain, and describe the changes families experience over time include 'development', 'growth' and 'decline', and 'gain' and 'loss' to refer to the cycle (movement) of change (Bengtson & Allen, 1993). All these concepts suggest a form of measure with either an inclination or declination within people to generate transferrable experiences over the life-course.

For the purpose of this study, the term '*life-course*' was used and '*life-course perspective/theory*' was applied. 'Course' is defined as the direction in which something moves, and the time period when something happens. Thus, 'course' proposes route, method, progression, sequence, and the development of something to some extent. Life-course theory allows for the exploration and description of individuals' patterns as they developmentally mature over the life-span. It also describes how these influences ultimately inform the progression aspects of continuity and discontinuity and parenting across generations. In addition, it observes individuals' behavioural and psychological responses to their confronted circumstances over the life-span (Bengtson & Allen, 1993). LCT's are designed based on an analysis of the activities, performances, and routines of large clusters of individuals over an

extensive period of time to establish recurrent patterns (Hagestad, 1990). The key

components of a LCT are outlined in Figure 2.1 below.
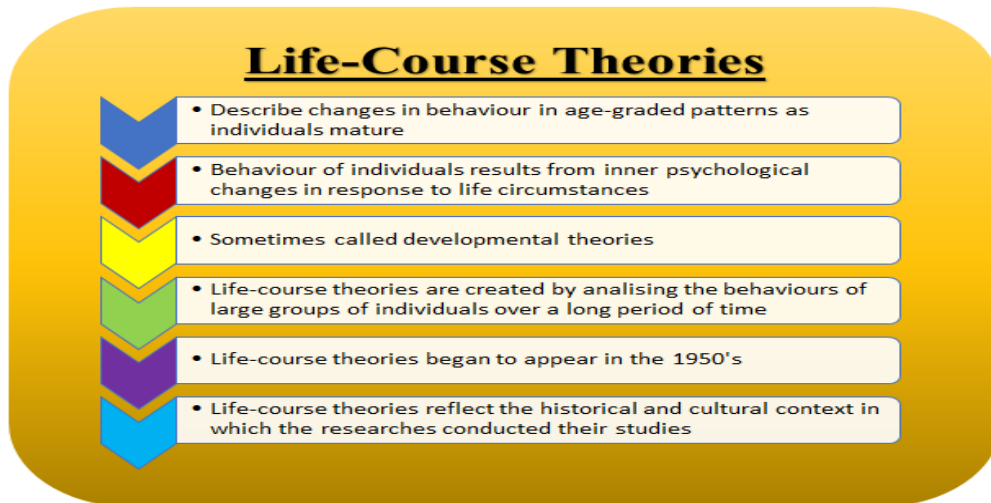
Figure 2.1. Factors of a Life-Course Theory
       Source: Adapted from N. Bonnet (2020)

The LCT forms the overarching theory of this study. Other theories that focus on the

life cycle stems from this theory. These are illustrated in Figure 2.2 below, which outlines the

different types of life-course theories.
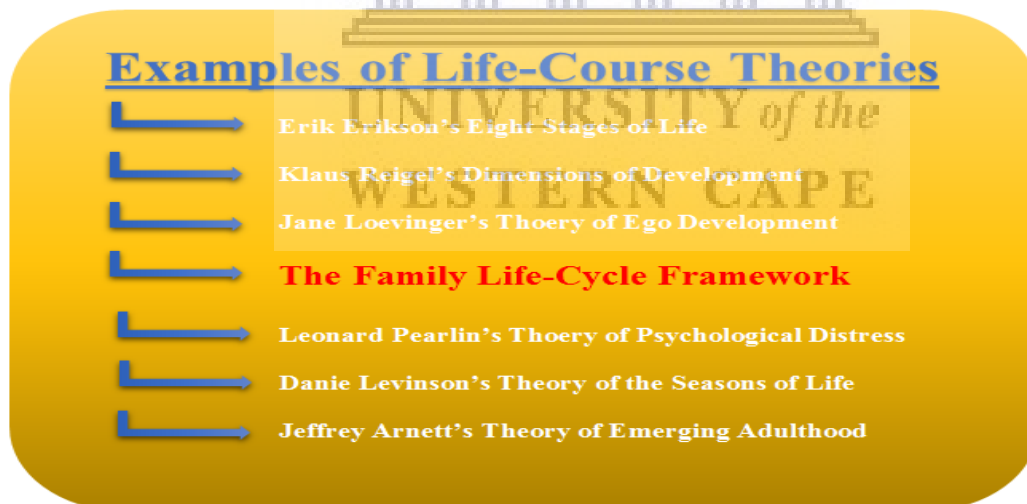
Figure 2.2. Examples of Life-Course Theories
       Source: Adapted from N. Bonnet (2020)

However, for the purpose of this study, the **Family Life Cycle Framework (FLCF)**

was considered most relevant**,** as it explains that changes in the family results in adjustments

in other factors that surround the family, such as parenting (Powell & Cassidy, 2007). This

includes the underlying components that result in modifications in the family that attribute developments and changes in the family to the outcomes of parenting.

2.3 FAMILY LIFE CYCLE FRAMEWORK

The FLCF is defined as "the expansion, contraction, and realignment of the relationship system in order to support the entry, exit, and development of family members in a functional way" (McGoldrick & Carter, 2003, p. 384). It is an emerging interdisciplinary theory ideal for understanding the family and components of the family, such as parenting, in various disciplines (social, behavioural and psychological considerations). It also provides an understanding of the various multifaceted components and influences that shape people's lives over the life-span (Powell & Cassidy, 2007). The life-span or life-course is the period from birth to death, encompassing the duration of the entire life-span (Bengtson & Allen, 1993). This theory stems from the 1950's (Bowen, 1978), and has recently been brought to light in understanding the family and its encompassing aspects (Smith, 2016). Furthermore, the FLCF seeks to identify individual and family development within both cultural and historical contexts over the life-span (Healthwise Staff, 2018), and how these contribute toward its operative functioning over time in relation to social conditions, environmental factors, and historical accounts (Powell & Cassidy, 2007). To employ a FLCF within a life-course theoretical perspective further recognises that parenting factors may have a causal influence on future generation parenting and may change families and parenting over the life-course (Smith, 2016).

McDaniel (1990) promulgates that the FLCF allows the natural phenomenon of people's lives to be viewed in relation to their strengths and challenges. This further supports the suitability of this framework as it allows this study to explore the phenomenon of parenting; discover the associated strengths and challenges of parents; and determine whether these are continued or discontinued across generations. The outcomes of this study will

provide parents and practitioners with a better understanding of the experiences, knowledge, and skills parents require for effective parenting performs. It will also provide a better indication of where the development of parenting should be directed in order to enable stronger and healthier parenting practices, better child outcomes, improved family functioning, and effective communities. Thus, the FLCF allows for an exploration of the stages of the life cycle of a family to be able to identify the personal, social, and behavioural meanings and changes influencing families, particularly the parenting component within families, which result in a person's developmental outcomes in relation to the views of the family, and the behaviours, boundaries, rules, expectations, and social cultural meanings that inform parenting performs generationally.

2.4 FAMILY LIFE CYCLE STAGES WITHIN THE FRAMEWORK

Falicov et al., (2011) have designed a classification of critical and fundamental family life cycle stages consisting of six stages, namely: 1) Leaving home – single young adults; 2) the joining of families through marriage – the new couple; 3) families with young children; 4) families with adolescents; 5) launching children and moving on; and 6) families in later life.
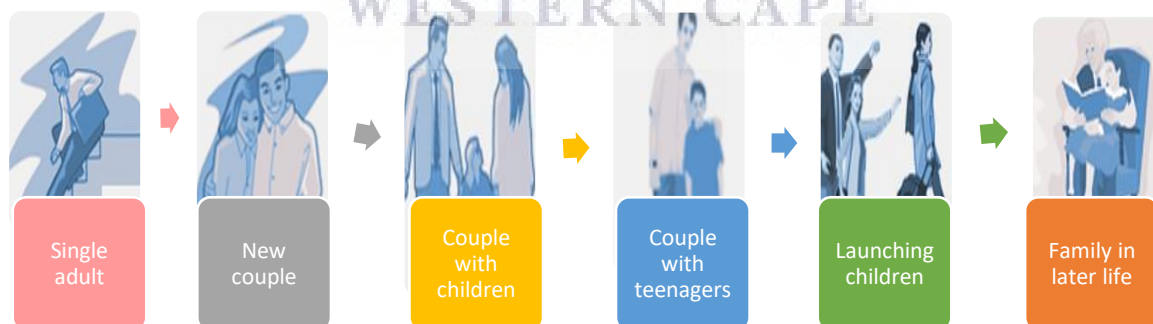
Figure 2.3. Family Life Cycle Stages
Source: Adapted from Ubaidi (2017)

These stages form the underlying practices of parenting, encompassing family composition, child-rearing, and interrelatedness between families (from birth in 1st

generations to birth in 2nd generations). Each stage is also interconnected with two major dimensions, namely: 1) emotional process of transition: key principles, and 2) second-order changes in family status required to proceed developmentally (McGoldrick & Carter, 1992).

These dimensions emphasise that families undergo structural changes and progress as they move through the different stages of development over time. Families (grandparents, parents, and children) and communities (any group of people) who share the same historical and cultural events are unified and collaboratively move through time (VanKatwyk, 2003). Although changes are occurring, there is association that may lead to constancy and transference in practices. This portrays that family relations through a shared history, culture, value system, and particularly parenting practices between the parent and child, (intergenerational) is imperative, as it contributes to the transference and development of shared systems and practices, such as parenting. This will in turn influence the intergenerational transference of parenting between family members.

Family members (parents and children) develop an understanding, and in the same way, construct interpretations, which include their approaches toward life cycle transitions (such as parenting). However, these are successively subjected by the times in which they develop (McGoldrick & Shibusawa, 2012). Furthermore, VanKatwyk (2003) describes major life cycle changes as marked by fundamental modifications in the family system (second-order changes), rather than changes within the system itself (first-order changes). This means that families transform and change, but their beliefs and practices, including parenting within the family functioning, remain the same. Therefore, as the world is constantly undergoing change and is progressive in nature, it becomes imperative to identify those norms, standards, and meanings of the life cycle characterisations that are comparatively reliant on the socio-cultural background of a family (MacGrick et al., 2011; Falicov et al., 2011; Kliman & Madsen, 2011; Ashton, 2011; Hines, 2011). However, research reviewing the nuclear family

composition overlooks the forming of interpersonal bonds and the socialisation practices of socio-cultural premises (Dilworth-Anderson, Burton & Johnson, 1993). Therefore, suggesting those interpersonal bonds, cultural practices, and the process of socialisation extends beyond the influence of the nuclear family into extended family systems, and even the society at large.

Similarly, Falicov et al., (2011) and McGoldrick et al., (2005) point out that several generations of cultural groups vary in their understanding of the FLCF and the associated tasks linked to the social, cultural, traditional, historical, and political factors at each stage. Therefore, indicating that socio-cultural factors impact and influence families' experience of the life cycle, and that living patterns of groups differ distinctively across generations, demonstrating intergenerational transference of cultural and value systems within the family over time. Therefore, if parenting is considered a societal norm, then one could assume that parenting practices are transferred within these cultural and value systems constituted in the family and across generations. Furthermore, McGoldrick and Shibusawa (2012, p. 376) promote that the "traditional intergenerational extended family provide valuable mutual support and interconnectedness".

On the contrary, people disregard family, or intentionally break relatedness ties, and do so to the detriment of their own sense of individuality and the productivity of their emotional and social environment (McGoldrick & Shibusawa, 2012). Therefore, due to these continual variations, it is becoming progressively challenging to outline which family life cycle patterns are standard. Bowen (1978) further suggests that it is the history of the family that creates related patterns and functioning transferred through generations. However, generations are diversified over time, as cultures change and are affected by the social, historical, economic, and political factors of its era (Elder Jr. & Shanahan, 2006; Elder Jr. & Johnson, 2002; Gladwell, 2008). Therefore, McGoldrick and Shibusawa (2012, p. 378) states

that to "understand how people evolve, we must examine their lives within the contexts of both the family and the larger culture, which changes over time". Thus, the FLCF perspective allows professionals to determine future growing possibilities and threats to individuals and families (McGoldrick & Shibusawa, 2012). Hence, the FLCF is used in the current study to understand the influence and transference of parenting on future generations (within families) across generations and over time.

The next section discusses the six stages of the family life cycle in terms of parenting and intergenerational transference.

2.4.1 Stage 1: Leaving home: single young adults

This stage is characterised by a person (between 18 to 25 years) showing some form of independence from parents and eagerness to "leave the nest", and is often theorised as emerging adulthood (Arnett, 2000). This stage ends adolescence and begins the stage of adulthood (Arnett, 2000). In some families children leave home, while in others, they do not "leave" until marriage. Thus, the question here is, is there an emotional or relational attachment in leaving home? Developing into responsible and self-sustaining young adults is an important part of the development of families and societies (Arnett, 2000). Simultaneously, the roles and responsibilities of parents develop and change, for example, parenting styles change and transition from being controlling and strict to, in later years, taking on a more supportive role of their children as they get older. The natural perception is that once young people reach certain levels of development and autonomy, the need for independence, self-reliance, privacy, and freedom to develop privately without parental supervision retires to allow for ultimate independence to develop (McKinney, Morse & Pastuszak, 2014). After being nurtured, guided, and allowed to pursue a career path, young adults leave the parental home to 'kick start' their independent living (McKinney et al.,

2014). Young people (including young single mothers and fathers), who have themselves become parents, may long for their own space to rear and develop their children without outside interference. If unable to financially support their children, young single mothers may remain within the parental home (Cowan, Cowan, Pruett, Pruett & Wong, 2009), which might create replication or amplify styles and practices in accordance or discordance of parenting roles within the household.

The outcomes of stage 1 are related to circumstantial factors and the consequences (positive and negative) it produces in the progression and attainment of independence, realisation, and attainment of roles and responsibilities, as well as satisfied achievement of expectations (personal and societal) of the emergent adult.

2.4.2 Stage 2: The joining of families through marriage: the new couple

The union of couples through marriage brings along a collaboration of families with diverse backgrounds, values, and practices, now assimilated after marriage. Traditional and cultural practices classify the joining of marriages as also the joining of families (Biblarz & Gottainer, 2000). In this stage, the new couple needs to adapt to diverse cultural aspects and family dynamics (Brown, Manning & Strykes, 2015). However, each individual has their own inherited parenting style. The current functional structure is being established and revisited until new structures and ways of functioning as a unit are established. An association is instantly infiltrated, and togetherness is the key domain of functioning (Bryanton, Beck & Montelpare, 2013). This will allow the family to become an operative functional family with cooperation, a mutuality of acceptance and assistance, in alignment with a sense of belonging if the family practices are constant and continual.

Families are the foundations of our societies. Everything that occurs in the family, including parenting, will therefore be displayed in, for example, the attitudes,

behaviours, and mannerisms, which infiltrates society (Bryanton et al., 2013). Parents are then considered the key role players in sculpting their children's outer projections derived from inner familial (parents, children) home parental practices, e.g., rules, roles, skills, and disciplinary methods (Gottfried, 2013), cultural practices, traditions, training, and teachings (Pickard & Ingersoll, 2015). These interrelated factors produce the functioning of individuals and the behavioural outcomes of children into maturing individuals. The process of maturing individuals into responsible adult parents requires sculpting (from infancy to early adulthood), moulding (encompasses learning and unlearning), and constructing of responsible and respectable mature adults, and later next generation parents (Elmore & Gaylord-Harden, 2013).

2.4.3 Stage 3: Families with young children

When a couple embarks on the sanctity of marriage, it is usually followed by the addition of a child/ren to the existent couple's family structure (De Witt, 2009), which redevelops new family functioning (Mueller & Cooper, 1986). This brings along many changes and adjustments for the family (Manning & Lamb, 2003), occurring on many different levels (Malmberg, Ehrman & Lithén, 2005). These aspects change and influence family construction and the institutionalisation of family functioning.

In this stage, parents are introduced to the initial stage of parenting. The parents provide knowledge, understanding, mannerisms, and culture (Manning & Lamb, 2003); appreciation, praise, warmth, attention, and affection (Breland-Noble, 2014); and consider internal and external environmental aspects within communities affecting child well-being (Bornstein & Bradley, 2014). Acquired knowledge, which includes parental roles and responsibilities from childhood up until mature adult is implemented; a consciousness of knowing and doing develops (Charles, Davies & Harris, 2008). Even though there are pre-

conceived parenting notions of parental performance that dictate expectations upon first-hand parents by other parents, and observations of what appears to be correct and proper. Yet, over time, parents find the parenting aspects and practices that best suits them as parents and allow for ultimate family functioning.

2.4.4 Stage 4: Families with adolescents

Adolescence is the development stage in the human life cycle between childhood and adulthood (Gouws & Kruger, 1996). During this stage, young people are "in an active purposeful 'flight' away from attachment relationships with parents" (Allen & Land, 1999, p. 319), toward developing autonomy, individuality, freedom, self-determination, and self - reliance. This is a significant developmental area as more independence lessens dependence on parents (Louw & Louw, 2007). Parents, in turn, relinquish power over their adolescent, promoting positive parent–child relations.

This relinquishing of control promotes individuality and growth towards adult responsibilities, such as employment, academic pursuits, marriage, and parenting (Breland-Noble, 2014). In some respects, the parental home functions as a safety net for children to explore the changes and challenges they experience during childhood, and as they are transitioning, they adopt what works (Arnett, 2007).

Therefore, authoritative parents are categorised as 'power assertive', as they are able to create a sense of balance between control and encouragement to inspire self-reflection into proactive behaviours. This is done by administering both commanding instructions and rational reasoning strategies (Baumrind, 1991), which continues into adulthood parenting. Parents then act as a safety net for their children, even when the children have launched themselves.

In this development stage, the young person enters puberty, which is accompanied by mental and physical changes (McKinney, 2011). The changes in behaviour, needs, and even emotional requirements, impacts the whole family (McKinney, 2011). Parenting here involves being trustworthy, open, honest, and transparent, and mostly, approachable with aspects of change, questions posed, confusion projected, and guidance required (Rothrauff, Cooney & An, 2009). The amount of openness received will determine the parent-child relationship (Zhang, Chan & Teng, 2011). Erickson refers to this stage as trust versus mistrust.

Therefore, families with adolescent children typically experience some of the following behaviours: confrontations, questioning authority, exploration beyond family, testing of rules and boundaries (Duncombe, Havighurst, Holland & Frankling, 2012). It is no doubt a challenging period for the child, parents, and the family (Duncombe et al., 2012). The adolescent may feel that they are not understood by their parent, but this may not actually be the case. The adolescent enters into a stage where more monitoring, support, and guidance must be provided (Arnett, 2007). However, parents may still be protective and provide nurturance, creating confusion in the expectations of the child. Pivotal is the parent-child relationship and communication. How the parents and the child relate, share, and communicate with one another will ultimately determine the amount of guidance and advice the child consumes from the parents.

The role of parenting (practices and styles) is adjusted again (Arnett, 2000) to accommodate the growth and developmental stages of the child. Here, the parenting role is inclusive of empowering and educating for skills and competencies/experiences in dealing with life situations confronted (Goldenberg & Goldenberg, 2013). For example, children are taught how to choose friends, outcomes of peer association, general decision-making abilities, and how to interpret life lessons.

During this stage, household functioning and parenting practices are most likely to be affected by the developing adolescent, as adolescence is a crucial developmental stage that leads to emerging adulthood and later adulthood (Arnett, 2000). To ensure the successful development of their adolescent during this stage, parents may increase rules, set clear parameters and boundaries, increase expectations (e.g., school performance), and intensify monitoring and guidance (Cowan et al., 2008).

2.4.5 Stage 5: Launching children and moving on

The constructive and successful mastery of the adolescent stage promotes the transitioning from adolescence to adulthood (McKinney et al., 2014). After mastering the previous stage, parents are able to launch their children and allow them to move on to emerging adulthood and later adulthood. Emerging adults are usually in the process of leaving their parents to enter the world and are allowed to experience adulthood with little to no involvement, interference, contribution, restriction, and/or domination from parents (Arnett, 2000). Parents allow their children, now emerging adults, to live their lives in their own spaces, developing career paths, respecting their choices in terms of social circles, relationships with their counterparts, forming their own identity as an adult (Arnett, 2000), with minimal to no involvement of parents.

2.4.6 Stage 6: Families in later life

As children progress through the developmental stages of life, certain fundamentals are taught that enable them to function independently and interdependently with the environment (Li et al., 2013).

As children move out of the home, parents will resume their old spaces, pursue their hobbies, and enjoy more 'couple time' (Rothrauff, Cooney & An, 2009). Children who learnt

to fend for themselves, will learn to manage their own time, money, peer relations, decision making, social associations, and so forth (Love & Thomas, 2014). But those who had authoritarian parents may struggle to make individual choices.

Later in life, children grow up, eventually get married (McKinney et al., 2014) and have their own children, and so the life cycle is repeated. The family is now extended, and often disassociation occurs, as the new family tries to ease into new roles with their partners and household establishment (Nijho & Engels, 2007). Eventually, they will establish their own unique styles and practices of parenting without interference, while some may still seek increased involvement and assistance from parents, grandparents, or significant other individuals they feel are important in this transitioning stage.

Furthermore, a theory that branches from and into the life cycle of the family framework is the systems in which the family functions, namely, the **Family Systems Theory (FST)**. Therefore, these theories formulate the theoretical framework of this study, outlined in three interconnected theories to understand the development of families over time. Figure 2.4 below outlines the family systems relaying from the FLCF.
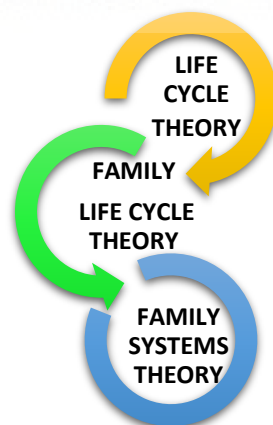
Figure 2.4. Life Cycle Framework Interconnected with the Family Life Cycle Theory and the Family Systems Theory

2.5 FAMILY SYSTEMS THEORY

The FLCF may be considered in relation to other theories, such as the family systems theory (FST), integrating these theories concurrently to enhance and strengthen the understanding of families, both in parenting abilities and child care (Bengtson & Allen, 1993). The FST formulates the inputs and outputs from the family life cycle theory that influence the family systems, structure, composition, and functioning. Furthermore, it strives to understand the underlying family influences, interactions, and dynamics that contribute toward the family constitution (Powell & Cassidy, 2007).

In terms of FST, the family functions as a system wherein each member plays a specific role and must follow certain rules (Hagestad, 1990). This inadvertently produces expectations regarding the fulfilment of roles and responsibilities, communications, and interactions between family members and external systems influencing the family, such as the environment (Powell & Cassidy, 2007).
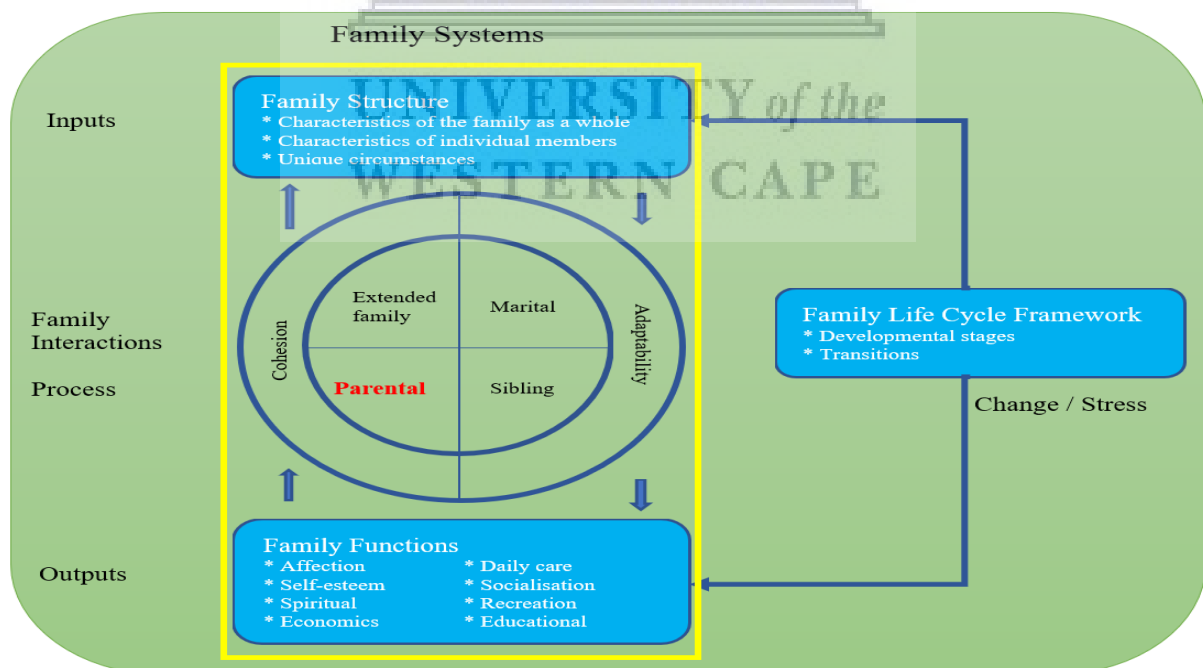
Figure 2.5. The Family Life Cycle Framework in Relation to the Family Systems
Source: Adapted from Turnbull (2004)

Figure 2.5 above outlines the FST within a family operating within the FLCF. Psychiatrist, Murray Bowen (1913-1990), shaped and generated this FST (Bengtson & Allen, 1993). Bowen's FST, which focuses on human behaviour, classifies the family as an 'emotional unit' that is able to use systems thinking to understand the complexities surrounding the interactions of the family (Kerr, 2016).

Furthermore, Figure 2.5 provides a clear indication of how the FLCT informs the family systems, as the inputs and outputs that surround the family framework inform the stressors, or challenges, and changes in relation to the family systems, which include the family structure, family interactions, and family functioning.

Families are naturally connected emotionally because of the affection and care ties existent among families (Kerr, 2016). Human relationships have evolved and changed as family members fashioned the level of maturity over millions of years from one generation to the next (C. Carr, n.d.). Due to these affectionate ties, family members tend to inform each other's emotions, actions, and thoughts (Kerr, 2016). Alternatively, these ties may also be destructive and cause distressful effects when expectations or support are not available (Kerr, 2016). Thus, the association, as well as positive or negative reactivity to events, show interdependency among families. This interdependence provides cohesiveness and collaboration required to defend and nourish family members' well-being (Kerr, 2016). For that reason, the functioning of families has a reciprocal give-and-take that influences the dimensions of continuities (consistencies) and discontinuities within families (Kerr, 2016).

The FST thus allows for an in-depth understanding of families and the influential structures surrounding the family system (Crawford, 1663; Heiden-Rootes, Jankowski, & Sandage, 2009). FST recognises people as individuals who form part of a living system that performs in probable ways guided by how they reason, and the processes involved

(Crawford, 1663; Kim-Appel & Appel, 2015). One key aspect Crawford (1663) indicates is that family systems are not about 'content', but rather function within a 'process' that informs outcome. This suggests that generational processes are required to occur to understand transference from one generation to the next. The concept '*generation'* has been used to describe the individual's position in relation to how they are ranked in order of descent within a family, looking specifically at the procreation and succession stages between families (Bengtson, Vern & Allen, 1993). Another key concept is '*generational time'*, also referred to as '*family time'*. This is indicated by the biogenetic status within families, namely, grandparent, parent and child, as well as the roles, expectation, and identities of those family generational statuses (Elder, 1975). These families are thus generationally and biogenetically linked. These roles and expectations are conveyed through socialised interactions, which consist of both the micro and macro structural influences that produce meaning for the family's reality through life changing events and continued existence over time. The family may therefore be referred to as an active agent of change, as it is through the life-course stages that the family undergoes that the social, cultural, and historical factors may inform the family's practices and its continued evolving existence (Falicov et al., 2011). Thus, through observational and sociable engagement between generations, they increase their knowledge base about the family heritage, traditions, and practices (Crawford, 1663), which will consequently influence parenting styles and practices. Therefore, understanding family and related theories and systems becomes the cornerstone of understanding the FLCF in relation to the intergenerational transference of parenting. This theory integration allows for a range of variables to be explored into a cohesive explanation of parenting.

2.6 MULTIDISCIPLINARY PERSPECTIVE OF THE APPLICATION OF THE LCT

The LCT is not a new theory; however, it has taken on new dimensions and expanded over disciplines. It was first applied to families about 100 years ago, when Rowntree (1901)

endeavoured to explain the persistence of poverty occurring in the individual life-course and within the family economic needs and demands (Bengtson & Allen, 1993). The outcomes of Rowntree's theory indicates that i) there are causal linkages to individual and family outcomes; ii) individuals and families are to be observant of the fact that these linkages and patterns often continue over historical time and across generations; and iii) that the social, cultural, historical, political, and economic contexts cause imperative modifications in those linkages between families, which influence the continuities of patterns between the generations of a family, as well as produces change (Bengtson & Allen, 1993). The LCT is thus a unique unit of analysis to describe the meaningful developments occurring in families. This includes their meanings, events, and perceptions about their reality. Analysis of the family thus elucidates the enduring aspects that have continued through the lineage over time and across generations (Benjamin, Seebohm & Rowntree, 1901; Roberts & Bengtson, 1990).

The LCT's core focus is on time in order to deliberate the multiple temporal contexts influencing the family (Bengtson & Allen, 1993). Hence, the LCT provides a multidisciplinary perspective to explain family development of the associated social-historical development of families over time; thus, generational aspects are considered.

The LCT provides a life-course perspective in relation to generational aspects and the multidisciplinary perspective. It is an analytical Western perspective with a dynamic approach that has merged together from several disciplines, with the aim of addressing issues relating to families, family structure, family relationships, family functioning, strengthening families, and family well-being (Bengtson & Allen, 1993). Thus, the LCT makes allowance for a multidisciplinary assessment component to be done across disciplines that would "trace the intellectual and empirical history of the life-course perspective on the family and draw from different disciplines and methodological orientations; human development; life-span developmental psychology; family development; sociological analyses of age stratification;

and social-historical studies", assess the family, and consider the social-cultural, historical, and other related transmissions in the family (Bengtson & Allen, 1993, p. 469). This would ultimately influence parenting intergenerationally. Due to the progression and extent of the theory, it is also applicable within a South African context. An example is the study conducted by Roy (2008) which focused on the 'life-course perspective of fatherhood and family policies in the United States and South Africa'. This study explored the family roles and the reciprocal continuity of fatherhood through the components of a life-course perspective. Is the life-course perspective emerging as a "new paradigm" in studies relating to family development? (Bengtson & Allen, 1993). This multidisciplinary (or 'interdisciplinary') theory further reflects the psychosocial-historical examination of families over time. This depicts that the LCT has been used widely in research developments relating to understanding the context of the family in different stages. Thus, this chapter is used to explore and determine the applications of the life-course perspective to theory and research in the study of South African families. Furthermore, the objective of the current study is to apply this theory's perceptions of change over time, to help provide an understanding of the transitions occurring in the family context over the life-course period, which subsequently informs parenting within families intergenerationally.

Due to the growing focus and transitions occurring in families explored by various disciplines, it appears that both behavioural and social sciences disciplines have reached consensus on the life stages and its effectiveness for understanding families. These approaches even filter across both quantitative and qualitative methodologies (Bengtson & Allen, 1993). The life-course perspective accentuates the usefulness and effectiveness of understanding families through a multidisciplinary perspective lens. In short, it places an emphasis on the importance of time, context, process, and meaning on the progression of family movement over the family life-course (Bengtson & Allen, 1993). Bengtson and Allen

(1993, p. 489) highlight the following three dimensions: "1. ontogenetic time-events in the unfolding biography of the individual that alter behavioural schemes or processes; 2. generational time-events or family transitions that alter interactions or selves; and 3. historical time-events in the broader social context that alter roles or values of individuals and families". Interactions between these dimensions are crucial (Baltes, 1983; Bengtson, 1982; Hareven, 1977). Therefore, to understand the family life cycle theory in its entirety, the time perspective must be considered (VanKatwyk, 2003). It appears that the FLCF projects continual movement over time; however, it is interrupted when family difficulties arise. Therefore, families are shaped "by people who share a history and a future together. From this time perspective families are living systems moving through time. With the contemporary family pulsing with plural, multicultural patterns there is not one set course or normative sequence by which families develop over time" (VanKatwyk, 2003:1).

Carter and McGoldrick (1999), in their deductions relating to time, stated that families more often than not lack perspective of time when they experience difficulties, as they tend to amplify the present moment, are overwhelmed and immobilised by their immediate emotional state, or they become fixed on a moment in the future beyond the current situation. Thus, when families experience challenges, they "lose the awareness that life means continual movement from the past into the future with a continual transformation of familial relationships" taking place (Carter & McGoldrick, 1999, p. 4). Therefore, family relationships produce experiences (positive and negative), shifting the state of family relationships, resulting in transitions. These transitions, consequently, reposition the family in relation to the family dynamics being experienced (Kerr & Bowen, 1988). In addition, it is an emotional process that informs the sense of balance between individuality and togetherness of the family and regulates the dance between contraction and expansion in the evolution of family relationships (Kerr & Bowen, 1988). A genogram – an assessment tool commonly

employed in the South African context – is used to depict family relationships up to three generations (McGoldrick & Gerson, 1985; 1999).

Looking at genealogy research, the next section explores generational transference.

2.7 GENERATIONAL TRANSFERENCE: RECIPROCAL CONTINUITY

The family is a dynamic organism (Klever, 2005). Due to its complexity, especially in relation to family patterns and parent-child associations, it is essential to understand the transferences within familial interactions. Genealogy research focuses on generational transference and shared family systems between generations, and includes the following family components outlined by Crawford (1663, p. 2): a) Longevity of family members; b) Health; c) Their location, including moves, with dates; d) Their incomes and businesses or professions, including what positions they held; e) Reproductive history including abortions, stillbirths and miscarriages; d) Marriages and living-with arrangements; e) Dates of births, deaths, and marriages; f) Highest degree in education, or year in school; g) Divorces and separations; h) Addictions, criminal histories and other problem behaviours; and i) Conflict, distance, cut-off in relationships. These should be considered in relation to influencing continuities between generations.

Bowen (1978) highlights that differentiation in familial interactions from the nuclear household does occur, and that as adult children shift away to formulate their own families, the changes are applied. Caspi, Roberts and Shiner (2005) reported that 'relationship processes' are not always transmitted from one generation to the next. This study therefore aims to explore and describe the intergenerational transferred factors between generations.

Caspi et al., (2005) assert that relationship indicators and processes may be intergenerationally transferred, but that the intensity may vary, as it either increases or decreases with each transference occurring between generations. Research conducted on the

family indicate that transference occurs either genetically or socially through learning, and factors to consider are the physical, emotional, and social aspects, as these are most often transferred in families (Caspi et al., 2005; Chapman, Hampson & Clarkin, 2014). This suggests that movement occurs in the transference process, as it either strengthens (incline) or diminishes (decline) between families.

The focus of the next section is on the parent-child relationship in intergenerational transference.

2.8 THE PARENT-CHILD RELATIONSHIP WITHIN A LIFE-COURSE THEORY

The parent-child relationship that requires heightened consideration and affection often leads to problematic family relations, as these expectations have negative effects on a child's life, and the subsequent FLCF stages (Kerr, 2016). Thus, understanding the concept of 'intergenerational transference' is deeply rooted in multiple generations and relates to the challenges and adaptations over periods of time (Kerr, 2016). 'Intergenerational adaptations' occur when small existent family alterations take place over time, leading to more noticeable differences – the intergenerational changes between generations (Kerr, 2016).

Another aspect relating to family functioning is the influence of siblings. Younger siblings often emulate their older siblings, and so perpetuate common characteristics across the life-span and into future generations (Kerr, 2016). Thus, differences are transferred across generations in the same way. Furthermore, "the absence or presence of relationships, the future and the past, along with our basic genetic-inheritance, interacts to shape an individual's self" (Kerr, 2016).

Parents adopt different approaches to manage emotional issues, ranging from distancing themselves, to reducing contact or completely cutting off (Kerr, 2016). The emotional relations between families therefore direct behaviour and social outcomes, which

subsequently stimulates progressive and regressive stages in a society. Hence, family processes related to relationships, associations, and emotional ties, together produce the condition of the society. The interconnectedness and relationships between the parent and child allow for conscious and unconscious teaching to occur, as well as the transmission of information, emotions, and behaviours, this occurs "relationally and genetically to shape an individual's self" (Kerr, 2016).

Thus, the transference component is shaped through parent-child engagement over the life-course of individuals. Over the life-course, children observe and develop perceptions based on their parents parenting, which is inclusive of their attitudes and actions. Furthermore, the long reliance of children on their parents allows children to develop perceptions around levels of acceptability of parenting (Kerr, 2016), and this acceptance or rejection of parenting will in turn produce either similarities or dissimilarities in intergenerational transference. Thus, the perceptions developed regarding parenting is owing to child-rearing experiences. These perceptions inform marital permanency, childbearing views, well-being, scholastic accomplishment, and work-related achievement (Kerr, 2016).

It is said that experiences alter transformation, and modification linked to change usually occurs in a form or structure (Bengtson & Allen, 1993). These forms include individuals, groups, and social systems that will exhibit some form of change during the FLCF stages and over time (Bengtson & Allen, 1993). Transformative changes may occur in an orderly and regular fashion, or in a more unconventional and unpredictable manner. Nevertheless, shaping happens, and change inevitably occurs within families. Thus, individuality informs the larger group as to whether growth or decline occurs and has a consequential effect at the collective family-group level (Bengtson & Allen, 1993).

Similarly, the individual informs the collective group in relation to transference, continuities, and discontinuities. Furthermore, the description and explanation of roles and relationships within families are also prone to change over time. Therefore, to understand change over historical periods within families involves both micro and macro social levels of analyses (Bengtson & Allen, 1993, p. 470). An holistic perspective is therefore necessary to study the evolving changes of families.

Sociologists are interested in social meanings and how these meanings are used to understand life events, individual growth, and the progression of relationships over time (Rossi & Rossi, 1990). Therefore, "[D]evelopment and change in families is best explained by examining both macro- and micro-level factors and their interactions in influencing life-span, generational, and historical events" (Bengtson & Allen, 1993, p. 490). Although these terms are not new, the new aspects are accentuated in the construction of meaning. How meanings are constructed in the family life-course and the age changes, and generational succession that occurs is termed the 'generational stake' (Bengtson, Vern & Kuypers, 1971). Thus, there is a perceptible difference between the 'span of a life time' and the 'course of a life'. As the 'life-course' refers to "how society generates meaning to social and personal aspects over the life-course of biological time" (Hagestad, 1990, p. 2). Whereas the life-course perspective is socially constructed and gives emphasis to the methods and approaches in which traditions and transitions are organised (Elder, 1991).

Therefore, change is evident in families and will consequently inform parenting across generations. A resultant paradigm shift occurs within the family's basic beliefs and assumptions relating to social-cultural aspects and other life events (Miller & Baca, 2001). Consequently, families often reposition themselves, leading to role differentiation and reorientation in the family frame of space, time, and tradition. Accordingly, new structures of meanings are developed; time, space, and storytelling are the passages of transmission.

According to Anderson and Worthen (1997, p. 3), *'time'* refers to the events which transpire in sequences; *'space'* is the experience organised through the structure of relationships; and '*story*' is the use of language to shape what has occurred in time and space into structures of meaning. The latter includes stories that families construct and pass on over generations, as well as stories constructed by societies and cultures (p. 3).

2.9 CONCLUSION

This chapter presented the theoretical framework of this study, which included the Life-Course Theory (LCT) and Family Life Cycle Framework (FLCF) used in this study. The former provided an opportunity to study and understand the processes of an organism from birth to death and identify the cycle of movement and processes within the life-span. The latter aided in observing the patterns existent in the life-span of families over time, and how these patterns continue, discontinue, or change as it moves through different roles and experiences.

The FLCF is a family-focused theory, inferring the developmental processes of family functioning, directing the constitution of the family and unpacking the stages of how a family evolves over time. Furthermore, these factors are seen as the 'family systems', which consist of the family structure, interactions, and functions. Similarly, the chapter also explored the diminishing factors that are reducing the growth and uniformity of the family. It was inferred that this may subsequently affect the continuity and discontinuity of parental styles and practices across generations over time. The FLCF was therefore selected to understand family and intergenerational transference of parenting over time.

The next chapter presents the literature review.

CHAPTER 3

LITERATURE REVIEW

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The current chapter presents the literature review of the study on *parenting,* with a particular focus on the *intergenerational transference* of parenting across generations to address the gap in research on intergenerational parenting in South Africa. Attention is also given to *parental styles and practices,* including the factors, influences, and dynamics of parenting. Also highlighted are the challenges confronting parents in child-rearing; meeting their children's developmental requirements in relation to the practical implication for South African parenting; and parent-child communication and relationships. However, limited research in South Africa on intergenerational parenting not only necessitates a greater exploration of this phenomenon, but also suggests a more positive approach to the empowerment of parents within parenting practices and styles assumed and its related effects, both positive and negative, over time and across generations.

The following section briefly unpacks the historical domain of parenting across the centuries before Christ (BC) and after the death of Christ (AD), elucidating the progression of parenting, parenting practices, and child-rearing over time and across generations.

3.2 THE HISTORY OF PARENTING

The notion of parenting existed before it was even defined, described, and identified as 'parenting' (Hewlett, 1988). Throughout time, the adult figure has been viewed as the overseer of offspring, with males perceived as providers and protectors, and females as nurturers (Hewlett, 1988). Previously, men (fathers) were hunters, seed gatherers, and even travellers for provisional items through trade, while women (mothers) cooked and cared for their young offspring (Hewlett, 1991).

During the course of life and over time, this family structure – mother, father, and offspring – co-existed with bigger family structures to form a tribe or community (Hewlett, 1988), and in turn, a family circle (termed nuclear and extended families). Increasing over time, family circles set the precedent for generational families (Gray & Anderson, 2010), formulating a family's lineage of how they exist inter- (with siblings) and intra- (parents and grandparents) generationally.

3.2.1 Origins of parenting

Parenting throughout history highlights parenting periodicals which shows progression of the understandings of parenting and the development of parenting practices over time (Hewlett, 1988). The five identified periodicals of time are: i) Ancient Rome; ii) Ancient Greece; iii) Mesopotamia; iv) Medieval Scandinavia, and v) Imperial China (Alexander & Noonan, 1979). These are briefly discussed below.

3.2.2 History of parenting in Ancient Rome

The Ancient Rome timeline extends from 753BC (8th Century) to 27BC, and then from 64AD to 1453AD. By AD 117, the Roman Empire encompassed the whole of Italy, all the lands around the Mediterranean and much of Europe, including England, Wales, and parts of Scotland (Nicholas, 1952). Over time, Rome grew into a rich and powerful city.

Ancient Rome had patriarchal laws and principles, termed '*patria potesta's,* meaning 'the power of the father' (Buckland, 1908). Males were viewed as father figures and the head of the household; they had absolute power to discipline, harm, and even sell their children into slavery (Domingo, 2017). The latter alludes to the lack of parent-child attachments, emotional connection, and sense of responsibility fathers had toward their children.

Childhood in this era was up until the age of thirteen (13) years for girls, who were then married off, and fourteen (14) years for boys. Adulthood roles were domestication skills for girls and schooling for wealthy boys, classified as an advancement era (Witte Jr & Hauk,

2017). The act of discipline was seen as harsh, as well as counterproductive, and therefore discouraged (Gardner, 2010).

3.2.3 History of parenting in Ancient Greece

Ancient Greece was a period in the 8th century BC, which began to emerge from the Dark Ages, and lasted to 600AD (Thomas, 1988). Due to the constantly expanding population and concomitant shortage of land, internal strife between the poor and the rich constantly erupted, often leading to wars (Thomas, 1988), and later resulting in colonies.

In Ancient Greece, unwanted babies could be discarded of, while children that were kept were nursed by mothers or slaves (Hurtado & Hill, 1996). This is referred to as abortion in the 21st century. This gives a sense of choice of the livelihood of children within the Grecian society.

Similar to Ancient Rome, girls were cultivated for homely duties and boys given the opportunity to acquire an education, as they learnt how to read, write, quote literature, play a musical instrument, and even trained in athletics for military service (Georgas, 1989).

3.2.4 History of parenting in Mesopotamia

Mesopotamia is located in West Asia, near the riverbanks of the Tigris Euphrates. Since the beginning of written history, which spans between 3100 BC to the fall of Babylon in 539 BC, the land was conquered by the Achaemenes Empire and therefore occupied and controlled by Sumerians and Akkadians (van der Crabben, 2012). Later, Mesopotamia fell to Alexander the Great in 332BC and after his death it became part of the Greek Seleucid Empire (Verbrugghe & Wickersham, 2001). It was then that Mesopotamia became a battleground between the Romans and Parthians for land possession, and eventually came under Roman control. Despite these land debates and wars, it was also an era for libraries, mathematics, astronomy, medicine, and technology, and more so a time for family (Professor, 2019).

In this era, the birth of infants was welcomed with emotional expression. Exposure of children to cruelty, such as death or slavery, was only done as a desperate means for financial gain; lullabies were usually sung to contain children's crying and to avoid upsetting the gods (Professor, 2019). Boys were prized, and particularly valued and disciplined. Disrespectful activity towards parents was harshly dealt with – either by being disinherited, disowned, or deprived of citizenship (Verbrugghe & Wickersham, 2001). Furthermore, children played with miniature weapons and household items as they roleplayed their adult parents. Within this societal period these key aspects are mentioned: values, discipline, citizenship, sense of spirituality, inheritance, and parents as role players.

Furthermore, due to their lowly status, the views of children were barely acknowledged. Parents were able to expose, kill, or even sell their children to slavery, implying that children were seen as profitable or possessions. Today, these aspects are now controlled, and to a great extent prohibited and regulated by legislative laws and regulations.

3.2.5 History of parenting in Medieval Scandinavia

This period – 790's to 1066 AD – introduces the time of the Vikings. The Vikings were travellers and claimed lordship of land to include Northern France, Northern Europe, and parts of Britain (van der Crabben, 2012). There were three social classes: Thralls, Karis and Jaris. These categorised names for people were used to do construction, farming, trade, and build the economy. In the 18th century, the Vikings emerged as noble savages, ushering in the Viking revival in the 19th century. Along with these changes were changes in approach to family and child-rearing.

This period was more respectful and kind-hearted toward children. Children were received and only disposed of if there were deformities identified at birth (Alexander & Sandahl, 2014). Babies were sprinkled with water and given a name in a public ceremony; children were given crafted toys as a sign of affection by their parents (Alexander & Sandahl,

2014). The role differences of gendered tasks continued; boys were trained for farming, herding, and even war, and girls for household tasks. It was also common to foster children. This was done to strengthen bonds between different kinship groups, as well as perceived as an esteem honour among families (Alexander & Sandahl, 2016).

3.2.6 History of parenting in Imperial China

This period was between the 6th–13th centuries AD. During this time, the value of children had increased, and parents were even exploring various treatments or routes to increase their fertility (Zhizhen, 2011). Celebrations were held with the birth and naming of a baby, and special sacred names were given (Zhizhen, 2011). Parents projected strictness, discipline, and character formation with their children – "punishment with the bamboo"; this links to corporal punishment, like canning or spanking (Zhizhen, 2011). Adulthood began at age fourteen, with rites of passage ceremonies.

Hence, it is evident that the domain of parenting has deep origins, has evolved over time, and has progressed into the concept identified and practiced today as 'parenting'.

Some African perspectives are provided next.

3.2.7 AFRICAN PERSPECTIVES OF PARENTING

The complexities of parenting in a South African context are compounded by the country's apartheid past, still evident in the socio-economic status of many communities and parental households (Bray, Gooskens, Kahn, Moses, & Seekings, 2015). Therefore, depending on the parenting experience, which is linked to physical, psychological, emotional, and social-cultural well-being, parental practices are either continued or discontinued from one generation to the next within environments (Amos, 2013). Thus, the environmental context of parenting influences includes socio-cultural aspects that are essential to understanding the life of people, such as their behaviours, cultures, beliefs and values, and parenting methods. These aspects are transferred mostly through parent-child relations,

communication, and kinship associations (Amos, 2013). This parent-child relatedness of learning and culture allows a child to acquire different socio-cultural skills related to the appropriateness of behaviours and interactions with society, decision making skills, roles, and an understanding of the norms and values of a community (Roman, 2014). However, there are several misconceptions regarding parenting practices within the African culture, as most perceptions are attributed to ancestral and indigenous religious practices and many other cultural practices which are unknown to the Western world (Amos, 2013).

The cultural practices and traditions of families and communities are the mechanisms through which values, beliefs, and child-rearing practices are transferred to subsequent generations (Ocholla-Ayayo, 2000). Parenting may also be considered culture specific, as it interconnects religious beliefs and cultural practices, and related links to societies (Ocholla-Ayayo, 2000).

However, Ocholla-Ayayo (2000) explains that modernisation in Africa has resulted in the fragmentation of traditions due to societal issues and challenges overriding family traditions. Some of these problematic aspects are related to child behaviours and outcomes linked to substance abuse, unemployment, and poverty (Ocholla-Ayayoyo, 2000). Thus, one may deduce that these demanding societal expectations have increased the demands on families to produce socially acceptable children who are provided for holistically. However, in so doing, parents have alternatively adopted parenting practices that enhance this process of child-rearing and development contrary to cultural traditions.

In the African context, parenting assumes diversified forms with various parenting styles and practices to inform child-rearing, transference of values, and contribute toward responsible adult parenting (Amos, 2013). These continuities of cultural and parental practices in African communities are transferred through storytelling, extended family

associations, traditional rites of passage, and parental child-rearing and care provided (Amos, 2013).

This chapter therefore expands on the parenting cultures and practices adopted in sub-Saharan Africa that foster good parenting, which is central to African practices, as African perspectives are usually replaced with Western practices (Amos, 2013).

3.2.7.1 South African parenting

South African parenting is largely dependent on Western theoretical perspectives in view of understanding and exploring parenting in the South African context, as information on the parenting styles of South Africans is limited (Roman, 2014). Therefore, this study is an inquiry into South African parents' experiences, perspectives, and practices of parenting, with the aim of exploring the aspects of parenting that are intergenerationally transferred within parental practices and across families. South Africa has a rich heritage due to the presence of diverse cultures, languages, ethnic groups, and socio-economic status that is present among communities, influencing parenting (Roman, 2014).

Also influencing families are the myriad of social issues confronting South African families, such as fractured family composition, which may include single parenting, and other issues relating to poverty, unemployment, and aspects of education (Holborn & Eddy, 2011). In addition, it was established that families in the African context, due to the socio-political historical circumstances and related living conditions as a result, have produced parenting tenacity and coping mechanisms, as well as connectivity and social cohesiveness existent between families and community members (Ginwala, Mackintosh, & Massey, 1990). These factors and contributing influences therefore need to be considered when it comes to parenting. For this reason, parenting within the composition of families must be explored in recognition of these impacting factors which are inadvertently contributing to the ability of parents to parent, as well as the contextual conditions in which parenting is expected to take

place, and even more so, on the exploration of intergenerational transmission of parenting. This further highlights the relevance and significance of this study.

The next section and sub-section review contemporary parenting styles and practices, and the associated child outcomes.

3.2.8 Parenting in the 20ᵗʰ century and beyond

Baumrind (1966; 1967; 1968; 1978), an early primary researcher in the field of parenting, categorised parenting into four distinctive styles, namely: *authoritative, authoritarian, permissive*, and *neglectful* parenting. Each parenting style encompasses different facets with varied child outcomes attached.

Prince (2015) reported that in the 1970's and 1980's, parenting and parenting practices placed greater emphasis on the nature (environment) and nurture (care and provision) of children. These expectations from parents were outlined within disciplined environments, attached with norms and values, and enacted through increased responsibility and minimal monitoring and supervision provided by parents to cultivate and protect them (Prince, 2015).

Other factors influencing parenting included policies, such as the Child Care Act of 1983, later amended to the Children's Act in 2005, which defined the roles, responsibilities, and rights of parents. The increased levels of accountability and high standard of responsibility of parents toward children implies parenting changes over time (Prince, 2015).

3.2.8.1 Millennial parenting

Approaches to parenting have changed dramatically since the 1980's. Current parenting practice is termed *Millennial Parenting* (1981–1996), continuing to present-day *21ˢᵗ Century Parenting* (Pyöriä, Ojala, Saari, & Järvinen, 2017). Typically, a less stringent approach to parenting has been adopted, possibly due to increased accessibility to resources

on parenting, such as online resources, forums, research sites, and social media, including Facebook and parenting blogs (Pyöriä et al., 2017).

Additionally, family and parenting forms have changed from the standard nuclear family (Pyöriä et al., 2017) to include extended families, multigenerational families, child headed households, same sex parents, surrogate parents, divorced parenting, and single parenting. Role reversal is also more common, where fathers are now staying home, and mothers are pursuing their careers. Dual earning parents and the inclusion of broader support systems (such as grandparents) is also more prevalent. Hence, grandparents are performing an increased supportive role to their adult children who are parenting. In terms of the influencing significant parenting factors across generations, this highlights the question of whether grandparents and current generation parents have similar or different approaches to rearing children, and whether different parenting practices are applied.

In order to further explore parenting styles and practices across generations, it is important to understand the factors contributing to the domain of parenting and how these factors influence the transference of parenting styles and practices across generations.

Acknowledging the ever-changing nature of the phenomenon of parenting in the section below, the various parenting factors, styles, and qualities are explored in the subsequent sections.

3.2.9   A summary of the history of parenting

The plethora of parenting research reveals an array of parenting styles and practices used within child-rearing, outlining associated behavioural and social outcomes of children (Carr & Pike, 2012; Fuemmeler et al., 2012;). Parenting with these associated practices has been well documented as a socialisation tool (Roman, Makwakwa & Lacante, 2016). However, being an ever-changing phenomenon, the domain of parenting requires ongoing exploration. These changes may be attributed to parental factors associated with the social,

cultural, economic, and behavioural components of parenting, as well as the qualities of parents, such as their skills, abilities, education, and performance (Vafaeenejad, Elyasi, Moosazadeh, & Shahhosseini, 2019). However, the parenting factors and parental qualities that are inherently transferred – intrinsically or extrinsically – are unidentified. Factors that are transferred between families and across generations are also unversed. This is then the focus of the next section.

3.3 PARENTING FACTORS

Parenting styles and practices are influenced by various parenting factors. These parenting factors include socio-economic variables, cultural differences, personal characteristics, and psychological factors (Vafaeenejad et al., 2019). The parenting factors may be present in various variables and in this manner contribute differently to parenting styles and practices (discussed further under the next sub-heading) (Vafaeenejad et al., 2019).

Furthermore, the process of child-rearing is influenced by various parenting factors which formulate the dimensions of influence on parenting styles and practices (Shorer et al., 2011). The associated parenting factors that may also be considered, include parenting, parenting styles, and parenting practices (child-rearing, nurturing, and educational instruction); socio-cultural, socio-economic, behavioural outcomes (conduct and performance); parent-child relationships; quality of parenting; and parenting abilities (Shorer et al., 2011).

Therefore, parenting is associated with many aspects and disciplines, which further extends into various socio-cultural and socio-economic contexts (Barbarin & Jean-Baptiste, 2013). The construct of parenting is constantly evolving in conjunction with research inquiry and interests which extends into several aspects of child-rearing, nurturing, education, conduct, performance, and various other qualities of parenting contributions to children (Baumrind, 1989). Parenting has been linked to varying outcomes of child well-being and

behaviour across cultures and countries (Bornester, 2012). This is due to the implementation and application of diversified parenting styles and practices which affect the children's outcomes, as every practice skill affects (impacts) the child's outcomes in a different way (Holborn & Eddy, 2011b). Therefore, developing an understanding of the application and implementation of different parenting practices and styles is important. Additionally, understanding the consequential effects and innate contribution that different practices and styles have on family's functioning will influence the continuum thereof. It will also affect the appreciative value of the later generational parent's adoption and further adaptation of certain parenting practices and styles by children who become adult parents (Swanzen, 2018). This further alludes to inciting the understanding of intergenerational transference of parenting and parenting practices. It is to these that attention now shifts.

3.4 PARENTING: STYLES AND PRACTICES

Over time, the roles and responsibilities of parenting have included nurturing, guidance, provision, love, support, and affection during the child's life-span (Kirby, 2007). As the child progresses through the various developmental phases of life (life-course), so do the various parental roles and responsibilities undergo change (Baumrind, 1967; Louw & Louw, 2007). Over the life-span of the child, parents ensure children's healthy adjustment from infancy, childhood, adolescence, and in later adulthood stages of development, the transitioning into parenthood (Erikson, 1950b; 1985). This transitioning assumes various roles and perceptions of parenting and influences the parenting practices and styles transferred across generations and over time. Different parenting styles then advance different outcomes within child-rearing. This directly relates to how children perceive and react to parenting, and the parental generational transference of styles and practices assumed within adulthood.

3.4.1 Parenting styles and practices defined

The two core dimensions of parenting of particular interest in this study are *parenting styles* and *parenting practices*. The former is defined as "characteristics of the parent that are stable over time and constitute the emotional context for specific parenting practices" (Anderson, 2011, p. 1735), while the latter is defined as "the specific behaviours that parents use to socialise their children" (p. 1735). Parenting styles are described as the "the stable emotional climate," and parenting practices as the "concrete behaviours"; together these two-fold dimensions inform parenting (p. 1735).

Furthermore, parenting styles are generally discussed as typologies (illustrated in Figure 3.1 below), which refer to the interpretation and classification of the parenting style (Anderson, 2011). The *parenting style* adopted by parents within child-rearing is used to describe the parent's level of expectations, affection, and understandings regarding their child's behaviour (Anderson, 2011). Alternatively, the *parenting practices* are the preferred socialisation methods used to co-ordinate children's interactions, behavioural conduct, and overall performance (Anderson, 2011). This means that the parenting style is enforced through the parenting practice that selects methods to control behaviour and outcomes of children. The parenting practice may then be viewed as the rehearsed methods used by parents to ensure adherence to structure, training, rules, and beliefs regarding education, family, social, and environmental expectations.

Figure 3.1. Typology of Parenting Styles
Source: Adapted from Rhee, Lumeng, Appugliese, Kaciroti & Bradley (2006)

Furthermore, parenting styles are generally discussed as typologies (illustrated in Figure 3.1 above), which refer to the interpretation and classification of the parenting style (Anderson, 2011). The *parenting style* adopted by parents within child-rearing is used to describe the parent's level of expectations, affection, and understandings regarding their child's behaviour (Anderson, 2011). Alternatively, the *parenting practices* are the preferred socialisation methods used to co-ordinate children's interactions, behavioural conduct, and overall performance (Anderson, 2011). This means that the parenting style is enforced through the parenting practice that selects methods to control behaviour and outcomes of children. The parenting practice may then be viewed as the rehearsed methods used by parents to ensure adherence to structure, training, rules, and beliefs regarding education, family, social, and environmental expectations.

3.4.2   Types of Parenting Styles and Associated Practices

Parenting is categorised into three different types of styles, namely: *authoritarian, permissive,* and *authoritative* parenting styles (Baumrind, 1967). The *rejecting/neglectful* parenting style was added later, which is discussed in correlation with permissive parenting.

3.4.2.1 Authoritarian parenting style

The *authoritarian style* of parenting is characterised by parental attributes of power, control, strictness, lack of warmth and affection, and unapproachableness. Obedience and respect are considered the "cornerstone" in the development of the child's character (Baumrind, 1997). These attributes are used to ensure compliance of rules, instructions, and expectations, and are often enforced through the use of punitive measures (over-disciplining children and severe forms of physical and verbal correction) (Baumrind, 2005).

Consequently, this parenting style hinders performance and behaviour, prohibits healthy development (Baumrind, 2005), and instils fear in children. One may therefore deduce that authoritarian parents are demanding in the pre-requisite behaviours and manners they set as guiding principles for proper living and societal adjustment. However, despite a parent's good intentions, children of authoritarian parents struggle to adjust in certain environments as they lack independent self-directed functioning, which includes decision-making abilities (Santrock, 2007). The fear instilled in children negatively affects their functioning in childhood and later in adulthood. Consequently, they fear new challenges and experiences, and become distressed by situations that require independent self-directed functioning (Santrock, 2007).

This harsh form of discipline and conformability is linked to the behavioural outcomes of children, including antisocial activities, disruptive behaviours, aggression, and other delinquent activities (Baumrind, 1997). In addition, this style of parenting negatively impacts children's performance and behavioural adjustment as it uses overbearing practices

to execute child-rearing practices (Baumrind, 2005). Consequently, children are affected as the parent exerts power and control to govern the lives of their children, and experience difficulty in various areas of their lives (Santrock, 2007).

Emotional connectedness in the parent-child relationship is also affected. Thus, parental influence in relation to emotion may not be positively transferred from one generation to the next, as it has not been pensively role modelled to children who will assumedly adopt adult parenting roles, responsibilities, styles and practices.

Parental control is another negative and destructive form of parenting (Walling, Mills & Freeman, 2007). Research reveals the negative impact of controlling parenting styles on children (Gaertner et al., 2010), such as the use of manipulation to control the child's emotional autonomy (Barber, 1996; Brown, Craig, & Halberstadt, 2015; Nelson, Padilla-Walker, Christensen, Evans, & Carroll, 2011); the negative impact on the development of the child's identity, affecting the child's self-worth, self-control, spiritual and emotional well-being (Barber, Stolz, Olsen, Collins, & Burchinal, 2005), and self-sufficiency, further impacting their subsequent involvement with the internal and external environment.

Another negative and destructive form of parenting on the child's internal and external interaction is authoritarian parenting linked with factors of trauma. Trauma (suffering, pain, and distress) affects parenting styles and roles. Parents who have experienced trauma demonstrate "lower levels of parenting satisfaction, increased child neglect and the use of physical punishment" (Schwerdtfeger Larzelere, Werner, Peters, & Oliver, 2013, p. 212); inability to effectively discipline and parent a child (Cohen, Hien and Batchelder, 2008); inconsistency in parenting (Collin-Vezina, Cy, Pauze and Mcduff, 2005); they are also emotionally or functionally less supportive of their children (Walker, 2008). Furthermore, mothers affected by trauma display emotional regulation, inability to provide

warmth and compassion, and are ultimately less effective in parenting (Kaitz, Levy, Ebstein, Faraone & Mankuta, 2009).

Maternal parenting has higher precedence in the well-being of children (Schwartz et al., 2012), emphasising mothers as the stronger and more influential parental figures than fathers. This proposes that intergenerational transference of negative or positive parenting will predominately depend on the mother's abilities to adapt and alter parenting experienced. However, contributing factors like trauma will display emotional dysregulation, inability to discipline, provide warmth and compassion, and ultimately, be less effective within parenting (Kaitz, et al., 2009). Conclusive research suggests that trauma could have negative consequences for parenting practices (Schwerdtfeger et al., 2013), and subsequently, affect the intergenerational transference of parenting practices.

The permissive parenting style is described below.

3.4.2.2 Permissive (indulging) parenting style

Permissive parents typically believe the child must be free – free from discipline, restrictions, rules, and structure, and should rather be left on his/her own to grow and develop as an individual. Such parents show more warmth and less control; use less discipline, punitive measures, and structure; lack implementing punishment, rules, boundaries, and restrictions (Baumrind, 1997); are lenient; lack love and affection (Baumrind, 1967).

Children of permissive parents, on the one hand, are destructive, impulsive, lack self-control (Peterson & Hann, 1999), maturity, and responsibility (Peterson & Hann, 1999); have difficulty adjusting to more structured environments and acting as disciplined youth, and later adults. Yet, on the other hand, they have an extensive sense of autonomy, which may strengthen and enhance the parent-child relationship (Baumrind, 1997). This suggests that children from a permissive parenting style may experience difficulty in adjusting to more structured environments. In addition, the permissive parenting style is very lenient and liberal

with no boundaries to guide and protect the child to enhance the development of skills and abilities for future adult responsibilities. Furthermore, this method of parenting lacks love and affection, which is needed for constructive child development (Baumrind, 1967).

The rejecting-neglectful parenting style is described next.

3.4.2.3 Rejecting-neglectful parenting style

The *rejecting-neglectful parenting style* is typically "disengaged"; "neither demanding nor responsive" to their children; detached and disconnected; lacks affection, warmth, competence, firmness, and discipline (Baumrind, 1991c, p. 62); and are neglectful in their ability to i) provide structure and order in the household with regard to rules and guidelines, ii) monitor their children, iii) not supportive, iv) actively involved in their children's activities, and iv) they neglect their child-rearing responsibilities altogether. Therefore, these parents portray the least competence, as they lack firmness, discipline, structure, and an inner inherent sense of discipline (Baumrind, 1991c).

Children of such parents portray a lack of sensitivity and feelings of affection toward others (Baumrind, 1997). They seek other sources of love and warmth, usually in the wrong places; display anti-social behaviours in their search for belonging (Lee, Daniels & Kissinger, 2006); and exhibit ill-mannered, self-centred, and demanding associated behaviours (Aunola, Stattin, & Nurmi, 2000). In addition, they have poor emotional control; are prone to engage in risk-taking behaviour (Baumrind, 1967, 1978, 1991c; Louw, Van Ede & Louw, 2004; Scaramella & Leve, 2004); and may experience difficulty formulating healthy relationships into adulthood (Ellithorpe, Ewoldsen & Fazio, 2014). On the other hand, they may display more reliant and responsible behaviours than their parents and may take on the role of caregiver to their younger siblings to provide structure, affection, and discipline in the household.

Thus, parenting styles and the relating factors influence children in different ways; impact on their attitudes and developments throughout life; and influence their own practices of parenting styles adopted as parents (McKinney et al., 2016; Hart, Newell & Olsen, 2003).

Next, the authoritative parenting style is described below.

3.4.2.4 *Authoritative parenting style*

The *authoritative parenting style* is considered a more positive approach to child-rearing and managing children's behaviours. Authoritative parents typically provide structure and rules when raising their children. They formulate rules and strategies to promote freedom of expression and exploration (Aquilino, 2006); effectively communicate with their children on a regular basis; encourage confidence and autonomous intellectual self-development (Baumrind, 1967); allow open communication platforms, which enables their children to contribute to family discussions and related decisions, enhancing the decision-making abilities of the child (Aquilino, 2006; Allen, Hauser, O Conner & Bell, 2002); provide positive support to children, enhancing academic performance, better competency, and children are more responsive to demands (Wintre & Yaffe, 2000); contribute to positive child outcomes in academic performance and positive health outcomes (West-Olatunji, Sanders, Mehta, & Behar-Horenstein, 2010); apply distinctive attributes such as "affection, assistance, behavioural control and minimal use of psychological control" (Baumrind, 2005, p. 67).

Contrarily, the authoritarian parenting style produces lower levels of academic achievement and poorer health outcomes (Shorer et al, 2011). This strongly indicates a significant relationship between parenting styles, parenting practices, behavioural outcomes, levels of socialisation, health outcomes, and positive academic performance of children (Dauber & Epstein, 1989; Hayes, Muto, & Masuda, 2011). Children of authoritative parents perform at high standards; develop into well-adjusted adults (van Wel, Linssen & Abma,

2000; Arnett, 2007); are independent, self-controlled, disciplined, and well adjusted
(Baumrind, 2005).

Lerner (2016, p. 1) "encourages parents to reflect on their experiences on growing up
and make conscious decisions about which parenting practices they want to repeat". Lerner
adds that the transfer of information of parents and children took place through everyday
interactions, forming the beliefs, attitudes, and parenting practices (Lerner, 2016).
Furthermore, it fosters inquiry into the means and methods children relate to, re-enact, and
either continue or discontinue these parenting practices (and other parenting related factors)
between generations. The questions arising here are whether (a) parents require certain
comprehensible parenting competencies in order to relay these developed understandings and
meanings during child-rearing to future generations of parents; and (b) whether these
competencies should include the abilities, skills, capabilities, proficiencies, experiences, and
know-hows in order to provide, develop, and ensure supportable, maintainable, manageable,
and sustainable parenting styles and practices that produce healthy and positive outcomes in
children, and further produces strengthened family functioning, which allows for the
transitioning into parenthood and subsequent intergenerational transference.

3.4.3 Transitioning to parenting

The transition to parenthood is a journey that requires extensive learning for parents
to adjust to these new parental roles and responsibilities. Parenting is thus a unique individual
experience influenced by many factors, including an individual's own upbringing; child
temperaments and personalities; partner parenting styles and involvement (single parenting,
absent fathers, or uninvolved mothers); and family support, i.e., by siblings, grandparents,
and even community members. An array of parenting factors therefore needs to be considered
in relation to parenting transference from one parent to another.

Family and social support systems are required to help parents develop skills and self-awareness with their parenting interactions (Siu, Shek, & Lai, 2012). Information is transferred and skills required for parenting is a process that needs guidance and support from partners, family, and significant others (Siu et al., 2012). Some skills are enacted by nature, while others are intergenerationally observed and acquired through the parents' own childhood upbringing. Developing an understanding of the parents' childhood experiences of parenting practices meaningfully contributes to their own forms of parenting, and these perceived understandings may help parents and other role players, like educators, recognise the insights, views, and understandings about child advancement and progressive behaviour (O' Brien, 2010).

Parenting styles used within one generation will possibly affect the behaviours of parents in subsequent generations (Belsky, Conger & Capaldi, 2009). Thus, the parenting manner adopted by parents with their children is to some extent influenced by their own parenting received (Harlaar et al., 2008). Although clear transmissions of parenting styles and behaviours are evidently suggested in the research explored, there remains limited comprehension of the influences that guides the intergenerational transference within processes and practices (Belsky et al., 2009). The context of the transition to parenthood and the transference of parenting practices occur in different forms and are influenced by various individuals, i.e., maternal and paternal parents parenting styles and practices, even parents and grandparents (Belsky et al., 2009). Furthermore, numerous demographic variables, such as marital status, are specifically important as moderators to describe the continuities and discontinuities of parenting across generations (Conger et al., 2009).

Traditionally, mothers have been viewed as the initial caregiver, but more recently, greater focus has been placed on the increased involvement, and roles and responsibilities of both parents. Parental engagement plays a vital role as its influences the child's positive

development outcomes (Saleh & Hilton, 2011). The behaviours of parents influence the externalising behaviours and well-being of their children. It is established that there is a distinct relationship between the externalising behaviours of children who are exposed to negative parenting and harsh discipline in the first generation will externalise these experiences in the second generation (Belsky, 1984; Kovan, Chung, & Sroufe, 2009).

The constructive influence of parenting style was evident as supportive or warm parenting, particularly during adolescence, and projected positive parenting and constructive parenting roles in adulthood (Kerr, Capaldi, Pears, & Owen, 2009; Neppl Conger, Scaramella, & Ontai, 2009). Positive parenting in the family of origin was associated with physical and emotional support, especially when expressed through the mother's care, as the affection received significantly influenced the transference of positive parenting practices adopted by sons (Barber & Thomas, 1986). Strong relationships formed between parents and their boy children during childhood produced more positive relational attitudes about paternal engagement with their own children (Barber & Thomas, 1986); and fathers expressed more warmth and affection towards their daughters than sons (Barber & Thomas, 1986).

It remains undeniable that some parents parent better than previous generations, while others perform worse (Kovan et al., 2009). There are only a few studies designed to account for discontinuities in parenting across generations (Kovan et al., 2009; Neppl et al., 2009). The involvement of parents in their children's upbringing greatly contributes to how parenting is received, understood, interpreted, and reintegrated into 2nd generation parenting. However, the effects of non -involved parents and their style of parenting are likely to impact more destructively and produce negative parenting practices.

The next section unpacks the changing roles and influences of parenting. Attention is given to dual parenting; the significant role of fathers; and the increasing responsibility and role of grandparents in child-rearing.

3.4.3.1 Transitioning into roles and influences in and of parenting

This section presents the changing roles and influences of parenting, i.e., dual parenting, and the roles of fathers, and grandmothers.

3.4.3.2 Dual parenting

Two parent households consistently demonstrated increased stages of involvement in their children's lives, which produced higher performance levels and holistic functioning (Smock & McCormick, 1995). Dual parenting practices generally include advanced levels of parent supervision and observation; more consistent monitoring (Doyle, Peacukonis & Lindsey, 2015); more support with household tasks, including schoolwork and supervision outside of the home (Astone & McLanahan, 1991); greater parental participation in various roles and responsibilities in the family, such as being the carer and provider; by offering protection, moral guidelines, and financial support (Doyle et al., 2015). These roles vary according to context, circumstances, and environment; and also evolve over time and across ethnic, racial, and social cultural groups (Lamb & Tamis-LeMonda, 2004). Thus, dual parenting could possibly be more favourable to growth and development of the child as it provides more parent participation in the child's daily routine activities in comparison to single parent households. Further support, influence, active involvement, and guidance suggests improved quality parenting (Doyle et al. 2015).

The role of fathers is explored next.

3.4.3.3 The role of fathers (married or unmarried)

The role of fathers performed in the family is an important aspect that affects the well-being of both children and mothers directly and indirectly (Lamb & Tamis-LeMonda, 2004). Studies on fathers show that fathers are actively involved in their children's lives, irrespective of their residential or socio-economic status, or relationship status with their

child's mother (Jones & Mosher, 2013). Regardless of stigma and generational assumptions relating to fathering roles, fathers show relatively equitable child-rearing responsibilities alongside their children's mothers (McAdoo, 1988). It was established that fathers of various racial and ethnic backgrounds engage in parenting practices, such as supervision, monitoring, discipline, encouragement, and support, which are associated with decreases in depressive symptoms, aggression, and delinquency among children (youth) (Hoeve et al., 2009). In recent studies, fathers have also been found to be accepting, affectionate, and more nurturing compared to previous generations (Doyle et al., 2015).

Fathers tend to adopt an authoritative parenting style, displaying both parental acceptance (support, affection) and parental control (supervision, discipline) (Toth Jr & Xu, 1999). Children of fathers that provide high levels of encouragement and supervision display low levels of delinquency (Toth Jr & Xu, 1999). Encouraging and supportive fathers disciplined their children with warmth by using physical punishment, but doing it with affection (Staples & Johnson, 1993). Furthermore, it was found that African American fathers and father figures (grandfathers, stepfathers, and uncles) were involved in an array of parenting practices centred on the well-being of their children (Letiecq & Koblinsky, 2004).

The role of grandparents is discussed next.

3.4.3.4 Role of grandparents

In recent years (Chen, 2016), grandparents have assumed a more involved parenting role; taken on more responsibilities in child-rearing; and have become fundamental role players in parenting their grandchildren (Boski, 2010). This is often due to parents' lack of responsibilities assumed, particularly single parents, especially in the case of teenage pregnancy (Inglehart & Welzel, 2005). Hence, grandparents have assumed an influential role in guiding teenage mothers and single mothers in child-rearing (Nowak, 1979; Siemers, 2002). Consequently, grandmothers develop strong parent-child relations with their

grandchildren and have assumed a continued parental role in the rearing of children within their families (Lubiewska, 2012, p. 213). This involvement of grandparents in child-rearing suggests a means of continuity of parenting styles and practices from G1 parents (grandparents) to G3 (grandchildren) children's future parenting (Chen, 2016). This support is often sought as young and single mothers are challenged with the cumbersome roles and responsibilities accompanying child-rearing (Boski, 2010). Other aspects to consider include young mothers who need to seek employment to provide for their children; return to school to complete their schooling or further their studies; or work away from home. Thus, there may be variant factors to consider the increased involvement in childcare and child-rearing that grandparents fulfil.

The next section looks at transmission between generations.

3.5 INTERGENERATIONAL CONTINUITY AND DISCONTINUITY IN PARENTING

Transmission between generations does occur, as statistics of parenting behaviours transmitted between generations indicated a 35–45% average in transmission to the next generation (Madden et al., 2015). Some continuities are due to behaviour, while others are partially related to shared genes (Jensen & Champagne, 2012). Some parenting styles and practices portray patterns of intergenerational transference of parenting that may be identified in children's social and behavioural outcomes, as well as influence future parenting styles and practices adopted (Madden et al., 2015). The quality of parenting is associated with the dimensions of parenting practices and the related child outcomes (Madden et al., 2015).

Transference of parenting between the parent and child may occur in the following ways: i) a child observes his/her parents' behaviour, and through social learning, replicates this parental style when becoming a parent; or ii) a child develops an attachment style which is replicated in adulthood (Madden et al., 2015).

Other parental factors to consider in intergenerational transference are socio-economic stressors formed by unemployment; other underlying factors, such as poverty, alcohol abuse, spousal abuse, and health related illnesses, including heart disease or a disability within the family; and community impact on the transference of parenting between generations (Melby & Conger, 2001). These environmental and socio-economic factors affect the functioning of families to an extent that it tests their resilience and adaptability to parenting in the midst of confronted challenges (Melby & Conger, 2001). However, the parent-child relationship, despite the challenges experienced, may greatly enhance the positive or negative transference of parenting styles and practices. This indicates that the parent-child interaction will determine and eventually adapt to adopt the positive or negative transference of parenting.

The intergenerational transference of parenting between generations may be described by direct mechanisms that influence parenting through observations, behaviours, and interactions (Madden et al., 2015). Previous studies mostly focused on intergenerational continuity of harsh and aggressive parenting, but warm supportive parenting also informs continuity. This study therefore outlines the harsh and positive aspects of intergenerational transference (Madden et al., 2015). The former is reviewed next.

3.5.1 Negative/destructive parenting

Parents who experienced harsh parenting by their own parent's generally reintegrate these parenting practices and behaviours with their own children during parenting (Conger, Schofield & Neppl, 2012). Although the transference of harsh (negative parenting style) parenting from one parent may be diminished and disrupted by the affectionate and supportive parenting style of the co-parent (Conger et al., 2012). Thus, spouses have the ability to inspire change in one another's parenting styles and practices over time (Schofield,

Conger, & Neppl, 2014), and consequently influence the intergenerational transference of parenting to future generations.

Conditions that disrupt parenting continuity include the coinciding of personal exposure to different parenting styles, and deciding as a couple to collaborate, eliminate, or formulate their own parenting practices upon their children. Thus, embarking on 2nd generation parenting may be a challenge to parents exploring new methods and means of parenting, and might lean toward either the continuity or discontinuity of some parenting styles and practices. This would depend on the collaborative decisions of parents and is influenced by their own childhood experiences and the related lived outcomes.

The question arising here is, what are the continuities and discontinuities in both positive and negative aspects of parenting? Neppl et al., (2009) identified continuities between G1 and G2, but transference to G3 was unexplored. In addition, there is limited research on intergenerational continuity of how parenting in one generation affects child-rearing practices in the next (Conger et al., 2012).

Studies show that continuities of both harsh parenting (angry, hostile and uncaring behaviours) and positive parenting (behaviours demonstrating interest, concern and clear communication) transpire from G1 to G2 parents (Neppl et al., 2009). Conger, Belsky and Capaldi (2009) claimed that the parenting styles portrayed by G1 parents will have continuity across future generations. These authors further propose that positive or constructive G1 parenting displayed will be transferred to the next generation (G2). 'Ideal' parenting is displayed by parenting performances within styles and practices that depict actions inclusive of positive emotion or control (Conger et al., 2009). On the contrary, opposing actions of parenting to positive emotion and control is determined by the parenting style implemented, and consequently, the developmental behavioural outcomes of a child displayed (Conger et al., 2009). This emphasises impacting factors, namely, parental emotion and parental control,

as these formulate indicators for continuity and discontinuity of parenting. Hence, the assumption that if the developmental experience is positive, parenting is inclined to be transferred to the next generation. Alternatively, if the parenting experience is negative, discontinuity in parenting transference to future generations is more likely. However, either positive or negative indicators may be transferred to future parents.

Furthermore, research designates that parents who are warm, affectionate, and attentive to their children's needs, also tend to be more effective in terms of child-rearing practices (Conger, et al., 2012). Child-rearing factors include setting standards for children's behaviours, monitoring their actions, and providing appropriate consequences for unacceptable behaviours, i.e., discipline (Conger et al., 2012). Consequently, parents who portray positive discipline are more effective in the control strategies that they employ with their children (Conger, et al., 2012). Therefore, positive parenting attributes, such as positive discipline and control, reduces the risk of emotional and behavioural problems. On the contrary, negative parenting behaviours and actions, such as harsh and inconsistent parenting, contribute to emotional and behavioural problems, and affect the social, emotional, and academic performance of children (Conger et al., 2012). Parental awareness of their parenting practices will elucidate the effects thereof on children's functioning and related outcomes.

The next section looks at positive aspects of intergenerational transference.

3.5.2   Positive parenting

Research provides clear and definite support of transference of parenting between G1 and G2 (Schofield et al., 2014), but there is a gap in the research concerning transference to G3, whether parenting is even transmitted, and/or to which extent. These authors found that "both scientists and practitioners often propose that the way parents raise their children results, to a significant degree, from the types of child-rearing parents experienced when they were growing up" (Schofield et al., 2014, p. 973). Furthermore, the parenting attributes

depicted in one generation (G1) determines subsequent parenting performances in the next generation (G2) (Schofield et al., 2014).

A question further explored and highlighted by Schofield et al., (2014, p. 973) is "what factors will moderate continuity such that the second generation of parents is more likely to emulate the types of parenting experienced as children?" They approach this question by addressing the factors of positive parenting as well as considering the personal resources of those parents. Positive parenting involves the attributes of warmth, acceptance, engagement, and responsiveness toward their children (Rohner, 1986; Schofield, et al., 2014). Positive parenting attributes are connected with resilient child modification transversely across cultures (Khaleque & Rohner, 2002) and promote relational interaction and communication with others. This constitutes the components of the individual's life cycle (Barber et al., 2005). This proposes that the various elements of positive parenting are strongly associated with optimal functioning and childhood development in relation to the individual, family, and societal levels. This suggests the extent that the intensities of these relationships are based on, as well as the extent of the positive attributes received. Furthermore, portraying that the greater the influence of positive parenting, the more positive the child's developmental and interactive outcome will be. Recent studies on positive parenting propose that the transference of child-rearing and child care parenting practices from G1 to G2 parents is 'modest' (Schofield, et al., 2014). Thus, modest transference may suggest a slight, diminutive, or an uncertainty in the proportion of transference (Schofield et al., 2014).

Thus, minimal research has been conducted on the conditions under which continuity of parenting is either interrupted or adopted (Conger et al., 2009). Furthermore, Schofield et al., (2014) state that the identification of these conditions of parenting would help inform practitioners supporting families and maintain adaptive patterns of parents, moving beyond

the deficits displayed by their parents. This may enhance ways to promote child well-being and positive transference of parenting to future generations. Deficits displayed by parents may be forwarded to future generations by observations of other parents within society and even the media, depending on the individual and the role models and parenting practices they emulate (Belsky, 1984). In support of this, it is acknowledged that society and community also become key role players in displaying positive parenting practices that are constructive to the growth and development of children, who may notably be observing and consuming these behaviours, contrary to their own internal experiences of parenting. Individual beliefs about parenting accumulated over time through experience and observation will also formulate the practices the person eventually employs when parenting their own children (Bynum & Brody, 2005). Furthermore, reputable and suitable coping mechanisms adopted by parents will also emanate positive parenting (Bynum & Brody, 2005). This is supported by Rohner (1986) who suggests that positive parenting are active coping strategies that establish a responsive and dependable environment for the child. This shows that the environment is a contributing factor to parenting in terms of altering history within a family of destructive parenting.

Parenting has been researched both publicly and professionally; however, the key elements on the influence of positive parenting and its contribution to the construction of children and healthy childhood development remains a factor for further exploration (Seay, Freysteinson, & McFarlane, 2014).

The effect of negative or bad parenting extends into other forms of social harm and has been strongly associated with child abuse. This implies that negative parenting has detrimental effects on the well-being of children, as well as society at large, as children, during childhood and later adulthood, contribute to the functioning of society. Forms of abuse form part of negative destructive parenting. Abused children may be exposed to physical,

psychological, and social abuse, which affects their potential to develop into healthy and productive members of society and adult parents (Corso, 2012). This research conducted is further supported by a national organisation in Canada, Invest in Kids, who found that a lack of positive parenting affected 30% of all children, resulting in social, emotional, or intellectual problems as a result.

Kulkarni (2010, cited in Seay et al., 2014, p. 204) defined 'positive parenting' through five defining principles, namely:

> i) *loving through warmth and nurturing, ii) understanding of a child's temperament with flexibility of the child, clear limits and discipline, protective by providing a safe environment, iii) to model appropriate behaviours through providing learning opportunities, behaviour that fosters a positive relationship between parents and children based on mutual respect, iv) the facilitation of the child's full development potential and on the ability to negotiate diverging interests in a non-violent a constructive way. v) An emphasis on praising good behaviour, setting clear rules, taking time to listen, working as a team, and of course using positive disciplining instead of physical punishment (Daphne, 2009).*

Key concepts used to describe positive parenting include teaching, understanding, leading, listening, providing safety, and giving clear and consistent discipline while respecting the child (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, 2014). There are interchangeable terms/attributes used to describe parenting. These attributes are, namely; caretaking, mothering, and upbringing.

In recent years, non-traditional parents and parental practices have become more common than the traditional two parent household (Seay et al., 2014). For example, as explained above, grandparents have taken on a more active role in the child-rearing of their grandchildren; aunts (Davis-Sowers, 2012), uncles, and other extended family members (Jones, Hanton, & Connaughton, 2007) have also fulfilled this parental role and responsibility. Furthermore, other children who are handed over to the system, receive temporary carers, foster parents, and even adoptive parents (Meyiwa, 2011). More recently, legislation has made provision for same sex couples to adopt children, and stepparents are

becoming more popular and formulating good parenting practices (Schor, 2003). The above

discussion illustrates that there are numerous terms for the concept of parenting, and that

many distinctions of who may be a parent exist (Seay et al., 2014).

Positive parenting is one of the defining attributes of good parenting. It requires a

continuing relationship with a child and is attentive to a child's well-being (Seay et al., 2014).

The ability to formulate a relationship between the parent and child starts off with the core

foundation of good parenting. On the other hand, the inability to formulate this relationship

will contribute to the origins of the risk of negative parenting.

Furthermore, positive parenting must embody the characteristics of caring, leading,

providing, teaching, and communicating (Seay et al., 2014, pp. 204–205) as follows:

a) Caring: care for the child is a responsive relationship symbolizing attachment (Bentley et al., 2011), love (Davis-Sowers, 2012), compassion (Duncan et al., 2009), warmth (Kulkarni, 2010), and affection (LeCuyer-Maus, 2000).

b) Leading: lead the child by setting developmentally appropriate boundaries or limits with discipline (Davis-Sowers, 2012). This was also labelled in the literature as shaping, modelling (Marshall et al., 2011), and regulating a child's behaviour (Kulkarni, 2010).

c) Providing: provide by giving a child adequate food (Marshall et al., 2010; Walker & Kirby, 2010), shelter (Kuchmaeva et al., 2009), hygiene medical care and financial support (Meyiwa, 2011), within a safe environment (Berry et al., 2003).

d) Teaching: teach by providing developmentally appropriate activities and play (LeCuyer-Maus, 2000) for cognitive stimulation (Gavin et al., 2002), appropriate expectations for learning activities (Kulkarni, 2010), socialization with friends (Walker and Kirby, 2010), and the child's attendance at school (Jones et al., 2007).

e) Communicating: Communicate with the child through verbalization (Gavin et al., 2002), active listening (Duncan et al, 2009; Kulkarni, 2010), and respect (Nadeem et al., 2007; Schor, 2003).

The assumption, therefore, is that: i) parenting practices that include unresponsive and

non-authoritative parenting are harmful to the development and functioning of children, and

ii) parenting practices that include criticism, inconsistencies, and harsh parenting, have been

associated with greater levels of aggressive behaviour.

Thus, parenting practices exhibited may in turn be positive or negative, and this will

inform the outcomes of children and future transference of parenting.

The next section reviews the findings of studies that have looked at the topic of parenting and ethnicity.

3.6 PARENTING AND ETHNICITY

Studies conducted on ethnicity and parenting report that parenting styles vary across cultures and societies (Roman et al; 2016; Roman, 2014). Although some studies reported that Caucasian parents often employed authoritative parenting styles, black parents used authoritarian parenting styles, and Hispanic parents preferred permissive parenting styles (Davis et al., 2001), but this view was not unanimous. Socio-economic status was found to impede parenting styles (Davis et al., 2001). Additional studies show that despite persistent challenges, especially among ethnic minority and low-income parents, child outcomes were still positive due to parental affection and involvement (Abdul-Adil & Farmer, 2006). This suggests that positive parent-child relations inadvertently develop positive child outcomes. The parent-child relationship encourages and enhances family functioning, including the transference of dominant cultural values allowing for open communication and promoting mutuality (Kim, Knudson-Martin & Tuttle, 2014). Individuals draw strong influences from their birthplace and their socialisation within a dominant cultural context (Kim, 2012). Thus, the cultural context of parent-child relationships significantly influences the infiltration/transference of societal norms, family values, and expectations of children.

3.6.1 Social-cultural environment

Good parent-child relationships will allow for individualism, autonomy, and a degree of collectivism within all cultures (Kim et al., 2010). In an attempt to promote parent-child relationships, motivate open communication, and maintain cultural practices, children's influence and opinions need to be considered (Kim et al., 2010). Parental authority with a positive approach can serve as an anchor for strength and security for developing children socially and culturally within families and communities (Omer, Steinmetz, Carthy, &

Schlippe, 2013). Awareness of one's own cultural and historical origins and evolving existence is important in order to develop a deeper understanding of the sense of belonging, as well as appreciate cultural practices and affiliations to heritage (Kim, 2012). "[M]uch of what parents do in the process of child rearing is guided by the intention to nurture and prepare children to function competently as adults in the society in which they will live" (Kim et al., 2012, p. 63).

Societal norms and expectations suggest how parents and children should relate. However, the ever-changing roles, responsibilities, and responsiveness to the environment alters these parent-child relations and parenting practices. Thus, parenting orientations are subject to change, fluid, and influenced by the setting and larger social context, rather than the cultural ideology of one ethnic heritage (Gergen, 2009). For that reason, the parental role involves being effective in the socialisation of a child. Effective parenting therefore requires being sensitive to a child's needs, their progressive stage, character, behaviour, and cultural beliefs concerning the operative child (Conger et al., 2012). This indicates that children function in relation to behaviour, beliefs, traditions, cultures, and all the related factors due to the influence and interrelatedness of communities and families.

The phenomenon of multigenerational families is discussed next.

3.6.2   Multigenerational families

'*Multigenerational*' is when more than one generation occupies a household (Blalock, Tiller & Monroe, 2004), forming a multigenerational (intergenerational) family structure. Such households include grandparents, children, and grandchildren, and is becoming a more frequent phenomenon that requires further exploration (Fingerman, Pitzer, Lefkowitz, Birditt & Mroczek, 2008). This phenomenon is particularly common in rural areas.

In 2009, approximately 4 million children (under six years) lived with grandparents and parents within the same household (U.S. Census Bureau, 2011). This denotes an

escalation of almost 30% since 2000, partially impacted by economic requirements that confront parents and grandparents across generations (Taylor et al., 2010), implying intergenerational transference of parenting. But will 3rd generation children enact similar or different parenting practices?

This phenomenon is particularly common in rural areas, where adequate housing and access to quality child care is inadequate (Blalock et al., 2004) and greater dependence is placed on family association, community networks, and support from grandparents, especially the grandmother (Elder et al., 1995).

Factors contributing to maladaptive child social development include parental, psychological distress, parent-child relationship, marital conflict, and negative parenting behaviours, factors positively linked to economic disadvantaged households (Elder, Rudkin, & Conger, 1995). Family associations in intergenerational households may be particularly intricate as one has to consider all the parenting dynamics in fulfilling child-rearing and parent roles (Sellers, Black, Boris, Oberlander, & Myers, 2011). The mother-grandmother relationship is complex and will require a balance to eliminate potential conflict. This, on the other hand, presents direct and indirect threats and disruptions for children's social maturation (Kerig, 1995). Complex parental situations may occur within three generational households. This was positively connected with less behaviour challenges amid school going children (Goodman, 2007), while on the other hand, children are more susceptible to being affected by the household's situations, such as depression, anxiety, or martial conflict, which is positively associated with behaviour problems in children, also affecting the parent-child relationship (Cummings & Davies, 2005). The above discussion displays a distinctive relationship between the various parenting contexts children are reared in. It also proposes that parenting practices and parental conflict and parenting practices and parent-child relationships are interconnected. This further indicates that parenting occurs in different

forms of practices and affects the broader family, marital couple, and parenting contexts for children.

Multicultural parenting contexts is the topic discussed next.

3.6.3 Multicultural parenting contexts

Contemporary parenting contexts have undergone significant change in recent years due to various multicultural parenting contexts – a combination of parenting styles, various parental practices, inter-racial and multi-ethnic contexts, and married and single parents.

There is a dearth of research on multicultural parenting contexts. One study focused on 1st generation Korean parents and 2nd generation adolescent development (Kim, Cain & Webster-Stratton, 2008), but with diminutive evidence or indication of transference between 1st, 2nd and 3rd generational transference of parenting.

Furthermore, limited research has been conducted on the intergenerational transference of multicultural practice of parenting between parenting generations.

Conger et al., (2012) suggest that parents exposed to harsh parenting are less likely to become a co-parent with someone exposed to positive parenting. Therefore, mate selection plays a crucial role in intergenerational continuity of either harsh or positive transference of parenting to 2nd and 3rd generations (Conger et al., 2012). In terms of the former, when co-parenting with a positive parented adult, positive parenting attributes usually supersede the harsh parenting style, resulting in the (G3) child receiving more positive parenting. In terms of the latter, harsh parented children tend to parent in the same way (Conger et al., 2012). It may be inferred that parenting styles are influenced by one's own familiar experiences of parenting.

Statistics show that approximately 7 million grandparents in the United States are residing with their grandchildren; 13% of those grandparents have become the dependable caregiver ("What Every Grandparent Needs to Know," 2014). The care of grandchildren is

thus becoming a dynamic process that evolves into grandparents assuming parenting alongside their child's parenting roles. The parent-child relationship thus matures as both parents' roles (the parent and grandparent) are altered by a 3rd generation grandchild (Siu et al., 2012), alluding to intergenerational parenting.

Some concluding remarks are provided below.

3.7 CONCLUSION

This chapter reviewed various literature on *parenting*. Parenting is perceived as a parental role that encompasses taking care of and ensuring the well-being of children. After reviewing the history of parenting, various parenting factors were considered, along with parenting styles and practices, multigenerational families, and the many forms of parenting. Particular attention was given to *intergenerational transference* of parenting across generations, as well as continuity and discontinuity in parenting. Then multigenerational families (the intergenerational family structure) is becoming an increasingly common phenomenon in contemporary society, with grandparents taking on significant roles in parenting their grandchildren. Parenting thus occurs in many forms of practices, affecting the broader family, marital couple, and parenting contexts for children influencing generational transference of parenting between generations and over time.

CHAPTER 4

METHODOLOGY

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the research methodology used to conduct the study. The various methods and research processes applicable to this study are outlined and explained in detail under their relevant headings. These include a qualitative research approach; the interpretivist paradigm; an exploratory case study research design, which includes the application of both qualitative and quantitative data collection methods that have strategically been used in the implementation phases; the research questions, goal and objectives of the study; population and sampling, as well as the data collection, which include the methods used during the data collection, data analyses, and ethical considerations that were followed in the research. The data collection methods used in the study will be referred to as 'combined data collection techniques' (methods) to eliminate any misconception that this is a mixed method study design. This study follows a systemic research process, following steps which are outlined in more detail in the rest of the chapter.

4.1.1   Reasearch aim and objectives

For ease of reference, the research aim and objectives are restated.

The overall aim of this study was to explore intergenerational parenting in Genadendal for the purpose of developing guidelines for parents and practitioners.

The objectives of this study were to:

1. Describe and explore the parenting factors (parenting styles and practices skills, teachings, practices, styles, performs, quality parent-child relationship, warmth and strict control, parental knowledge) of generations in Genadendal;

2. Explore the intergenerational transference of parenting factors (parenting styles and practices, skills, teachings, practices, styles, performs, quality parent-child relationship, warmth and strict control, parental knowledge) in Genadendal;

3. Compare the parenting factors across generations in Genadendal;

4. Explore the contributing factors towards intergenerational transference of parenting factors over time in Genadendal;

5. Develop guidelines for parents and practitioner to improve parenting in Genadendal.

These aims and objectives inform the methodology of the study. The methodology determines the research process, which includes the research approach, design and subsequent methods adopted to collect and analyse the data (Carter & Little, 2009; Hesse-Biber & Leavy, 2011).

4.1.2 Reasearch methodology

Research methodology refers to "… the coherent group of methods that complement one another and that have the goodness of fit to deliver data and findings that will reflect the research question and suit the research purpose…" (Henning, Van Rensburg & Smit, 2004, p. 34). Creswell (2007, p. 17) further describes the methodological approach, of a study used to conduct research, as the systemic way a researcher conceptualises the methodological process. This process includes the rules and procedures that outline the requisite steps to be followed during the implementation of the research method. The research methodology, therefore, explains the logical frame underlying the strategic steps within the process to synthesise the research in order to develop research questions, aims, and objectives and subsequently draw results and conclusions to answer or respond to the devised research focus

(i.e. research questions, aims and objectives) of the phenomenon underpinning the study (Babbie & Mouton, 2007).

Thus, the research process allows the researcher through the selected steps that are followed for the intension of a study, to gain understanding, awareness and knowledge as well as produce interpretation about a phenomenon under study.

4.1.3 The research approach

This study employed a qualitive research approach. A qualitative research approach is conducted in the natural context of the participants to explore and draw an understanding of the perspectives and lived experiences, observed and shared by participants. The qualitative research process follows a naturalistic inquiry as a means of understanding social phenomena by exploring the 'why' and 'how' rather than the 'what' of the phenomenon under study (Creswell, 2014). This was done to formulate meanings from the participants' direct responses regarding their lived experiences. Qualitative research is perceived as the presentation of data in words based on people's experiences, attitudes and perceptions (Ishtiaq, 2019). Therefore, the qualitative methodological framework was selected as it was intended to achieve an informative and in-depth understanding of the phenomenon by constructing the knowledge (Welman, Kruger & Mitchell, 2005). This approach therefore allowed the study to be conducted within an exploratory and descriptive framework, as exploratory research designs explore the perceptions around the nature of a problem and the descriptive component raises questions to be investigated by studies that are more extensive (Creswell, 2013).

Hence, this study follows a qualitative research approach as it was exploratory in nature and it sought to understand and develop knowledge and meanings about the phenomenon, of intergenerational parenting under study. The methodology was aligned with

the objectives of the study, namely, to "explore and describe", and was therefore considered a suitable approach, as it allowed the researcher to explore the realities of the participants' experiences in order to collect rich in-depth data. Furthermore, it was also descriptive, as it sought to describe parenting and the transference of parenting between generations. The objectives were further aligned with the qualitative data collection techniques such as semi-structured interviews. Moreover, these approaches and techniques (methods) employed were linked to the research questions, asking and addressing the "why" aspect (Creswell, 2014). The design of this research is therefore influenced by three interrelated aspects outlined below:

1. The research problem; this is focused at how parenting is intergenerationally transferred between generations, and what aspects impact on this intergenerational transmission.
2. The philosophical underpinnings of what the research realities and related paradigms consist of in the study.
3. The broad research approach that focuses on qualitative rather than quantitative as a research approach.

However, a combination of quantitative and qualitative research techniques were used to collect and analyse the data. In the quantitative data collection method, a questionnaire was adopted and in the qualitative method (data collection techniques) semi-structured interviews was conducted. These interviews were directed and implemented within a case study. Therefore, the strategy of the study is encapsulated within a case study research design.

4.1.4 Reasearch design

The research design refers to a variety of methods that may be used to conduct a research study, depending on the focus and specific characteristics that guide the researcher

to choosing a design (Thomas, 2011). In qualitative research there are three design types, namely: ethnographic studies, life histories and case studies. This study chose a case study design with both exploratory and descriptive components. As the explorative design is suitable to use to explore an issue that requires more in-depth understanding and information, in comparison to the descriptive design which aims at describing the phenomenon within the lived experiences and context of the person, place or community, formulating the research (Thomas, 2011). This case study type is therefore is referred to as a social group, as the research is also contextually bound to the context of Genadendal, thus the study is specific to this community group, which is bounded in space and time (Babbie & Mouton, 2001). The aim of this study is therefore to explore intergenerational parenting in Genadendal for the purpose of developing guidelines for parents and practitioners. This research is thus context specific focused on establishing the experiences and knowledge of community members personal lived experiences of parenting and their shared views and understanding of intergenerational transference of parenting across three generations. The research paradigm of the study is presented next.

4.1.5   Reasearch paradigm

Research provides opportunities for different research paradigms to be adopted. The philosophical underpinnings of three major paradigms were considered, namely, positivism, interpretivism, and critical theory.

These three paradigms and their associated methodological information are outlined in Table 4.1 below.

Table 4.1 Paradigms, Methodologies and Methods for Research Studies

Paradigm	Methods
Positivist paradigm	Methods that measures outcomes such as temperature, blood pressure, attitudes, etc.
	Methods that measure outcomes (as above)
	Methods that measure outcomes (as above)
	Methods that measure outcomes (as above)
Interpretive paradigm	Interviews
	Textual analysis; interviews
	Participant observation; interviews of key informants
	Participant observation; interviews
Critical paradigm	Participative group interaction; observation; interviews
	Participative group interaction; observation; interviews

Source: Adapted from "A Comprehensive Approach to Evidence-Based Health Care: The JBI Model of Evidence-Based Health Care" (Pearson, Field, & Jordan, 2009)

A paradigm is defined as a researcher's philosophical orientation and in this manner dictates a pattern, structure, framework, or system of scientific and academic ideas, values, and assumptions that informs the construction of the research methods, and also informs the meaning and interpretation of the research data (Olsen, Lodwick & Dunlop, 1992, p. 16). Thus, it is a conceptual lens through which the methodological aspects of the study are examined, in order to determine the research methods that will be used to collect and analyse data (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017). This, then guides the research action or investigation, which constitutes how the research is constructed, how the meaning is embedded in the data and how the results of the study should be interpreted (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017).

A paradigm is further described as a "basic belief system and theoretical framework with assumptions of the four elements of a research paradigm (Rehman & Alharthi, 2016:51). These four elements are: 1) ontology, 2) epistemology, 3) methodology, and 4) methods.

A brief description of each element is provided below:

1) **Ontology** refers to the nature of the beliefs formulated about reality (Richards, 2003).

2) **Epistemology** refers to "the branch of philosophy that studies the nature of knowledge and the process by which knowledge is acquired and validated" (Gall, Gall & Borg, 2003, p. 13).

3) **Methodology** refers to the "theoretical approach that informs the steps to the production of data" (Ellen, 1984, p. 9).

4) **Methods** are the techniques used to collect and analyse data. The methods utilised are informed by the research design as "the methods are the plan and strategy to implement the action processes" (Rehman & Alharthi, 2016, p. 52).

These then form the essential elements of a research paradigm, which in turn guide the assumptions, beliefs, norms and values of the chosen paradigm. It is significant to annotate that "the use of particular methods does not require ontological and epistemological assumptions" (Rehman & Alharthi, 2016, p. 52). Hence, in consideration of the combined data collection techniques used in this study to collect and analyse the data, these assumptions conceivably may not be involved. Therefore, it is these assumptions that formulate the realisation and construction of understandings to consider the reality of the world and in return find suitable ways to study it (Rehman & Alharthi, 2016). Studying it then benefits domains of research knowledge in that it recognises and expands knowledge relating to the underpinning of the research assumptions. The *interpretivist (naturalistic) paradigm* was therefore selected for this study which is described next.

4.1.6 Interpretivist Paradigm

Interpretive paradigmatic research seeks to explore perceptions, understandings, and shared meanings and interpretations of people being researched (Ritchie, Lewis, Nicholls & Ormston, 2013). The interpretive paradigm emphasised the importance of understanding the parenting domain of people's lived experiences and meanings. Subsequently, the data collected from the parents were thematically analysed, followed by the interpretation and

conclusions regarding its meaning (Creswell, 2007). Meanings were constructed from the individual interviews, questionnaires, and the workshop conducted (Nomlomo, 2007).

Qualitative research is understood as interpretive by nature; thus, the current study is underpinned by an interpretive paradigm under ontological assumption (Creswell, 2013). The ontological assumption denotes the nature of reality, and it embraces multiple realities from participants to present their perspectives through thematic analysis, which were designed to present the findings of the study (Creswell, 2013). Knowledge was acquired and guidelines developed from parents' multiple views, understandings, and realities regarding their conceptualisations of parenting to inform intergenerational parenting across generations.

A research paradigm therefore creates an opportunity for research and researchers to strive to understand and articulate beliefs about the nature and scope of the reality of a study component (Rehman & Alharthi, 2016). In order to make sense of what is currently happening in the world in terms of different social, cultural, political and economic aspects to mention a few, researchers require the realism as a basis to ascertain what may be known about a phenomenon and how attaining this related knowledge would be prepared, processed, and achieved (Rehman & Alharthi, 2016). Therefore, 'understanding' and 'knowing' are the key elements considered within research, which then becomes the basis for the research with the intent to broaden knowledge. This study adopted an epistemological inquiry as a basis to understand how and why we think, how we acquire knowledge, how we rely upon our senses, and how we develop concepts in our minds (Rescher, 2003) in relation to parenting and the intergenerational transference of parenting. This points to diverse methods that may be used to design the research process, especially with regard to its approach, validity, and scope of methods (Rescher, 2003). Therefore, this study applied an interpretivist paradigm, in which this study is locating its research, and applying a qualitative theoretical methodology, using both qualitative and quantitative data collection techniques, within a case study design. A

case is therefore the strategy of inquiry, the research method used, as it moves from the underlying assumptions to the research design, and data collection methods (Creswell, 2007; Creswell, Apetroaia, De Vos et al., 2012; Murry & Cooper, 2013).

4.1.7   Strategy of inquiry

Case study research is considered as an ideal 'strategy for methodological research' with a focus that is devised and synthesised with consideration for explorative studies (Harrison, Birks, Franklin & Mills, 2017, p. 1). In addition, case study research existed for many years and over time has developed with history that may suggest on-going processes and modification to revise the ideal construct to apply case study research (Flyvbjerg, 2011). Thus, case study research has undertaken considerable change, progress and development. This methodological development has "resulted in a pragmatic and flexible research approach, capable of providing a comprehensive in-depth understanding of a diverse range of issues" across disciplines (Harrison et al., 2017, p. 1). Therefore, it is rooted in diverse origins and influences across numerous disciplines such as anthropology, history, psychology and sociology (Simons, 2014; Stewart, 2014). Additionally, these influences impacted this approach to produce and devise new philosophical perspectives, and interpretations that have provided an opportunity for a methodological variation of the case study approach to be used (Harrison et al., 2017). The variations are selected in accordance with the definition, purpose, and validity constructs of the study. The core construct of these variations is the underpinning of the ontological and epistemological orientations. Thus, case study research is a practical and flexible research approach.

Particular attention is given to understanding a contemporary phenomenon in its natural context, especially when the boundaries between the phenomenon and the context are not clearly evident, i.e., parenting in Genadendal (Yin, 1994). The focus is on understanding the dynamics present in single settings (Eisenhardt, 1989). In the current case study, the

following contextual conditions were considered – culture; background; socio-economic factors; parenting practices, styles, and factors – with the view that these would be highly significant to the phenomenon under study (intergenerational transference of parenting).

The case study research design enlarges the research capacity and intensity of the explorative inquiries and interrelated outcomes (Yin, 2006). Furthermore, this research approach facilitates the exploration of a phenomenon within its natural context and allows the usage of various data sources (Yin, 2003). This ensures that the research subject area (intergenerational transference of parenting in Genadendal) is not limited but rather well explored accommodating multiple ways of expanding the exploration of a phenomenon like parenting, and the extent of information to be revealed and understood (Baxter & Jack, 2008).

Case study research is an appropriate research strategy where a contemporary phenomenon is to be studied in its natural context especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident," i.e., parenting in Genadendal (Yin, 1994), and when the focus is on understanding the dynamics present in single settings (Eisenhardt, 1989). In other words, a case study deliberately considers the contextual conditions, in this case; culture, background, socio-economic factors, parenting; practices, styles and factors, because it perceives these to be highly significant to the phenomenon under study, in this case, intergenerational transference of parenting.

Yin (1994) distinguishes three main types of case studies: exploratory, descriptive and explanatory. This research was predominantly an exploratory case study (but supported by descriptive quantitative data), aimed at exploring intergenerational parenting by considering the context in order to answer the research question that inquires "what" parenting factors (parenting styles and practices, quality parent-child relationship, warmth and strict control, parental knowledge) are intergenerationally transferred over time. The study also looked at "how" parenting is transferred intergenerationally. In this way, the case study is an ideal

methodology when a holistic, in-depth investigation is needed (Feagin, Orum & Sjoberg, 1991) which comprises different components to explore the 'what' and 'how' of the study (Yin, 1994). A case study research design was therefore used in this study, as it made provision for in-depth case study analysis, generating volumes of information, allowing for rich data to be elicited during the research process (Yin, 2006).

For case studies, five components of a research design are especially important, namely, the study's:

1. **Questions –** this component clarifies the nature of the study's questions.

2. **Propositions (if any) –** this component ensures that each proposition directs attention to something that should be examined within the scope of study.

3. **Unit(s) of analysis –** this component is related to the fundamental problem and seeks to define what the "case" is, for instance, in the classic case study, a "case" may be an individual, group, or community.

4. **Logic linking the data to the propositions –** this component is about the dynamics of a small group – understanding how the case study might relate to any broader body of knowledge and could include: pattern matching, explanation building, time-series analysis, logic models, and cross-case synthesis.

5. **Criteria for interpreting the findings –** this component suggests that statistical analyses offer some explicit criteria for such interpretations. A major and important alternative strategy is to identify and address opposing explanations for your findings. The actual analyses require that you combine or calculate your case study data as a direct reflection of your initial study propositions.

Case studies are therefore designed to elicit the viewpoints of the participants by using multiple sources of data collection and analyses to produce the research findings of the phenomena under study in a particular context.

4.1.8 The case and research setting: Contextualising Genadendal

A qualitative case study is considered context bound. It is therefore imperative to provide a detailed description of the case in order to contextualize the research problem (De Vos et.al., 2011). The case and research setting were discussed in Chapter 1.

4.1.9 Phases and stages of the study

This study is comprised of two phases namely; Phase one (1) and Phase two (2). Phase 1 of the study comprised two stages. Within these two stages the quantitative and qualitative data collection and analyses processes were induced sequentially. Phase 1, Stage 1 of the research process is empirical and quantitatively implemented, followed by Stage 2 which is explorative and focused qualitatively on in-depth interviewing through narratives. Phase 1 is focused on the descriptives of parenting styles and practices, while phase 2 is exploratory, focused on the intergenerational transference factors of parenting.

Both quantitative and qualitative data collection and analyses strategies were adopted within these phases, which are outlined below as follows:

Phase 1– Comprised of two stages:

Stage 1 – Quantitative data collection and analysis, and

Stage 2 – Qualitative data collection and analysis.

This phase was focused on exploring and describing parenting in order to understand parenting and the generational transference of parenting across three generations of families in Genadendal.

Phase 2 was focused on developing parenting guidelines through a consensus workshop that was conducted.

Table 4.2 below outlines the two sequential phases as mentioned above, along with the subsequent stages of data collection and analysis, and the related outputs reached.

Table 4.2 Phases and subsequent stages of data collection of the study

PHASE	STAGES – METHODOLOGICAL PROCESSES	OUTPUT
Phase 1	Stage 1- Quantitative data collection and analyses	Research results
	Stage 2- Qualitative data collection and analyses	Research results
Phase 2	Stage 1- Workshop	Develop guidelines

The research of the current study is illustrated by Phase 1, Stage 1 and Stage 2, consisting of the quantitative and quantitative research processes. Phase 2 is a workshop which allowed the researcher to gather the ideologies' and experiences of parents and professionals in the field of parenting. Phase 2 is presented in Chapter 8, as the workshop to developing guidelines based on the interpretative findings outlined in Chapters 5, 6 and 7 of the study. The following section outlines Phase 1, Stage 1 – Quantitative data collection and analysis. This will then be followed by Stage 2 (still Phase one) – Qualitative data collection and analyses. However, before these research processes are discussed, first a brief overview of the research context is provided below. This is related to the fact that a lengthy discussion has already been provided in Chapter 1 relating to the context of the location in which the study was conducted. The study location is discussed next to contextualise the background of the community that formulated the participants of the study.

4.1.10 Location of the study

The contexts of the qualitative and quantitative processes were both conducted in the same geographical location, namely a rural town and small community called 'Genadendal'. It is located 200 km outside of Cape Town, Western Cape, South Africa. Recently, it celebrated its 270th year of existence and has a residency of 3 500 registered occupants. Most of the residential occupants are unskilled workers; thus, unemployment remains a challenge especially for the younger generations. Furthermore, programmes for youth development is

required as many of the youth are loitering due to a lack of developmental activities directed toward uplifting the youth. Regardless of these shortfalls, this community is respectful and close-knit, even to the extent where generations of families remain in the community, reluctant in some instances to lose this heritage, connectedness and unique culture. Thus, this community of parents formed part of the study, as it has been existent for over two centuries, and therefore, due to its long existence in existence, has a rich; cultural, social, historical, political and economic history that has evolved over time to formulate the heritage of the community. This allows for the exploration of the evolvement of parenting over time in consideration of these socio-cultural, political and economic influences. This community further has a rare component as it has multigenerational families that are residing in the same geographical location for decades, and some families even have a fourth Generation (G4) cohort of parenting. For the purposes of this study only a three generational (G3) cohort was studied, to explore the transference of parenting between generations. This Moravian town with its rich cultural heritage, as well as multigenerational family composition (from G1 - G3), was found to be most suitable to conduct an intergenerational research study, complementing the nature and scope of the current study. Phase 1 of the study is presented next.

4.2 PHASE 1: FORMULATING THE PROBLEM

Parenting is a research domain receiving increase interest and investigation. This may be due to the reason that the field of parenting is continually evolving, which means that there are parenting continuities and discontinuities occurring within the parenting paradigm regarding parenting in terms of parenting styles and practices being performed which suggests that changes are taking place. Therefore, if changes are occurring it may suggest that the parenting practices of one generation may vary from the next generation. However, the extent of these changes occurring intergenerationally (between generations) and recognising

the influencing factors that contribute toward these changes of parenting within families are underexplored. The transference occurring within families in relation to the continuities or discontinuities parenting is undergoing within families thus remain limited, especially in a South African context. Thus, identifying the intergenerational parenting, changes and transference are occurring becomes the research scope of interest for this study. Furthermore, identifying a research location and study population that allows for the exploration of such a scope of study was essential to establish the parenting components being upheld and preserved across generations, or discarded by future upcoming generations of parents. As this community would have had to show multiple generations of parenting, as well as opportunities to explore the intergenerational factors of parenting transferred between generations.

Therefore, the parenting community of Genadendal became the core focus of this study. This community has a very uncommon component related to parenting, which allows for such an unchartered research scope to be explored. This was evident from previous research conducted in 2012 by the University of the Western Cape, which focused on the 'narratives of the elderly' of the community. It was discovered that this community has multigenerational families that are residing in the same geographical location, some of the families are two Generations (G2), and others are a three or four (G4) Generation cohort of families. These families are born and reared in the same area in which they continue to rear, nurture, and care for their children and grandchildren. Therefore, this community of parents was considered ideal for an in-depth exploration and understanding of the evolvement of parenting practices, as well as describing the progressive continuities and discontinuities of parenting transferred intergenerationally between three generations of families that formulated the research domain.

The next section outlines the stages linked to the objectives of the study.

Stage 1 comprises the quantitative components of the research process outlined below.

4.2.1 Stage 1: Quantitative components

The following section, Stage 1, is linked to these two objectives of the study:

Objective 1: Determine and explore the parenting factors (parenting styles and practices skills, teachings, practices, styles, performs, quality parent-child relationship, warmth and strict control, parental knowledge) of generations in Genadendal.

Objective 3: Compare the parenting factors across generations in Genadendal.

These objectives formulated the quantitative objectives of the study. The following section outlines the quantitative components of the study.

4.2.1.1 *Study population*

The study population of this research process included all the available parents, inclusive of gender categories to include (both male and female), regardless of marital status, age, ethnicity, race, and socio-economic status, who are currently parenting (rearing children) and residing in the Genadendal area. The sample was selected (drawn) from this entire population (De Vos et al., 2012). from which the researcher makes specific analyses and related conclusions (Welman, Kruger & Mitchell, 2006). Participants were males and females; between the ages of 15–85 years of age; residing in Genadendal. The recruitment process (described further below) allowed for the participation of a diverse group of respondents varying in age, gender, and educational levels. The majority of the participants were Coloured (mixed race), as Genadendal is predominantly a Coloured community. The educational levels of participants varied from little to no schooling and extended to having degrees. The same questions - questionnaire (this aspect will be further discussed under research instrument) were administered to all the participants, considering language

proficiency and literacy levels. Thus, the questionnaire was designed in both English and

Afrikaans to accommodate the language preference of participants to be able to participate.

Participants who were unable to read or write were assisted, and participants were allowed to

ask questions for clarity. The researcher remained sensitive to their needs. This allowed for

wide-range participation of low to high socio-economic and low to high education levels of

participants. This process allowed for information gathering on the parenting experiences and

factors of parenting relating to the intergenerational phenomena being reviewed.

4.2.1.2 Sampling: Random Convenient Sampling

For the purpose of this study random convenient sampling was used. It is a method that relies

on data collection from population members who are conveniently available to participate in

the study (Saunders & Townsend, 2018). Within this phase, the sample size of the population

was formulated; the sample size was met by participants who engaged in the research process

and completed the questionnaire successfully.

1.1.1.1.1 Sampling Criteria

The inclusion criteria for participants in the quantitative study were as follows.

Participants had to be:

(1) A parent;

(2) Parenting in Genadendal;

(3) Residing in Genadendal;

(4) Interested in building and sharing their knowledge and experiences of parenting;

(5) Willing to complete the questionnaire.

To select participants for the study came with some ease, as there were many

available residences, some were housewives, or unemployed parents that were at home and

readily available to participate. The participants were approached individually and explained

the purpose and process of the current research study. Participants were then encouraged through the process of the research instrument to share their information. A prepared package was given to each participant that included the information sheet, consent form and parenting questionnaire to peruse and to make an informed decision whether to participate.

1.1.1.1.2   Sample size

The sample consisted of 75 participants engaged in the quantitative research process, although the initial aim was to reach more participants. However, data saturation was reached at 75 participants, as it was then difficult to find participants to participate. The core reason for this limitation was the fact that many parents were seasonal workers, working away from home on neighbouring farms, or in the City. Thus, the aspect of employment impacted on this study, making it difficult to reach the intended quota. Therefore, difficulty was experienced in exceeding this amount of 75 participants. The implications for a relatively small sample are further discussed as limitations in Chapter 9 of the study.

1.1.1.1.3   Sampling procedure

Parent participants were approached individually and explained the purpose and process of the study. Each participant was given a prepared research package that consisted of the study information sheet, consent form, and questionnaire. This afforded interested participants an opportunity to peruse the questionnaire in order to make an informed decision of whether to participate. By means of the research instrument, they were encouraged to share their information. The method of data collection is explained further below.

4.2.1.3 Instrument: Questionnaire

A questionnaire was used for this part of the study. Section (A) of the questionnaire was constructed to include demographical information. Section (B) included a set of collated

parenting measuring parenting scales, namely, Parent Measuring Instrument, Parental Efficiency Instrument, Parental Bonding Instrument, Parents as Social Context and Parenting questionnaire (4 dimensions). A structured questionnaire was developed and distributed to a sample population of 75 participants in the smaller groups in the Genadendal area.

This research method would require that the study offer statistical descriptions and inferences and try to prove or disprove hypotheses for resultant relationships between the variables of the study (Bless, Higson-Smith & Kagee, 2006). A questionnaire was used for the quantitative method to present the associations, changes, and transmitted parenting factors between generations over time.

4.2.1.4 Administering *of the questionnaire*

A questionnaire was administered to the above identified group of participants. The items on the questionnaire were itemised from A–H, namely: A) Parenting Styles and Practices; B) Parental self-efficacy; C) The Parenting Ladder by Richards (1998); D) TOPSE : Self –Efficacy – adapted by Metzler and Jones (2007), from Pratt, McGuigan, and Katzev (2000), and Katzev (2000); E) Parents as social context questionnaire (PARENT–REPORT) – adapted from an earlier version of Parents as Social Context Questionnaire (Skinner, Regan & Wellborn, 1986); F) Parent-Child Communication Questionnaire; G) Rosenberg Self Esteem Scale (by Rosenberg, 1965); and H) Questions About Your Relationship with your child as parent.

The questionnaire included an indemnity form and information sheet. This allowed participants to read their rights to privacy, confidentiality, and provided a detailed information sheet of the study and possible questions participants may have pertaining to the purpose and intention of the study, as well as the aftermath of the results. The questionnaire was translated into both English and Afrikaans to accommodate all the language comprehension of all the partipants.

4.2.1.5 Data collection

There are different ways to collect data relating to an issue under study. These different ways of data collection form the technique used. Qualitative research methods are designed in a way that they expose the behaviours and perceptions with relevance to a particular topic (Hesse-Biber & Leavy, 2011). However, to achieve this, different research methods are considered in relation to the processes and research strategy.

The **data collection** process for this stage occurred in two ways: (1) door-to-door data collection, and (2) at various centres within the community, i.e., Aged Centre, Disability Centre, ACVV, Library, and Clinic Questionnaires were administered to interested persons. But first the purpose and components of the study were explained so that they could make an informed decision of whether to participate. This same process was repeated at the centres and at the participants' homes. The following challenges were encountered: Due to the low education levels of some of the participants, itemised questions had to be read and explained. Thus, an oral questionnaire was administrated, so participants could make an informed selection of the categorised Likert scale options, which were completed on their behalf. The positives were that the questionnaires were translated into both English and Afrikaans, and thus, depending on the participants preference, could be conducted in both languages. This facilitated the process as the participants' language preferences varied.

The environment also had to be considered. Questionnaires were administered in the homes of the participants (door-to-door); at the different organisations; and very few were conducted informally on the streets to participants who showed an interest. Questionnaires thus were administered individually (one-on-one) to avoid intrusion and meddlesome of other community folk. Most questionnaires conducted allowed for a sit-down process, as well as privacy, discretion, and the freedom to ask questions without feeling intimidated. Stationary

was also provided, such as pens, as well as an information sheet as a handout for further follow up questions pertaining to the research in which they partook.

The questionnaire was time consuming and lengthy, taking 20-30 minutes to complete. Nevertheless, participants were accommodating, patient, and willing to complete the process.

The distance between some of the areas in Genadendal required driving in order to administer the questionnaire on a larger scale.

This was done to be inclusive and reach as many participants as soon as possible. In that there are various classes in this community, for example, a sub-area called Kersie Dorp, which is an RDP informal type settlement. The process of identifying participants took place over a few weeks, and ensured accessibility of various parents, such as the farm workers and city working parents. The questionnaires were thus conducted at different times – during the week, weekends, and school holiday period. This provided working class and non-working-class parents in Genadendal the opportunity to participate in the study. An appointment was also made with the Aged centre, and participants were voluntarily agreed to participate, which allowed for more aged parents to participate. At the clinic, other age groups of parents were reached, for instance, young single mothers visiting the clinic with their infants.

4.2.1.6 Data analysis

The objective of this phase was to collect quantitative data in the community of Genadendal using a questionnaire as a means of inquiry to obtain data on parents' experiential experiences of parenting. This phase allowed for a more statistical data focused process. The data was entered, coded, cleaned, and analysed by means of the Statistical Package in the Social Sciences (SPSS) to provide information in terms of percentages, frequencies, means, standard deviation, and correlations. This was used to describe the characteristics of the sample to determine the significance of the nature of parents'

experiences and intergenerational relationships. The Pearson correlation was used to establish relationships or associations between the variables based on the nature and characteristics of the variables. Dependant t-tests were used to compare parents' perceptions of their parent's parenting practices.

4.2.1.7 Validity and reliability

The validity of a measure establishes whether the instrument measures what it's intended to measure. Balnaves and Caputi (2001) identify three kinds of validity: construct, internal, and external validity. This study focused on *construct validity*, as it is the extent to which one's constructs are successfully operationalised and represent the phenomenon under study (Balnaves & Caputi, 2001). This was portrayed in relation to the instruments chosen to measure intergenerational parenting, which allowed the researcher to draw conclusions about the associations between variables (*internal validity*) and ensure that the sample was a genuine representative of the population from which it was drawn (*external validity*). Additionally, the psychometric properties reliability testing was applied using an established measure – the Cronbach's alpha – a test reliability technique that requires only a single test administration to provide a unique estimate of the reliability for a given test (Gliem & Gliem, 2003).

Reliability of a measure refers to participants obtaining the same score on a measure if it is repeated (Evans & Rooney, 2011). This is usually achieved by the application of a pilot study that assists in measuring the reliability of the instrument being used as a test-retest method was intended. However, due to the limited number of participants (75) that completed the questionnaires, a second round of questionnaires were not administered. Data saturation was reached among the residents as well as stakeholder venue. In addition, although approached many potential participants were hesitant to participate, perhaps due to feeling threatened, exposed, or vulnerable by sharing personal information with an unknown

researcher. Despite the researcher walking from door-to-door for data collection, the number of participants did not improve. Disappointingly, there was a low return rate of questionnaires. The limitation of this process reduced the generalisability of the findings. The case study research design also made it less reliable on the quantitative findings.

The following section encompasses Phase 1, Stage 2 the qualitative data collection and analysis section of the study.

4.2.2   Stage 2: Qualitative components

The following **objectives** were addressed during this stage:

Objective 2: Explore the intergenerational transference of parenting factors (parenting styles and practices, skills, teachings, practices, styles, performs, quality parent-child relationship, warmth and strict control, parental knowledge) in Genadendal.

Objective 3: Compare the parenting factors across generations in Genadendal;

Objective 4: Explore the contributing factors towards intergenerational transference of parenting factors over time in Genadendal.

This stage allowed for thematic analysis to take place, whereby data was categorised into themes, sub-themes, and categories. This was followed by the identification and interpretation of the findings, which were then discussed in relation to the objectives of the study. During the analysis process, the qualitative data was prioritised, and the subsequent findings were incorporated in the interpretation of the study (Creswell, & Plano Clark, 2017).

This study followed an in-sequence design to progressively collect data. The explanatory processes for the qualitative data collection and analysis were then followed by a quantitative data collection and analysis process (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2017). It is worth noting the strengths and weaknesses of this approach. The strength of combining methods is that it follows two distinct separate stages to implement. This makes the design easy to describe and the result easy to report on. The weakness, however, is that it requires a

considerable length of time to complete all the data collection given that two separate phases

must be conducted, and findings processed (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2017).

4.2.2.1 Study population

For this study, the study population, that formed the total quantity of the cases that

shaped the subject of the research, were three case families consisting of three generations,

namely: Family A, Family B and Family C, G1, G2 and G3 (Creswell et al., 2013). Study

participants included males and females; aged between 18 to 85 years; Coloured people;

residing within the Genadendal area; family members inclusive of three generations, namely,

G1-grandmother, G2-mother, and G3-grandchild. These three generations of participants

were all from the same family lineage. Participants were required to belong to a parenting

generation of three generations of parenting in Genadendal.

The citizens of the Genadendal community comprised the population of this study. A

sample of nine (9) participants voluntarily participated and contributed to the findings of this

study. This study reflects on the parenting experiences of a small group of citizens (1) over

the age of 18 years, (2) who are parents, that, (3) grew up in and are still residing in

Genadendal. *Purposive sampling* was applied, as participants were specifically required to

belong to a parenting generation of three generations of parents, parenting and residing in

Genadendal.

4.2.2.2 Sampling

For the qualitative Phase 1, Stage 2 of the study, a sample of the entire population was

identified for participation. ***Purposeful sampling*** was used to conduct the semi-structured

interviews with the parents from intergenerational lineage families. Purposeful sampling is

generally used in case study research. Therefore, for the purposes of this study three (3)

family cases were selected to form nine (9) participants' collectively; Subjective methods were used to determine inclusion elements in the sample.

Non-probability sampling was used, as it's a sampling technique where the samples are gathered in a process that does not give all the participants in the population equal chance of being included.

A *purposive, non-probability sampling method* was used to select the participants of this study. Purposive sampling follows a series of strategic choices concerning with whom, where, and how to conduct one's research (Given, 2008). Inclusion criteria may include specialist knowledge of the research issue, or capacity and willingness to participate in the research (Oliver, 2006). The sampling technique used depends on the type, nature, and purpose of the study. For purposive sampling, a researcher has something in mind, and participants that suit the purpose of the study are included.

The sample – From the above population, three (3) families across three (3) generations were selected: 1st generation grandparents (N=3); 2nd generation children (N=3); and 3rd generation grandchildren (N=3), whom are all part of one larger family.

Therefore, parents and grandparents (participants) within families in the Genadendal area were purposefully sampled with the focus of reporting on intergenerational parenting and the context of their background influences. The population size N=10 000 included: infants, children, youth, parents, elderly – from this, a sample of parents n= 9 were drawn. Participants were approached and asked to voluntarily participate in the process of data collection. This process involved conducting in-depth semi-structured interviews with the purpose of exploring their (parents) experiences with regard to parenting practices. It is essential to firstly identify the inclusion criteria for these participants as the data collection content is specific to the research social phenomenon of parenting.

4.2.2.3 Sampling inclusion criteria

The inclusion criteria for the participants in the qualitative study were as follows. Participants had to:

(1) Be part of a family that has three generations (G1, G2, G3) residing in Genadendal.

(2) Have experienced parenting from the previous generation, their parents.

(3) Be interested in building and sharing their knowledge and experiences of parenting.

(4) Be willing to participate in the research by participating in the interview process.

Similarly, to the quantitative research processes meetings were arranged with stakeholders (the UWC fieldworker, priest, community workers, principal, and school teachers) to discuss the aims and objectives of this phase of the study, and to request assistance in identifying suitable participants. The stakeholders assisted in identifying suitable families. Initially, six (6) suitable families were identified. After conducting a preliminary interview with all of these families, the researcher made contact telephonically and by home visits to enquire about their interest in participating in the study. Formal meetings were then arranged with the potential families and each individual to explain what the research study encompasses and the expectations for participation. This was done to meet the criterion of identifying suitable candidates of three generational families. This was an intense process. Eventually, after interviews and consultations with the identified families, four (4) families were found to be suitable for the process, three (3) of which were finally selected to participate.

Each family member was contacted, and interviews scheduled. In some instances, the interview was conducted over more than one day due to the length and intensity of the interviews. Also, the emotional state of the participants was considered and the associations

that gave meaning to their parenting experiences. Such as pictures, momentums, life stories, and so forth. The participants were thus approached individually and explained the purpose and process of the current research study. They were then encouraged by means of the interviewing tool to share their experience and parenting information. A prepared package was given to each participant, which included the information sheet, consent form and questionnaire, to peruse to make an informed decision of whether to participate.

Sample size

Phase 1, Stage 2: Three (3) samples of three (3) generations of parenting across three (3) different families living in the same community were explored n=9 (3x3=9 people).

    i.   Family 1= 1st generation+2nd generation +3rd generation parenting

    ii.   Family 2=1st generation+2nd generation +3rd generation parenting

    iii.   Family 3=1st generation+2nd generation +3rd generation parenting

4.2.2.4 Data collection method

A **semi-structured interview schedule** that comprised of 35 questions were collated around the aspects and practices of parenting which was used for the qualitative part (Phase 1- Stage 2) of the study. These questions formulated the basis for the interview process and were used to create a dialogue and elicit information about the participants' unique experiences of parenting. The interviews conducted took a few hours to complete, sometimes even more than a day, as participants also showed photos and other precious momentums to demonstrate their successes as a parent. It was therefore difficult to conduct more than one interview a day without compromising the essence of the whole process and meeting its set objectives.

The interviews were conducted with both male and female participants, ranging in ages: G1 were between 65 - 85 years; G2 were between 40 - 65years; and G3 were between

19 - 35years. Parents were able to answer the questions posed with ease and gave detailed and engaged responses. Furthermore, if necessary, the researcher would explain and unpack terms or questions. The interview schedule was also provided in English and Afrikaans, which made it easy to converse with participants.

The intent of these processes of this study was to conduct narrative interviews with participants in Genadendal. Thus, interviews were used to elicit information from participants through narratives and dialogue conducted with participants.

The qualitative phase used a semi-structured interview schedule. The interview schedule consisted of a list of 35 questions formulated around the factors, practices and styles of parenting experienced in households and the community. This facilitated the exploration of the respondents' experiences, practices and understandings of parenting.

In preparation of the data collection process, the researcher scheduled an appointment with the community fieldworker in Genadendal, 'Mr Jo', who took the researcher on an excursion to get an overview of the town, its history, and to meet the different phenomenal role players of the town, as well as to help find three (3) families who would fit the criterion of the three (3) generations of parenting required to formulate the case study – qualitative process of narrative study. Once suitable families were identified – six (6) families in total in Genadendal composed of three (3) generations. The families and their three (3) generations were respectively approached to request their participation in the study. Upon each visit, the researcher explained the purpose, content, aims, and objectives of the study. To ensure that participation was voluntary, and participation was based on informed consent, the researcher allowed the prospective participants to ask questions for clarification. After these processes were concluded, only three (3) families were found suitable. The next section outlines the processes that were conducted within the data collection processes.

4.2.2.5 The Pilot of the Study

A pilot study was conducted during the case study data collection processes. Six (6) case studies were identified for the case study. One of these six (6) families formed part of the pilot study. The data collection and analysis process were used. The pilot study allowed for notable amendments to be made to the interview schedule, as the first interview sessions with the G1 participants took nearly four (4) hours, with only a few questions being answered. Therefore, this process allowed for the interview schedule to be revisited and shortened, and the interview questions to be reframed and condensed and aligned with the objectives of the study. With the G2 and G3 participants, the researcher observed that the participants preferred to converse in Afrikaans. So, the semi-structured questions were translated and rephrased so that the final interview schedule was more accurately aligned to the literature. In addition, the wording (jargon) had to be simplified and the structure of the questions revisited to accommodate the literacy and language preference of the participants. Consequently, the researcher designed the research questionnaire of the next phase also into an Afrikaans version to accommodate both language preferences. (see Appendix C and G for the final semi-structured interview schedule, and Appendix D and H for the English and Afrikaans translations of the questionnaire). The first stage of analysis was conducted with the Atlas Ti programme. However, the findings were very cumbersome and the researcher experienced difficulty using this specific programme, even after attending a training session. So alternatively, Tesch's eight steps of coding and formulating categorical themes was used in the data analysis. Therefore, this pilot process enhanced the further implementation of the research processes in order to answer the research question and objectives of the study.

4.2.2.6 Data collection process

This section describes the data collection procedures. During the data collection process handwritten field notes taken during the interviews were used to manually record

data along with a digital voice recorder. Precautionary measures were followed to ensure that the venue prepared was conducive for the interviewing process as well as the equipment (i.e. voice recorder) was fully functional and in good working condition. This enabled the process of data triangulation, i.e., data from voice recordings are used to validate data from field notes (Tobin & Begley, 2004). Preliminary, two pilot semi-structured individual interviews were conducted to detect probable errors during the data collection process.

4.2.2.7 Data analysis

An independent coder was arranged for the qualitative data analysis. The data consisted of three transcripts from the three case studies that formulated the multiple cases for analyses. The data represented the semi-structured in-depth interviews conducted with the nine (9) participants of the case unit. The framework for qualitative research by Tesch (1990), as described by Creswell (2007), was used to identify the themes, sub-themes, and categories of the study. Then the data was allocated with verbatim quotations in support from participants under each relevant theme, sub-theme, and category. The data obtained from the different sample groups were analysed separately per participant and then per family. This was done in an effort to integrate the data into a collective storyline to show consistency or inconsistency in and across generations: G1, G2, and G3. *Triangulation* was done as part of the data verification process in order to map out and explain fully through the use of a variety of to collect data on the same topic. The research methods thus allowed for different approaches which brought forth different informational data, and this data generated allows one to identify, ascertain, categorise and recognise different aspects of the phenomena being reviewed and studied through a process of data triangulation (Heale & Forbes, 2013).

4.2.2.8 Triangulation

Triangulation is a method used to understand the phenomena being studied. Methodological triangulation was used to check the validity of this study. This was done to

triangulate the qualitative and quantitative data findings of the study, allowing for cross-validation. Triangulation is advantageous for the research process (Heale & Forbes, 2013) as it brings together different aspects of a research area by viewing the research methods and techniques used to unpack the research findings (Heale & Forbs, 2013). This allows for more accuracy and depth in the information gathered and, in the research, projected. Therefore, the analysis process of the information from the various methods (techniques) is advantageous to successful triangulation. Thus, using different approaches are complementary. However, the strengths and weakness of each method must be considered carefully throughout the analysis process. The use of the combined data collection techniques (techniques) is to acquire knowledge claims on pragmatic grounds (Creswell, 2007). However, the stance adopted is taken that the research undertaken is of such importance that the researcher is encouraged to use varied approaches to understand the research (Creswell, 2007). "A reciprocal approach between quantitative and qualitative methods is subject to the rational of abductive reasoning" (Morgan (2007, p. 71), which means that the approach interchanges between deductive and inductive reasoning. For example, the qualitative and quantitative sections of this study focused on different areas of research. A case study design within which both qualitative and quantitative research methods of data collection were used to explore intergenerational transference of parenting within the community of Genadendal. This allowed parenting to be investigated in its natural context with a multitude of methods and to be contemporary (Yin 1994; Merriam 1994; Stake 1995, 1998; Huberman & Miles, 1994; Gillham; 2000).

This study was therefore aimed at obtaining an in-depth understanding of parenting, with a specific focus on exploring intergenerational parenting in Genadendal with the purpose of developing guidelines for parents and practitioners. The research questions guided the

methodology of the study and subjectively directed the actionable research process, data collection, and analyses processes (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2017).

A qualitative, exploratory and contextual case design was followed in this phase to gain insight into parenting across generations and over time. Qualitative research explores how and why people behave the way they do (Swift & Tischler, 2010). A narrative approach was used by encouraging storytelling, which invites people to dialogue and share personal stories to jointly assess, deconstruct, and reconstruct old meanings, and create new meanings (Rosen & Kuehlwein, 1996). The process of data collection and analysis was guided by one or more open ended research questions and a process of inductive inquiry was used. Therefore, the qualitative element employed interviews and storytelling research methods by means of interviews, field notes, and conversations. The data collected from the qualitative phase allowed the researcher to advance to the quantitative instrument. Thus, this research method required that the study offer dialogues of the participants from their respective families through the in-depth interviews conducted in the study (Bless, Higson-Smith & Kagee, 2006). The qualitative method was used to present the parenting – experiences, information, and transmitted parenting factors between generations over time.

This phase was interconnected with the other phases of the study, namely, Phase 1 – Quantitative, and Phase 3 – a Workshop, which comprised part of the larger case study analyses. Furthermore, the qualitative phase added to the larger context of the study, as it allowed information about parenting to be gathered in a purposive manner with parents who are part of a family of over three generations of parents.

The information that was gathered through the interviews was captured, coded, and transcribed according to the data collected from the participants to produce readable transcriptions. The data was then organised, categorised, and meaningfully reduced (Miles and Huberman, 1994). Thereafter, the information was reviewed for comparisons,

similarities, and dissimilarities to search for patterns and construct themes in relation to pre-established study questions. Qualitative modes of data analysis provide ways of discerning, examining, comparing, and interpreting meaningful patterns or emerging themes (Berkowitz, 1996). Thereafter, the data was singled out for description according to principles of selectivity. This usually involves some combination of deductive and inductive analysis, inducing new meanings from the data available. These categories were then retrieved and discussed in terms of the findings shown and supported by a literature review with the aim to develop parenting guidelines.

4.2.2.9 Trustworthines

Trustworthiness means that the findings are true and credible adding value to the study (Creswell, 1998). Therefore, trustworthiness relates to the confidence the researcher has regarding the findings, research design, participants and the context in relation to the study (Krefting, 1991). Trustworthiness is established when findings as closely as possible reflect the meanings as described by the participants (Lietz, 2010). Trustworthiness was ensured by the researcher's practice of interviewing skills, such as probing, clarifying, focusing, and summarising throughout the qualitative data collection process. Therefore, the study's findings are a true reflection of the participants' understandings and experiences of parenting and intergenerational transference of parenting.

Trustworthiness is further evaluated by a) creditability, b) dependability, c) conformability, and d) transferability (Lincoln & Guba 1990; Graneheim & Lundman, 2004). Participants were treated with respect and dignity adhering to the following principles to protect their rights as outlined below:

Credibility - concerns establishing that the results of the research are believable regarding accuracy of findings, such as data triangulation, triangulation through multiple analysts, and 'member checks' (Lincoln & Guba 1990). The participants were revisited and

consulted to verify the results and confirm the findings. They were also part of the process of formulating the parenting guidelines. This was achieved through the parenting workshop guidelines that allowed for a process to validate the results presented in the workshop.

Dependability - ensures that the research findings are consistent, and if repeated in the same context, with the same methods and with the same participants, similar results would be obtained (Lincoln & Guba, 1990). Dependability was maintained by thoroughly reporting the research methods and techniques to allow an external researcher to understand the methods, repeat the inquiry, and achieve similar results.

Confirmability - questions how the research findings are supported by the data collected to establish whether the researcher has been biased (Lincoln & Guba, 1990). The study's confirmability was ensured by an audit trail which was retained throughout the research process to document procedures and to demonstrate how each decision was made for example, regarding raw data and analyses notes.

Transferability - refers to the degree to which the research can be transferred and applicable to other contexts and settings (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Transferability was maintained by recording a detailed description of the situation and methods, so as not to generalise parenting within Genadendal to all societies but to confine it to small multigenerational communities.

Additional strategies of trustworthiness included prolonged engagement, triangulation, peer debriefing, and reflexivity (Creswell, 1998, 2007):

Prolonged engagement – the research processes of this study took place over three (3) years. During this time period, the researcher formed strong bonds, relations, and rapport with the community – stakeholders and participants – which was advantageous to the research and the related processes, as accessibility to community members and resources became easier as well as gaining trust for the sharing of information. In addition, the

researcher became more familiar with the community's traditions and culture, and thus adopted an approach that showed sensitivity and respect for the participants' beliefs, stances and mannerisms. This inadvertently positively affected the depth, transparency and honesty in relating information pertaining to the research phenomenon under study. However, a negative aspect to consider is that the participants may have felt threatened, exposed or vulnerable sharing personal information, and thus not disclose to the same extent as to an unknown researcher, estranged to the community.

Triangulation was conducted as a means of establishing the true meaning using a combination of research methods – use of qualitative and quantitative methods in the case study design; member checking through peer debriefing was also done.

Peer debriefing is a process whereby the researcher discusses the research process and findings with supervisors and colleagues with more experience in the domain of study (Krefting, 1991). This strategy in qualitative methods affords the researcher a strategy to account for honest opinion and input to further proceed as well as to search for new notions through questions prompted to deepen understanding of the data analyses (Lincoln & Guba, 1990).In this regard, regular supervision sessions were held with supervisors, which provided insight into the interpretations and findings based on consensus with the supervisors reached.

Self-reflexivity – Researchers often select a topic that is aligned to their personal and professional research interests (Creswell, 2007). Objectivity should therefore be employed in selecting a research topic or area. Personal interest is not enough to undertake the research. The domain of study must be researchable and there must be an identifiable 'gap' in the literature to address a need (Babbie & Mouton, 2001). In terms of self-reflexivity, a comprehensive literature search was conducted where literature and previous studies consulted validated the topic under study and it was considered necessary and feasible.

Reflexivity is important as it allows the researcher to consider all procedures of the research process and the possible negative and positive impact on participants and the study. Horsburgh (2003, p. 308) agrees by stating that reflexivity involves "active acknowledgement by the researcher that his/her actions and decisions will inevitably impact upon the meaning and context of the experience of the study". Therefore, it is important to consider the participants' involvements and any possible effects on the participants during the research processes, and to subsequently put mechanisms (like counselling support services) in place to support these foreseeable challenges that may arise.

4.2.2.10   *Ethical considerations*

Once permission was obtained, information sheets were provided outlining information pertaining to the study, along with a consent form that needed to be completed. The participants were informed in terms of the process and purpose of the research, and thus completed a written consent form for their voluntary participation. The contact details of the researcher and the supervisors were clearly indicated on the consent form. This form was then separated from the questionnaire to safeguard anonymity.

Participation in the research process was completely voluntary. Parents were informed about their rights to refuse participation and their freedom to withdraw from the research process at any point. This was also outlined in the consent form and study information sheet provided.

Acquired information was securely stored, as each survey was coded with a number instead of a name for identification purposes during the process of data analysis, ensuring confidentiality and safeguarding the identities of participants. Further support was made available for participants affected in any way during the research process, however no one required this service provided.

This concludes the aspects of true value of research. The following section focuses on the next phase of the study Phase 2 which encompasses the development of the guidelines.

4.3 PHASE 2: DEVELOPING THE GUIDELINES

A workshop was held to verify the collected data and develop guidelines for parents and practitioners. The workshop was used to present and distribute the preliminary guidelines and obtain parent's responses and feedback. This was done to develop the final guidelines based on the parents' approval and input provided.

The workshop formed Phase 2 of the research study. A workshop is described as a "short educational programme to teach or introduce participants to practical skills, techniques or ideas which they can use in their work or daily lives" (https://ctb.ku.edu/en/table-of-contents/structure/training-and-technical-assistance/workshops/main). Common features of workshops include: (1) they are usually small (comprise, 6 - 15 participants), (2) they allow every person to voice their opinions, and (3) they are conducted with people who have a real experience of the subject under discussion (https://ctb.ku.edu/en/table-of-contents/structure/training-and-technical-assistance/workshops/main). There were twenty-three (23) participants who participated in this study. The participants contributed positively to the workshop, as they participated actively and influenced the direction of the workshop, data findings and conclusions regarding the formulation and compilation of the study guidelines. Furthermore, the workshop was held in two ways:(a) formally - with a presenter presenting the findings and preliminary guidelines on parenting, and (b) informally - to allow participants to add to the guidelines through the group discussions that took place. The workshop was held in a one-day session and conducted over a period of four (4) hours. The workshop was self-contained with handouts and then ended with suggestions from parents for improvements to the presented preliminary guidelines workbook. There are three phases to conducting a workshop: planning, preparation and implementation

The objectives of Phase 2 are outlined as follows:

Objective 5 – Develop guidelines for parents and practitioner to improve parenting in Genadendal.

The next section discussed the research process of the study

4.3.1 Population

The population for this section of the research study were any parents living in Genadendal that were available and had accessibility to the venue.

4.3.2 Study Participants

Participants of the workshop included parents residing in Genadendal; the participating ratio were both males and females; varying in ages, language proficiencies, and occupations. Parents were formally invited to participate in the workshop. Participation was voluntary upon consent received. To ensure maximum participation, flyers and posters were printed, outlining all the identifying information about the workshop. Flyers were then distributed to as many people as possible through a walk about process in the community, including parents, via-door-to-door distribution; community members - both higher and lower social class; schoolchildren to give to their parents; and various centres, including the clinic, the aged centre, the Child Welfare organisation and Mind Over Matter disability centre, aimed at inviting both the parents and professionals to attend and participate in the workshop. In total, 23 participants participated in the workshop.

4.3.3   Data collection

During the implementation of the workshop, several tools aided in the data collection process, namely: whiteboard and writing resources, tape recorders, research assistant, observations, field notes, and the workbook.

1. At the commencement of the workshop, the researcher provided an introduction and briefing of the purpose of the workshop and an overview of the study. This was followed by an ice-breaker activity. A **whiteboard** and **colourful markers** were used to write up and record the participants' views of the ice-breaker activity sharing their broad ideas and conceptions on parenting. This process recorded the participants' broad views of parenting.

2. Following the induction, participants were informed that the workshop findings would be used to inform the study's findings of the previous phases already conducted. After obtaining permission **multiple tape recorders** were used to record the round table-group discussion sessions, which were later used during the translations and transcriptions data analysis processes.

3. A **research assistant** was appointed to assist the researcher during the workshop. Assistance was provided in the form of **observations, field notes,** and the **scribing** of the session. This ensured a manual record of the discussions and engagements of the participants.

4. The researcher developed a **workbook** comprised of the data findings of the qualitative and quantitative research processes, and presented the findings in the form of a workbook that was presented as parenting guidelines. Participants were provided with a copy of the workbook and required to share in the discussion groups their views, ideas, approvals, and disapprovals of the presenting guidelines. The collective feedback obtained was then reworked into the final parenting guidelines for parents and professionals, which is presented in Chapter 8 of this study.

4.3.4   Data collection procedure

A workshop was selected as the most appropriate method to present the findings of Phase 1, Stage 1 and Stage 2, and Phase 2, and the emerged parenting guidelines. Workshops provide (a) a way to create an intensive educational experience in a short amount of time; (b) a platform for a new concept to be introduced and investigated, and encourages the practice of methods and skills; (c) a platform for colleagues to share ideas and methods; (d) as well as creates a sense of community or common purpose among participants (Community Tool Box, n.d.). This shows that workshops may be designed to reach both professionals and participants to generate and validate the information. It is for these reasons that the workshop method was selected to demonstrate the knowledge generated of the 'new' concept and findings concerning intergenerational transference of parenting to both parents and professionals.

The processes leading up to the workshop included the quantitative data collection, transcription and analysis processes. As well as the qualitative data collection, transcriptions, and analysis processes. The data was converged to allow the researcher to compare the results from the quantitative and qualitative data and to use qualitative research to help explain quantitative findings (Creswell, 2007). After the quantitative and qualitative data were merged, and the data connected workshop guidelines could be informed. The data results and findings of both the Phase 1, Stage 1 – quantitative, and Stage 2 - qualitative processes were then analysed, informing the preliminary guidelines for parents and professionals that formulated the workshop. The data were thus embedded to allow for Phase 2 of the research - the workshop - to take place and to present the parenting guidelines.

To conduct a workshop required effective planning and several preparations to present the developed guidelines. These steps followed are outlined below:

Venue for the workshop - community centre was used, as it was spacious; blocked out noise barriers; was furnished with comfortable tables and chairs; provided an interactive environment that promoted engaged discussions; and was also aligned with the educational purposes of developing the guidelines, making it conducive and suitable.

Community workers were telephonically contacted to (a) inform them about the workshop and the intended processes, and (b) arrange the workshop (venue, date, and time). Two weeks before the workshop, community workers were requested to invite parents to attend. The researcher arrived in Genadendal three days prior to the workshop being held during which she canvassed further support of stakeholders and recruited the participation of as many parents as possible.

The **materials** that were needed are discussed under 'data collection tools' above. The researcher conducted the role of a facilitator by facilitating discussions among the groups of participants. A research assistant acted as a scribe and kept field notes. This format enhanced more efficient and effective small group discussion and learning.

A workshop presentation was designed to promote scholarly work of parenting and provide parents with an opportunity to contribute toward the improvement and development of parenting guidelines.

Data was collected through the process of conducting a **workshop**. The workshop was conducted in two parts: **Part A** introduced the researcher and the scope of the study, and provided an overview of the workshop. This was followed by an ice-breaker activity where participants were given the opportunity to complete the following statement: 'omdat ek 'n ouer is, is ek…?' (Because I am a parent, I am…?)'Responses included that they are strong, patient, loving, caring, and so forth. This process allowed for interaction to occur through participants' shared experiences. **Part B** presented the preliminary guidelines. An informative PowerPoint **presentation** was designed to provide information and report on the research

progress. The type of presentation held is termed "Arousing", with the purpose of the presentation to make people think about a certain problem or situation, in this instance parenting and the related findings that informed the preliminary guidelines.

This was done to promote the scholarly work of parenting and provide parents with an opportunity to contribute toward the improvement and development of parenting guidelines. The presentation consisted of the following components: it introduced the researcher and the topic; described the purpose of the research study; presented the understanding of parenting to include the different styles and practices of parenting; presented an understanding of intergenerational transference of parenting; included the findings of the quantitative and qualitative phases relating to the parenting; and presented the preliminary guidelines developed for parents and practitioners for the participants' further input, discussion, and feedback.

Participants were divided into five (5) groups of 4-6 members. Each group was seated at a table and given writing material and a copy of the workbook (which included the preliminary guidelines). During the allotted time frame, they were requested to provide further interpretations and comments for additions and changes. The participants were requested to complete and submit the workbook within the time frame of the workshop. The in-depth dialogues that ensued were audio recorded (with parents' consent) and detailed field notes were taken by the research assistant. The workshop then became rich in information as parents unpacked, discussed and commented on the preliminary guidelines in their group discussions and provided conversed written and verbal responses to the development of the guidelines. Within the workbook, spacing was provided to write down feedback of the discussions. At the end of the workshop, each group was given the opportunity to present the main outcomes of their discussions to the plenary and submit their completed workbooks. The participants appreciated each group's feedback and consensus was reached concerning

the guidelines, with some additional recommendations and changes made. The workshop continued for nearly 4 hours without any heated disagreements or grievances occurring – amicable discussions and sharing took place. Group leaders encouraged the participation of all members by asking the quiet participants to also give their input. Accordingly, all participants' voices were heard. After the workshop, many parents commended the researcher for her efforts and well-developed guidelines, expressing their gratitude and affirming the value of the study for young parents, future parents, and other parents, both in Genadendal, and beyond.

This was confirmation that the guidelines were accurately formulated according to the current practices of parents and were already viewed as helpful for future generations of parents.

4.3.5 Data analysis

After the workshop, the feedback workbooks were collected and the recommendations made by the parents thematically analysed, and subsequently redrafted, reworked and refined to develop the absolute final parenting guidelines. The recorded group discussions were translated from Afrikaans to English, transcribed, and thematically analysed to identify further themes and related findings. The research findings (additional feedback and recommendations) were then summarised, refined, and integrated with the preliminary guidelines to produce the final parenting guidelines presented in this study. Furthermore, this phase of the study used an ecological framework as an analyses process to formulate the guidelines. The systems in the ecological framework allows the proponents of the Life Course Theory to be linked and show the connections as well as the associations as it applied to the generational transference of the progress and changes occurring within parenting. This was then used to conclude Phase 1 – the qualitative and quantitative stages and Phase 2

– workshop research findings, significantly contributing to the formulation of the parenting guidelines and recommendations of the study.

Trustworthiness

Credibility points to the "true value of the researcher results and relates to the concept of internal consistency" (Creswell, 2010, p. 115). This indicates that true value is considering whether the researcher has established truth in the findings in relation to the participants and context of the study that was undertaken (Krefling,1991).

Credibility was therefore established by utilising multiple methods of data collection and analyses (qualitative and quantitative processes) during both phases of the study and, the workshop. Furthermore, in this phase, participants were given information about the purpose of the study and freedom to withdraw from the study at any time.

Through **the application of strategies to help ensure honesty in participants,** relationships were formulated that strengthened the research processes. This encouraged the sharing of participants' ideas and understanding of parenting without fear of judgment (Shenton, 2004). Consistency was maintained through persistent observations in the field and **triangulation** of data that took place through the combination of research data collection and analyses methods used in this data processing of the study (Alghamdi & Li, 2013). Combining methods helps provide objectivity (Alghamdi & Li, 2013). This study incorporated all three aspects of triangulation within the research design by using multiple data collection tools and methods and diverse data sources (Shenton, 2004). The findings of the combination of methods were then used to inform participants at the workshop of the findings from Stage 1. This allowed participants to be engaged in the process of determining what constitutes the intergenerational transference aspects of parenting, by either confirming or rejecting what would formulate the principal guidelines for parents and professionals in their community context. As 'true value' is found in the subjective views and meanings of

participants (Shenton, 2004). Furthermore, it allowed participants to provide feedback – whether approval, disapproval, additions, or changes – to be made to the preliminary guidelines, to aid practitioners to strengthen and empower the domain of parenting.

Prolonged engagement – this research phase of the project took place over three (3) years. During this time, the researcher developed on-going relationships with the community – stakeholders and participants. These relationships – built on trust, honesty, transparency, and respect – enhanced the research processes, facilitated access to information and participants' shared experiences and knowledge.

4.3.6   Limitation of the study

The implications for a relatively small sample and other limitations identified is further discussed in Chapter 9 of the study.

4.3.7   Conclusion

The research study consisted of two phases. Phase 1 encompassed Stage 1 – Quantitative data collection and analyses, and Stage 2 – Qualitative data collection and analyses; Phase 2 comprised the workshop. Combined data collection techniques were used to conduct the research that entailed collecting, analysing, and integrating both qualitative and quantitative research methodologies. The quantitative phase used statistical analysis for description and comparisons for relating variables. The data analysis of the qualitative phase used text and images for coding, theme development, and for relating themes. Such an approach is used when the integration of both methods provides a better understanding of the research problem than either approach on its own. The workshop method (used in Phase 2) was used to further enhance and strengthen the findings of Phase 1 and Phase 2 of Stage 1 of the research study. This concluded the research methodology of the research process of the current study. Furthermore, the process of mixing methods allows for a more complete and

synergised representation of the findings and provides an ideal opportunity for the contribution and learning of the intergenerational parenting phenomenon and its dimensions.

The next three chapters – Chapters, 5, 6 and 7 – outline the three data analyses and discussion chapters and focus on presenting the mixed data collection methods used to explore and describe the related components of parenting styles and practices. The integration of the methods advances the investigation of parenting as it allows for a more complete and synergized representation of the findings. The quantitative findings strengthen the qualitative analyses process and provide an ideal opportunity for the contribution and learning of parenting, and its dimensions. In the next chapter, attention shifts to an analysis and discussion of the parent-child relationship.

CHAPTER 5

THE PARENT-CHILD RELATIONSHIP

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The focus of this chapter is on the parent-child relationship which presents the discussions and analyses relating to this parenting component. The following section frames the fundamental importance of the parent-child relationship, principally in understanding and describing parenting and parenting practices. Herein, particular attention is given to the relationship between parents and their children, and how these associations contribute to children's functioning, outcomes, and future relationships articulated with the environment and significant others, such as siblings, peers, teachers, and other adults. The influence of the parent-child relationship on individual's responses to the environment and their socio-cultural understandings and practices of parenting enacted within children's own parenting later in life, especially the transference of parent-child relationships within families and across generations, will also be considered. The chapter concludes by recapping the main issues discussed within the study's findings emanating from the interviews conducted with the participants. However, before commencing with the discussion, the demographical profile of the participants that formulated the case study are tabled. In addition, the themes, sub-themes, and categories and narratives of the participants are compared and contrasted with the relevant findings from the literature.

5.2 DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE OF CASE STUDY PARTICIPANTS

Tables 5.1, 5.2, and 5.3 illustrate the demographics of participants and the profile of each family of the case study, namely, Family A, Family B, and Family C. As indicated in Chapter 4, nine participants were approached to participate in the study, comprising of three families, and the lineages of parenting across three generations that were documented. The tables, therefore, provide the demographical information and a summary of each family to

provide a contextual understanding of the background and experiences of the family in the

broader context of a rural community with a historical, social and cultural background as

attributed to Genadendal, which is outlined in Chapter 1 of the study.

Table 5.1 Case Study Profile of Participants of Family A

Description	Participant G1	Participant G2	Participant G3
Gender	Female	Female	Male
Age	80 years	48years	23 years
Race	Coloured	Coloured	Coloured
Qualifications	Grade 1 & 2	Grade 11	Matric
Marital status	Widower	Living together but not married	Single
Children	14	3	None

Family Profile of Family A: Family A was a large family, consisting of a biological

father, biological mother, and fourteen (14) children (9 daughters and 5 sons). The couple

was married and have always resided in Genadendal. The father worked away from home on

the neighbouring farms and was the breadwinner of the family; the mother was a general

worker over the years. This family has been resident in Genadendal for over four (4)

generations, for reasons preceding the G1 parents. The parents of the grandmother (G1) were

the first residents. The great-grandmother was a midwife, and the great-grandfather was a

shoemaker. Due to the nature of their work, this family was very popular among the

community, and their services was often consulted. Significantly influenced by both her

parents, the grandmother (G1) indicated that she adopted a caring and supportive approach to

the community of Genaal after frequently having assisted her mother with the childbirth and

child care situations, and her father with the care and upkeep of shoe repairs. In her later

years, she started and managed a soup kitchen, resulting in the nickname 'mamma'. Her care

and support extend to caring for the elderly and sick, and giving advice to the youth within

the community. Many have also married and continue to reside in Genadendal with their

families. They have strong relational ties as siblings among them and high regard for the

traditions and culture of the Town.

Table 5.2 Case Study Profile of Participants of Family B

Description	Participant G1	Participant G2	Participant G3
Gender	Female	Female	Female
Age	85 years	51 years	29
Race	Coloured	Coloured	Coloured
Qualifications	Grade 2	Grade 10 (complete a career course)	Grade 10
Marital status	Widower	Living together but not married	Married
Children	11	3	2

Family Profile of Family B: Family B was also a large family, consisting of a biological father, biological mother, and eleven (11) children (7 daughters and 4 sons). The couple was married and have always resided (both grew up) in Genadendal. They married at a young age and continued to reside and rear their children in Genadendal. However, over the years, the first family home has become a multigenerational household, with children and grandchildren still residing in their childhood home. The father of this household was a farmworker, working on the nearby farms as a general worker; the mother was a housewife. Due to the father working away from home, assuming seasonal farm work for periods of six months, the mother assumed the head of the household functioning roles, that included child-rearing, household tasks and being the disciplinarian as well. In support of the mother, considering the absence of the father, the older siblings were given increased responsibility to help care for the younger siblings and had to leave school at an early age to help their mother. This family is renown in the community for their sporting skills, with over four (4) generations performing well in sports and athletics, especially rugby. Furthermore, this family is very sociable and often come together to celebrate events or socialise as they live in close proximity to each other. The belief is that these regular gatherings strengthen their relational ties, especially between the younger generations.

Table 5.3 Case Study Profile of Participants of Family C

Description	Participant G1	Participant G2	Participant G3
Gender	Female	Female	Female
Age	73	47	22
Race	Coloured	Coloured	Coloured
Qualifications	Matric, Post-qualification teacher	Matric, a Teaching degree	Matric, First-year University (Music)
Marital status	Married	Married	Single
Children	3	2	None

Family Profile of Family C: In comparison to Family A and B, Family C is much smaller. A married couple with three (3) children (2 daughters and 1 son). In this family, precedence is given to education. Immense sacrifices were made to ensure their children received good schooling and even tertiary education. Being skilled and employed was viewed as central to caring for their family. For these reasons, the G1 father worked away from home in Johannesburg for a few years as a postman, and the G1 mother worked in the City as a teacher. During these years, the paternal grandparents, who are originally from Genadendal, assumed the responsibility of rearing the G2 children. The biological father was born and reared in Genadendal, but the biological mother was not from the town. Later on, they sought employment closer to home to be more involved in their children's upbringing. To this end, they resided with the husband's parents, forming a multigenerational household. Following in her mother's footsteps, the G2 participant pursued the same career choice as a teacher.

The G2 participants were not resentful toward their parents for being absent but admired their sacrifices. All three generations live together in close proximity in one community. They attend church together as a family, and according to the G1 participant, are firmly rooted in their religious beliefs and practices. They also actively participate in community events, such as the 'blomme fees' (flower festival), and other occasions. The G1 parents are very fond of music and enjoy singing and have been involved in the choir for years.

These cases presented for the study is a representation of the general parenting community and family structure of communities in Genadendal. These cases further demonstrate the social, cultural and other influencing factors that impact on families and parenting within rural or disadvantaged communities with similar underlying experiences.

Table 5.4 provides a summary of the themes, sub-themes, and categories emerging from the findings related to the parent-child relationship of parenting from the nine (9) participants and three (3) family case studies (by looking at it across the three families, i.e., Family A, Family B, and Family C, and across the three generations, i.e., Generation one (G1), Generation two (G2), and Generation three (G3), who participated in the study Then refer to Appendix F for the Afrikaans translations.

Table 5.4 Case Study – Parent-Child Relationships: Themes, Sub-themes, and Categories

Themes	Sub-themes	Categories
1. Understanding of the term 'parenting.'	1.1.1. Attitude towards parenting	1.1.1. Influence of absent parent 1.1.2. The role of a father 1.1.3. Single parenting 1.1.4. Absent working parent
2. Parental competencies	2.1. Parental tasks	2.1.1. Physical care 2.1.2. Physical care is linked to emotional care 2.1.3. Routine 2.1.4. Teaching 2.1.5. Modelling
	2.2. Transferring norms and values	2.2.1. Respecting people 2.2.2. Respecting the property of others 2.2.3. Religious practices 2.2.4. Honesty 2.2.5. Responsibility 2.2.6. Perseverance
	2.3. Protecting 2.4. Providing guidance and support	
3. Parent-child relationship	3.1. Building relationships	3.1.1. Being available 3.1.2. Not being available 3.1.3. Fulfilling both parental roles 3.1.4. Family time as a way to ensure availability 3.1.5. Showing interest and getting to know your child
	3.2. Parent-child communication	3.2.1. Importance to show (model) positive communication 3.2.2. Open communication 3.2.3. Expressing love 3.2.4. Poor communication
	3.3. Decision making	3.3.1. Encouraging children to make choices
	3.4. Dealing with conflict	3.4.1. Parental conflict 3.4.2. Using communication 3.4.3. Avoidance
	3.5. Discipline	3.5.1. Using communication

Themes	Sub-themes	Categories
		3.5.2. One parent responsible for discipline
		3.5.3. Parents complement and support each other
		3.5.4. Punishment

Furthermore, this chapter will unpack/extrapolate the parenting factors, which include the parenting styles and practices skills, teachings, practices, styles, performs, **parent-child relationship,** warmth, and strict control, parental knowledge of generations in Genadendal.

5.3 THEME 1: UNDERSTANDING PARENTING

The parenting styles assumed by parents during child-rearing affect the functioning of children. A pro-active parenting style is recognised as one that is affectionate, portrays warmth, provides structure, and is dependable (Masten & Coatsworth, 1998). Studies have found a correlation between the warmth of parent-child relations and later intellectual reasoning (Barocas et al., 1991; McGroder, 2000). Conversely, a lack of warmth and affection affect children deleteriously and impacts on their cognitive outcomes. Therefore, parents who practice a pro-active parenting style promote and stimulate pro-social behaviours in children and prompts school readiness (Masten & Coatsworth, 1998). This indicates that a positive and practical approach to parenting encourages progressive and constructive behavioural outcomes in children. Conversely, children's behavioural problems and depressive symptoms suggest inconsistent, unpredictable, unreliable, and harsh parenting practices (Patterson, 1986;Patterson, 1989). Harsh parenting is associated with an intimidating cycle of conflict, resulting in conflicting parent-child relations (Patterson, 1986; Patterson, 1989). Furthermore, it is essential to understand the parent-child relationship as this interaction may also affect the internalised emotional and social outcomes of children (Laible & Thompson, 2002). Thus, parenting affects multiple aspects of children's outcomes and family functioning, which include directing the social behaviours, duties, and expectations of children (Triandis, 1995).

Parenting is a universal paradigm comprising diverse parenting practices (Atzaba-Poria & Pike, 2008). These may vary across cultures, families, and time. In addition, consistencies, modifications, or dissimilarities may exist within families living in the same geographical environment (Oyserman, Coon, & Kemmelmeier, 2002), such as Genadendal.

Parenting is understood as a socially embedded and diverse practice that is inclusive of societal customs, values, norms, and expectations (Daly, 2016). Therefore, to be able to understand parenting, it must be viewed through the lens of the general discourse and associated terms: parenthood, parental identities, roles, and practices of parents (Daly, 2016). Furthermore, Hobson and Morgan (2002) identify the various components of the all-encompassing term 'parenting' to include the interplay between the institution, agency, and personhood that is involved in the process of parenting.

To understand parenting, general comments were provided by parents to describe their parenting experiences, as shown in the following excerpt:

"Sometimes it's not easy, but sometimes yes" **(Family A, Participant G2).**

Parenting is a broad multifaceted doman, and vary across cultural settings (Simons et al., 2013). Therefore, these expressed views of participants provide a very basic understanding of the term parenting as experienced by participants of this particular rural community.

Over time, the experiences of parents vary, depending on other contributing factors, such as parent-child relationships, parenting practices and styles, socio-economic conditions, and cultural influences (Daly, 2016). These then form part of parents' parenting experiences.

Similarly, a G1 participant from Family B commented that it is hard to be a parent. She reared 11 children together and it was difficult.

> *"It's very difficult to be a parent. Because I just had it very difficult with my children, because they were so close after each other and they were 11 siblings altogether. So, they were about 2 years apart, and the husband worked on the farm and in those days the money was very little" (Family B, participant G1).*

In understanding the term 'parenting', the first sub-theme 'attitude towards parenting' was identified. This sub-theme is a component which formulates the understanding of the meaning of parenting in the parent-child relationship.

5.3.1 Sub-theme 1.1: Attitude towards parenting

Kircher and Ahlijah (2011) maintain that parents have their parenting styles and practices, which include their approaches, emotions, feelings, concerning religion, and societal attitudes towards parenting their children. Furthermore, this includes responding to their children's diverse needs, experiences, and choices that are specific to that family's dynamics and even world-changing views (Kircher & Ahlijah, 2011). Therefore, parents' attitudes and experiences of parenting may be unique to each family's functioning and methods employed, as will be shown by the similar and dissimilar views of the family cases – participants views:. Furthemore the parent-child relationship is perceived as central to families and communities. (Lamb & Lewis, 2010).

Participants highlighted distinct 'attitudes' towards parenting described as the characteristics required for parenting, as follows:

"You must be very responsible" (**Family A, participant G2).**

"You must of course have a lot of patience" (**Family B, participant G1).**

"Do not be too soft for the children either" (**Family B, participant G1).**

"Yes, you must be strong and never lose courage" (**Family A, participant G2).**

"She's very genuine, and she makes no distinction, or she does not –- she pulls everyone through one –- it's not like I favour this one or I favour that one" (**Family B, participant G3).**

"You usually can't teach a child in your ways. A child sometimes will have the same nature of its mother –- mum 's family or to the daddy' s family. The characteristics and that. Now, one's children are not all the same" (**Family C, participant G2).**

Furthermore, this study depicts four aspects of parenting to include the categories: i) the influence of an absent parent, ii) role of the father, iii) single parenting, and iv) absent working parent. These are discussed below.

5.3.1.1 Category 1.1.1: Influence of absent parent

In continuing the discussion, *absent parenting* is considered an element of the sub-theme: 'Attitude towards parenting'. According to all the participants, the influence of an absent parent affects the functioning and well-being of children and families. Participants further related parental absence to death, separation, or divorce; or the absence of the father particularly, either physically or emotionally. This is supported by the following excerpt:

> *"Look, we have so many single parents. They do not marry. We have already missed everything –- missed out"* **(Family C, participant G1).**

5.3.1.2 Category 1.1.2: The role of the father

Fatherhood is a construction that is associated with masculinity ideologies. These ideologies describe male attributes as including restricted emotional expression, a strong sense of self-reliance, independence, family connectedness, responsibility, roughness, physical strength, and protective traits (Caldwell et al., 2013). The notion of fatherhood and masculinity was reportedly intergenerationally transferred through father-son teachings and engagements (Roberts-Douglass & Curtis-Boles, 2013).

The fatherhood experience is thus complex and involves the understanding, knowledge, practices, and the utilisation of resources and skills development, to cultivate positive parent-child relationships. Thus, the roles and responsibilities of the father are related to positive childhood development and child well-being. Paternal parenting involvement is therefore linked with the sociocultural and familial context of family functioning (Lamb, 2004); that plays a vital role in a child's well-being, and stimulates the potential and innate desires and determination in children; includes the promotion of physical, emotional, social,

and intellectual development in children from infancy through to legal adulthood (Lamb, 1997).

In some instances, fathers struggle to fulfil their parental responsibilities due to financial, social, and cultural factors, further linked to oppression, unemployment, limited and restricted contact with their children, and their own parental insecurities and perceptions (Julion, Gross, Barclay-McLaughlin, & Fogg, 2007; Harms, 2014).

The father is viewed as playing a fundamental role as he is seen as the pillar of the family, and therefore forms an essential component of child-rearing expressed as follows:

"So what matters to me is that dad figure that stands like a pole above water" (**Family C, participant G2).**

Participants descriptions of father involvement through positive parent-child engagement, roles and responsibilities are displayed by the children's involvement with the environment were in line with international trends. Fathers' interest and active engagement increased children's interaction with the environment, displaying positive pro-social behaviours and presenting heightened educational outcomes (Shah & Stewart-Brown, 2018). Furthermore, fathers generally have more social 'play' time with children, and this father-child social interaction stimulates thoughts to help develop exploration and independence. Conversely, mothers are perceived as carers, protectors, and providers of safety and security (Shah & Stewart-Brown, 2018).

5.3.1.3 Category 1.1.3: Single Parenting

The dissolution of the parental relationship due to divorce, separation, or for some other reason, significantly affects the relationship with the child, especially because of accompanying tension in parental communication or engagement (Shah & Stewart-Brown, 2018). Thus, when one parent leaves the relationship, and becomes uninvolved, it doubles the parental responsibility of the remaining parent who has to assume dual roles and increased responsibilities (Shah & Stewart-Brown, 2018), expressed as follows:

"See, my son was a good student and after we had split up, his performance in the school dropped - the teacher was a concern – she called me, sent a letter that I had to come to school –- immediately, what's wrong with the child? What happened in the child's life that his marks fell so drastically? Then I explained to her the story – the father was no longer in their lives and because they were very crazy about their dad. They are probably still – I do not know. They call him Daddy, and when will Daddy come home and such. Then I realised, but he already took another girl, made another child on that side, and here I am alone now, and so I have to start playing both roles" **(Family B, participant G3).**

"With my mother, she was the only one there for me when I felt sad – why am I saying that? She was married to someone else – not with my father" **(Family C, participant G1).**

It is thus evident that changes in parenting structures has detrimental effects on the behaviour, functioning, wellbeing of individuals. The perception of parenting as a single parent, unmarried couple, or within marriage takes on different meanings and connoted outcomes in children (Atzaba-Poria & Pike, 2008). Although Ghuman (1999) indicates that the conditions of married and unmarried couples are the same, in that parenting is an informed choice made between two parties (the mother and the father), whether married or unmarried, which comes with the responsibility of parenting. But the findings suggest otherwise that although there ought to be two parties involved in child rearing, that single parents are experiencing a greater strain and responsibility. This is particularly the case in South Africa and confirmed by the participants in this study as follows:

"The thing is, parenting is a duty when you have made the decision to bring children into life. There are two parties, a mother and a father" **(Family C, participant G2).**

However, it was identified that the community has many single parents as highlighted below:

As us, we get many single parents these days where the children…" **(Family C, participant G2).**

It would therefore appear that single parenting in the form of teenage pregnancy is a phenomenon of increasing concern in the South African rural context. This may be due to the fact that teens appear to experience parenting differently; as they are more vulnerable and are less likely to have warm and connected relationships with their parents, as well as their children (Shah & Stewart-Brown, 2018). In addition, teens prone to teenage parenting often

emanate from disruptive family background; lack positive peer or partner support; and are often linked to risky sexual behaviour and substance use (Shah & Stewart-Brown, 2018), which affects parenting and results in absent parenting. These aspects then further reiterate some of the influencing parenting factors that impacts on child rearing and child outcomes as outlined in chapter 1 of the study.

5.3.1.4 Category 1.1.4: Absent working parent: Not a negative experience

In terms of parental absence, it was found that the absent working parent was not classified as a negative experience. This is in line with international trends that indicated that children tend to be more understanding when parents are away from home due to work, but less so when they are absent due to other reasons, such as parental separation, divorce, or death (Kielty, 2008), then children tend to react disorderly and struggle to cope. This was indicated as follows:

> *"They were away from home - my mother was a teacher in Grabouw, we were still on school. Then my grandmother raised us. Then mom would come home on weekends. And on those weekends when she came, she fulfilled her role. It was not that missing mother who's never there" (Family C, participant G2).*

Theme 2 – 'Parenting factors/competencies' – and its related sub-themes are discussed in the sections that follow.

5.4 THEME 2: PARENTING FACTORS: DEVELOPING COMPETENCIES

The following theme, 'parenting factors', encompasses four sub-themes, namely: 1) parental tasks; 2) transferring norms and values; 3) protecting; and 4) providing guidance and support. These will be discussed below in relation to supporting the theory.

There are many complexities in the domain of parenting, as well as expressions and declarations within parenting research which contributes to the body of knowledge that articulates the dimensions of effective parenting and formulates the determinants (factors) of the parent-child relationship (Johnson, Berdahl, Horne, Richter, & Walters, 2014). There are

a number of parenting qualities or factors and behaviours identified in the research that are associated with either positive or negative parenting, contributing to either adaptive or maladaptive outcomes in children (Budd, 2001).

Parenting factors which inform the quality of parenting may be identified as the parenting styles, practices, skills, teachings, performs, quality of the parent-child relationship, warmth, and strict control, as well as parental knowledge (Leigh et al., 2007). These parenting factors which articulate parental competencies may be observed and evaluated against set standards related to outcomes (Marrelli, Tondora, & Hoge, 2005). Research over time, therefore, displays significant correlations between the quality of parenting demonstrated by parents and the developmental and behavioural outcomes displayed in children (Johnson et al., 2014).

Hence, there is extensive unanimity in the parenting literature that parenting factors notably contribute to the effects of child outcomes (Johnson et al., 2014; Leigh et al., 2007; Marrelli et al., 2005). This displays a clear and distinctive relationship between the quality of parenting and the effects it has on children. Thus, parenting quality, which includes the parenting factors and related competencies, is a determining aspect of the parent-child relationship that contributes to the effects of child outcomes and informs the welfare and functioning of individuals (Johnson et al., 2014).

The welfare and functioning of individuals during parenting are essential to understanding the impact which different parenting factors have on the individuals and is described as the overall well-being (to include happiness, interests, welfare, and security) and optimal functioning of individuals (Patel, 2015). Similarly, the welfare of individuals (i.e., children) is considered a fundamental determinant of good parenting, which includes compassionate and competent caring abilities demonstrated by parents to ensure the welfare and functioning of children, and their overall health outcomes (Leigh et al., 2007; Marrelli et

al., 2005). Conversely, a lack of good and adequate parenting factors are correlated with externalising problems, such as emotional and behavioural challenges experienced by youth, contributing to societal youth difficulties (Patterson, Reid, & Dishion, 1992).

In this study, the following parenting factors and competencies were identified and discussed: i) parental tasks, ii) transferring norms and values, iii) protecting, and iv) providing guidance and support. These sub-themes (and their related categories) are described in more detail below.

The first sub-theme of Theme 2 is discussed next.

5.4.1 Sub-theme 2.1: Parental tasks

Parenting competence is a learned and acquired skill to aid parents in rearing children effectively by using a combination of knowledge, skills or abilities, practices or behaviours, attributes, attitudes, and collections of these parenting components (styles) associated with positive outcomes in children (Leigh et al., 2007; Roe, 2002). Eminent research accrued from different discourses and multiple perspectives, which include the following disciplines (e.g., child psychology, child development, family systems, forensic psychology, parent education), have recognised that the dimensions and tasks of parenting contribute toward the optimal emotional, developmental, cognitive functioning, and behavioural outcomes in children (Johnson et al., 2014). Therefore, one may deduce that these tasks and dimensions are the essential stepping-stones of developing parenting competence.

These parenting competencies have therefore been identified as parents being able to demonstrate "capabilities which consist of knowledge, skills, abilities, personal characteristics, attitudes, or even a combination of these qualities" that are required for effective parenting performance, which may be observed and valued alongside standardised parenting styles and practices (Leigh et al., 2007; Marrelli et al., 2005). Marrelli et al., (2005)

indicated that competency-based approaches are becoming increasingly essential as a central strategy for improving the effectiveness of parenting and their approaches outlined in the parenting factors displayed (p. 533). This suggests that certain factors or parental qualities (values, ideals, principles, believes, and worth or standard) are a pre-requisite to parenting performs and practices expected within parenting, which may assist in providing guidance and support for improved and effective child-rearing.

From the research conducted, the following parental tasks are highlighted and discussed, namely: i) physical care, ii) physical care linked to emotional care, iii) routine, iv) teaching, and v) modelling. These are described in more detail below.

5.4.1.1 Category 2.1.1: Physical care

In terms of physical care, participants articulated that parents are responsible for providing children with the fundamentals required for everyday living. This is corroborated by Stephens (2007) who described the fundamental physical care of parents to include providing physical nourishment (i.e., get enough sleep and the right foods), as well as emotional and spiritual nurturance. This is supported by one participant as follows:

> "Tonight, I will take care of the food and eats and bath – off to sleep and tomorrow morning they have to be back to school" (*Family A, participant G1*).

According to the families in this study, the aspects of physical care of children includes being provided with; cooked meals, bathed, clothed, and having a proper daily sleep routine, expressed as follows:

> "Children had to be bathed, they had to go to bed and had to always kept them clean" (*Family B, participant G1*).

> "But they were always dressed clean, everything and in the church" (*Family B, participant G1*).

5.4.1.2 Category 2.1.2: Physical care is linked to emotional care

In addition to physical care, children also need daily personalised time, attention, and affection (Stephens, 2007). The link between providing children with physical and emotional care was described by Families A and C, specifically Generation 3 participants, as follows:

"He (father) will go out of his way if he now hears that his child is so ... (referring to being ill). He worked in Hermanus and if he is not Friday ... he would call from Hermanus if he cannot come home the weekend, then he would want to come home immediately if I'm sick" (**Family A, participant G3**).

"Well, parenting I understand the term as loving a child and taking care of the child or the children, providing the needs of the child and so forth" (**Family C, participant G3**).

"When I'm sick, because I often get sick and then, when I get sick at school it is just so nice when I get sick at school an obviously the school phones my mom because we are not allowed to be when we're sick and then my mom shall come out of Greyton – she just leaves everything there then she comes and gets me and take care of me at home and then she will go back to school" (**Family C, participant G3**).

"Or when I have a problem with the teachers, or something at school… my dad, he would phone the principle" (**Family C, participant G3**).

This indicates that affection and emotional care are as essential as physical care and formulate the significant components of parental care practices as expressed by participants.

5.4.1.3 Category 2.1.3: Routine

Routines and rituals are described as daily routinely executed tasks that undergo change and evolve during the life cycle of families (Fiese, Foley, & Spagnola, 2006). Children require different routines and care (emotional and physical care) as they grow and mature through different stages of development, and subsequently, each stage of the life cycle of individuals requires an investment in time, effort, and energy (Fiese, Hooker, Kotary, & Schwagler, 1993). Participants' findings confirmed these theories that incorporating daily routines, tasks and rituals in family life is an essential part of parenting and family functioning over the life span of an individual as indicated in Chapter 2 of the study.

This was captured as follows:

"Homework. My children are so if they came straight out of school, then they know that when they have finished eaten, they have to do homework and then they have time off – then they can play" (**Family A, participant G2**).

"... there is also not of ... 10 o'clock is the latest on a Friday evening, Saturday evening and Sunday evening and during the week it is when you are finished with washing the dishes and have eaten, go rest a bit and then you have to study" (**Family B, participant G3**).

This shows that providing routine and structure to a child's daily functioning is essential. The excerpts above from the parents indicated that the children understood the routines and followed through to obey the expectations as outlined by their parents.

5.4.1.4 Category 2.1.4: Teaching

Participants highlighted the importance of teaching children social skills to ensure that they act in a proper and acceptable manner within society, and that it is the parents' responsibility to enforce certain behaviours upon their children. It is therefore essential to recognise that the development and influences on children extend from the individual, family and community This suggests that there are various elements working interdependently contributing to the development of a child's social skills. This was expressed as follows:

"You can teach your children the way you want them to be" (**Family A, participant G1**).

"You have to teach your child the right ways" (**Family A, participant G1**).

"I taught them –- except the schoolwork" (**Family A, participant G1**)

"When you as a parent know how to raise your children and enforce things on them and how to go through life" (**Family B, participant G2**).

"So, you are now a mother, so you should raise that child at your hand" (**Family B, participant G3**).

5.4.1.5 Category 2.1.5: Modelling

Modelling was identified as a key finding and determinant to influencing children's views, behaviours, reactions, and responses to their (internal and external) environments, and the contributing factors. Various areas of parental modelling were identified. These included

154

parents modelling as an example; modelling work, modelling responsibility, and modelling how to deal with mistakes. These are explained further below.

The family system approach recognises the interdependency between family members, in that the emotions and behaviours of family members are influenced by the broader family compositions and functioning (Zvara, Mills-Koonce, Heilbron, Clincy, & Cox, 2015). This demonstrates interdependency, inter- and intra- transference amongst family members, which also influences the interdependency between parent-parent relations and parent-child relationships (Zvara et al., 2015). Modelling is thus a key fundamental of being a parent. In short, parental modelling not only entails telling and explaining, but also setting an example through actions and behaviours. The following excerpt is an example of modelling as understood and cited by the participants:

> "We tell them but what is important is we should set the example. If one would say you are a church person, then you have to live by it" (**Family C, participant G1**).

> "But now I see - it has a lot to do our adults how they move in front of the child and what they are saying, and the child does the same" (**Family C, participant G1**).

Modelling Work – Work was another modelled parental quality stated by the participants:

> "My dad worked every day, and my mom worked that time as well" (**Family A, participant G2**).

> "Certainly, the way they (grandparents) reared her (mother) or so, because she's willing to do anything. She is able to do anything herself" (**Family A, participant G3**).

> "Yes, you - we do not walk with a problem on our face (do not let private life influence work performance" (**Family C, participant G1**).

Furthermore, one participant expressed great admiration for the career and standard of work done by his father. However, he expressed that they are unable to work side-by-side on a job site. This alludes to children's interpretation and esteem for their parent's quality of work performance, indicating that the way parent's model work and careers influences and affects children's decisions regarding perceptions of work, future careers, and job performance.

"My dad. He takes pride in his work - I would like be in his trade of work. He is a builder and a carpenter, but like me now ... he will not take me to do a job or not. I think when it comes to work, we cannot work on one site" **(Family A, participant G3).**

Modelling responsibility – It is evident from the participants' responses that children look up to their parents. And it is for this reason that parent's model responsibility as a core parental trait. This is supported by the following excerpt:

"The child looks up at you - you have to be an example for them. It made me a bit calmer and soft in a way you should behave like a grownup woman now, because you are one now - you are a mother of 2 children" **(Family B, participant G3).**

Hence, parents play a paramount role in the socialisation of their children (Bugental & Grusec, 2006). Through role modelling, children learn how to relate to and function in the environment.

Modelling how to deal with mistakes – The participants indicated that parents model to their children how to deal with mistakes. They acknowledged their mistakes to their children, were apologetic, and tried to rectify what was done with corrective measures:

"Everyone makes mistakes, so a parent can also make mistakes. Nobody is perfect, but you will have to make up for what you repent of. This is how I see it" **(Family B, participant G3).**

"I apologised to the child and to the whole class (participant is teacher). I then said I'm sorry, it came out, I'm not an angel" **(Family C, participant G1).**

Therefore, one may deduce that the understanding, perception, and knowledge of parents influences, determines the transference of these modelled responses to their children. Thus, one may deduce that relational parent-child interaction that allows for modelling consequently promote the socialization of children within their environment. In addition, older, more 'mature' parents, tend to raise more socially adjusted children (Mayer, New Zealand, Ministry of Social Development, & Knowledge Management Group, 2002), as they express less anxieties and other stressors; display greater coping strategies when engaging their children; and exhibit more positive parent-child interactions (Auyeung, Burbidge, &

Minnes, 2011) in comparison to younger, more naïve parents such as the single teen parents as discussed earlier.

Having discussed the first sub-theme of Theme 2 above, the second sub-theme – 'transferring norms and values' – is discussed next.

5.4.2 Sub-theme 2.2: Transferring norms and values

The expression 'lived experiences' relates to existed, survived, and subsisted experiences – actual lived out experiences of one person, family, and community, and the subsistence/survival thereof to be transferred and carried forth to future generations (Lamb & Lewis, 2010). These then form the lived experiences and values, including norms, cultural practices, morals, disciplines, and life lessons carried forth through relationships to future generations to learn from, and similarly, to establish and reinstate into their own living experiences (Lamb & Lewis, 2010).

Accordingly, participants confirmed that it is the responsibility of parents to instil ethical norms and values in their children, such as respect for people, their properties, and religious practices; being honest and responsible; and perseverance. In this regard, one participant stated:

> *"And at the end of the day one has the duty to educate those children with good values and norms" (Family C, participant G2).*

5.4.2.1 Category 2.2.1: Respecting people

The term 'respect' is described as an "interdependent web", which is all encompassing of all things of which we share a part (Unitarian Universalist Association, 2013). A synonym for the term respect is "consideration", which refers to an act of being kind, helpful, thoughtful and providing attention. Another synonym is "esteem", which means to show special regard, favour, and concern to another (Unitarian Universalist Association, 2013).

The findings of this study show that the values and norms of respecting people was associated with greeting others in the community, regardless of their age and response, as well as having a good outward persona about oneself.

> *"Do not walk with a long mouth - whether you know the auntie, or you don't... Many of the old people cannot hear well, and then he does not answer, but you continue"* **(Family A, participant G1).**

> **"***Yes, be honest with your buddies and do not be rude"* **(Family B, participant G3).**

> *"Discipline and respect for adults and for children and for old people. If you get people along the way, help the auntie or uncle. Always be there for your fellow human beings"* **(Family A, participant G2).**

> *"They'll tell you no, you cannot do that way, and you have to respect others and say things and speaking to other people who are passing by and so on"* **(Family B, participant G3).**

5.4.2.2 Category 2.2.2: Respecting the property of others

Respecting the property of others was carried forth as a strong norm and value by participants. Participants' perceived taking things that does not belong to one as stealing, and in the event of stealing, children should be reprimanded on order to curb undesirable behaviour.

Thus, respect is referred to as "both, a way of behaving and feeling" towards others (Unitarian Universalist Association, 2013). This is essential for understanding the way people interact with and how they regard others and includes consideration of their feelings and behaviour towards another person's belongings, for example.

> *"Leave other people's property or ask. Or if you stood there and you see something in the auntie flower garden, ask the auntie. Sometimes they play and the ball falls into the people's gardens, ask"* **(Family A, participant G1).**

> *"Keep your hands away from other people's things. Remember that's not yours. Do not take another person's stuff - they call it stealing. And you're growing up - if you're young and you're not being punished then when you older, then you steal"* **(Family A, participant G1).**

> *"I mean he should not steal from other people that is are not yours - rather ask someone. Or if you see there are peaches on a tree, go ask for that aunt, may I pick some peaches please auntie or so"* **(Family B, participant G3).**

Thus, respect encompasses the knowledge and approach that "every person is important and valuable" (Unitarian Universalist Association, 2013), and should therefore be

treated with fairness and honour in the practices they perform (Unitarian Universalist Association, 2013).

5.4.2.3 Category 2.2.3: Religious practices

Parenting styles and practices are not universal and vary depending on context. Thus, the cultural and socio-economic context of a family, community, and parents influence parenting styles and related practices, like cultural beliefs, principles, and ideologies adopted and subsequently enacted on their children. This signifies that parenting must thus be understood in relation to cultural context (Bornstein, 1995).

Parents rear their children with an association of ethnicity, gender, religion, and cultivate children within the broader socio-cultural context. This allows for norms and values and religious practices to be transferred intergenerationally, and for skills development to be acquired within families and communities (Hess, Kashiwagi, Azuma, Price, & Dickson, 1980).

In this study, Families A, B, and C, the three generations (G1, G2 and G3), as well as community of Genadendal considered religious practices and a Christian upbringing as the cornerstone of parenting and child-rearing. Participants across all three generations indicated that they were reared to attend Sunday School and church, as well as go through the rights of passage, such as baptism and confirmation, which was perpetuated to their children. They regarded their Christian upbringing as keeping them grounded and on a good path in life. They recognised the importance of one's belief system and acknowledged receiving religious instruction both at school and at home. It is evident that religious instruction was used to help parents and teachers teach children how to conduct themselves. Furthermore, children and parents were encouraged to spend time reading and discussing the Bible as a family. This indicates that parents transferred these practices over to their children, G1 to G2 transference. The following extracts reflect this:

"My parents, because they were so well anchored, in faith and religion, and so they really kept us on the right path, if one could say so" (**Family C, participant G2**).

"You had to make sure that you get to Sunday School" (**Family A, participant G1**).

"Yes, we had to be in church every Sunday, and we had our church confirmation, we have stay at. We had to be confirmed as a member of the church and we should have brought together all those things. There were no such things as no, I do not want to go, or I'm not going or not" (**Family B, participant G1**).

"Because religion is important. At school it was taught – as well as at home" (**Family B, participant G3**).

"You have to go to church, you have to go to Sunday school" (**Family C, participant G1**).

"At night it was my turn to place the Bible right there on the table and then we start to talk. Read the Bible and talk to my grandfather and grandmother. And I passed this on to my children as well" (**Family C, participant G1**).

"I taught Sunday school here in the house. We had a small church" (**Family C, participant G1**).

"When I was younger, ok we have to go to church, but now that I'm older I don't really have to go. My mom has drilled it into me, so now ok I go to church and evening its church again and I know really like a pattern, I'm in a pattern already" (**Family C, participant G3**).

5.4.2.4 Category 2.2.4: Honesty

Parents indicated that a significant uncompromised value that they teach their children

is to always be honest and truthful in their behaviours; and to display honesty when

communicating with others, even in their interactions with their children.

"Yes, I teach my children, they must be honest" (**Family B, participant G3**).
"I learned from my grandmother and grandfather that honesty counted a lot. Speak the truth" (**Family C, participant G1**).

"You must be honest with your children" (**Family C, participant G2**).

"We were taught, the truth sets you free and be open with your children" (**Family C, participant G2**).

These findings are corroborated by Taylor, Eisenberg, Spinrad, Eggum, and Sulik,

(2013) who substantiated that parents who allow for emotional expression and validate their

children's feelings through support, develop appropriate ways to handle their emotional state.

Therefore, parenting practices that stimulate healthy development in emotional self-

regulation strategies developed pro-active engagement with others and the environment (Spinrad & Gal, 2018).

5.4.2.5 Category 2.2.5: Responsibility

According to Ramey and Ramey (2000), the survival or subsistence of the family is dependent on various factors. These include schooling, furthering educational opportunities, the financial stability of the family, and the structure and size of the family. Additionally, the family values and ambitions that determine the quality of the upbringing received, and the family relationships instituted and further cultivated. These factors contribute to the functioning of the household and family, and determine the various roles and responsibilities adopted by family members to ensure the well-being and ongoing subsistence of families (Ramey & Ramey, 2000).

In addition to the influence of parents and the family, the environment is considered the most critical influence on an individual's life, impacting one's values and aspirations assumed, ability to communicate proactively and pro-socially, and familial responsibilities (Ramey & Ramey, 2000). This was further echoed by participants who indicated that responsibility toward one's family is essential. It was also stated that in some instances, the son fulfilled the role of protector in the absence of the father, while for others, each person contributed to fulfilling their responsibility toward the family unit.

> *"He always - I will not know either, but he always made me understand that when he left home in the week, I am the man in the house"* (**Family A, participant G3**).

> *"I had to protect my mother and my sister, no matter what, and so"* (**Family A, participant G3**).

> *"We had to collect wood, we had to collect water, we had to pick up balls to sell, gather up acorns to sell because my father worked - he did not earn much money"* (**Family B, participant G2**).

> *"... and what else can I say, and dutifulness"* (**Family B, participant G2**).

Higher expectation on older children to provide help, assist with household tasks, and care for younger siblings, especially in the absence of a working parent, was relevant amongst the participants. This decreased playtime and impacted on their schooling, resulting in early dropout. Education levels within families were influenced by a number of factors, including opportunities afforded; the financial stability of the family; the size and structure of the family (Hoque & Ghuman, 2012); the well-being and health of the parents and siblings; family values and aspirations; and quality of the parent-child relationship (Ramey & Ramey, 2000).

Furthermore, gender orientation in families and the socio-economic status of individuals may influence transferred instruction and learning (Fagot & Gauvain, 1997) in various areas of development, including individual, family, and work (employment/income) related responsibilities.

> *"But I was actually the one that took care of my mother. My other sisters went to play in the afternoons, but I had to stay with her if she needed me to go do something for her. So, I did not really play much with other children"* (**Family B, participant G2**).

> *"Yes, because I had to make sure everything is always right - I am the oldest. When they came from school and my mother worked - I had to prepare a sandwich and make sure the house is clean. I had to wash the laundry, and they had to go on with their schoolwork"* (**Family B, participant G3**).

5.4.2.6 Category 2.2.6: Perseverance

Child-rearing is considered a multi-faceted and intricate responsibility, and perhaps one of the most challenging and complicated jobs as a parent (Johnson et al., 2014). Nevertheless, there are set qualities/factors of parenting that have been standardly set to formulate effective parenting, such as perseverance. Participants indicated that despite shortcomings, challenges, adversities, and one's circumstances, parents must learn to persevere and push onward, which in turn builds resilience.

> *"Perseverance and suffering if you're financially strapped and if you're not privileged and you're struggling a bit –- push through with what you have and so"* (**Family B, participant G2**).

The third sub-theme of Theme 2 is discussed next.

5.4.3 Sub-theme 2.3: Protecting

Parent-child relationships are strengthened by parents who are protective and provide a safe and secure environment with rules, roles, and clear boundaries (Bergin, Talley, & Hamer, 2003). This secure connection and affection between parent and child increased self-efficacy for pro-social behaviours, rather than anti-social behaviours in the child (Bergin, et al., 2003). Participants indicated that a fundamental responsibility of parents is to protect their children. This included setting clear rules and boundaries to safeguard the safety and well-being of their children.

> *"You must always protect your children." (Family A, participant G2).*

> *"You cannot just go play as you want. I had to - I could only go so far, as far as she could see me" (Family A, participant G3).*

> *"But always only, I just wanted to have them under my eyes. They could not go as they pleased or go to buddies what they want to go. I kept them under my eyes, but I was a little strict with them. But they did get their free time in between" (Family B, participant G1).*

> *"Yes, and bedtime they should be at home. I never liked it when my children had to sleep out by other people" (Family B, participant G2).*

> *"And then my mother went everywhere with us - wherever we went she went with us" (Family B. participant G2).*

> *"I protect my children by keeping them with me" (Family B, participant G3).*

Having looked at the sub-theme of 'protecting' above, the next sub-theme to be discussed is 'providing guidance and support'.

5.4.4 Sub-theme 2.4: Providing guidance and support

Identifying normative changes in their children's daily activities, behaviours, and peer relations will inform parents of the possible challenges, threats, and stress their children may be experiencing. Parents in turn are able to provide assistance, guidance, and support where necessary (Collins, Madsen, & Susman-Stillman, 2002; Steinberg & Silk, 2002).

"One must always support one's children. Here is no work in Genaal. Many children lose courage. That is why the parent is there to support the child" **(Family A, participant G2)**.

"A parent must be able to stand up for her child. Her child defends in anything, even though the child is wrong for many reasons, but there are times that the child is right" **(Family B, participant G3)**.

"You must support him, support in all what he or she wants to do and give all the love and everything" **(Family B, participant G3)**.

Research conducted on parental control offered effective types of parental control on child outcomes. These include non-intrusive monitoring and supervision; flexible discipline and punishment that changes with the developmental level of the child; opportunities to develop autonomy; and the internalised understanding and adoption of pro-social values and behaviours (Morris, Cui, & Steinberg, 2013).

Conversely, Morris et al., (2013) stated that maladaptive controlling methods have adverse effects on children, including psychological control, forceful, and intimidating control. All these methods produce harmful and destructive effects on a child's development and also strains the parent-child relationship.

However, parenting across the families and generations in this study was described as a position of leadership; parents were also viewed as teachers and mentors.

"To me, parenting means it's almost like a person who has to lead" **(Family B, participant G3)**.

"Your mother or your father is your teacher or your mentor" **(Family C, participant G2)**.

Furthermore, parents indicated that they must always support and guide their children.

"No, I feel at this stage that your children need your absolute support. First, in school for support. When I look now, I'm going to make a simple example at the school now. How many children come back with homework? This is a sign for me that there is no one who helps at home" **(Family C, participant G2)**.

"Parents are there to tell you what's right and wrong and to be there for you at all times" **(Family A, participant G3)**.

Also stated was that parents should know and discern between what is right and wrong, and be able to resist temptations, and thereby provide guidance and support to help children make the right decisions to keep them on the right path.

"Then you know what's right and wrong ... so you can resist it – temptations" (**Family B, participant G3**).

This indicates that parental guidance, support, and decision-making ability directly impacts on the child's abilities and decisions. This is supported by Ebbeck and Gokhale (2004) who state that philosophy, beliefs, and values, which are embedded in cultural origins, formulate the core of any person's existence, as it is associated with one's identity and sense of belonging. In addition, these cultural associations, teachings, and learned observations and mentoring received from parents and family, therefore, enhance the child's abilities to be responsible and relate responsibly to their peers, family, environment. Even other related decisions pertaining to life, schooling, career path, work, and so forth, with content have the support and guidance of their parents. Hence, culture significantly influences all domains of a person's life (Ebbeck & Gokhale, 2004). Moreover, Gonzalez-Mena (1997, p. 9) maintains that "your behaviours are determined by your values, which are cultural, familial and individual". Thus, parents and family play a fundamental role in the love, nurturance, support and guidance they provide to their children. This is further cultivated in the cultural norms and values indoctrinated during childhood.

"And my mother also gave me a clear direction in terms of my education" (**Family C, participant G2**).

"They gave us a clear direction regarding friends" (**Family C, participant G2**).

"I'm going to tell you my dad was a gentle, yet strict father and we received good guidance because we have not easily made wrong decisions" (**Family C, participant G2**).

Providing guidance and support can also be linked to open communication. Parent-child communication positively impacts trust and openness, as well as allows parents to provide guidance and support amid the challenges that children are confronted with in the environment (Chirkov, Ryan, Kim, & Kaplan, 2003). In most instances, the parents in this manner can help their children resolve any issues by finding solutions to address the problematic factors at hand (Chirkov et al., 2003). This alludes that open communication

165

strengthens the support and guidance provided by parents. The parent participants of this study indicated that providing guidance and support provides a platform for open communication where children share their thoughts and feelings, improving communication between parents and children.

> *"I said when my children were open with me and explained to me how he felt about anything, I would support him"* **(Family B, participant G3).**

Thus, the emotion coaching parenting style encourages children to express their feelings, while providing empathy and support. It also teaches methods to deal with processing negative emotions (Gottman, Katz, & Hooven, 1996). The disapproving parenting style, on the other hand, rejects the expression of negative emotions by judging, criticising, reprimanding, or punishing the child, which is linked to social, physiological, and behavioural outcomes in children (Katz, Maliken, & Stettler, 2012).

> *"Then my mom would know something is wrong – she would ask me and then I like no it's like nothing, but after a while she would ask me again, 'are you sure? – I can feel something is wrong' And then I tell her and then she tell my dad and then we talk about it and ask what happened – what did I do wrong – I would tell and then they would sort the problem out with me and then also with whoever the problem is at school and they are very supportive and just want me to be happy"* **(Family C, participant G3).**

The next section presents Theme 3, 'parent-child relationship'. The related sub-themes are discussed in the sub-sections that follow.

5.5 THEME 3: PARENT-CHILD RELATIONSHIP

Existing empirical research reveals that there are underlying determining parenting factors that are displayed during parenting styles and practices that either promote or hinder child-rearing, and contribute to the socialisation of children and child outcomes, as indicated in Baumrind's conceptualisation of parenting (Darling & Steinberg, 1993).

Prominent research points toward a progression of parenting that occurs successively between the parent and child (Hughes, 2009; Tuttle, Knudson-Martin, & Kim, 2012). Some parenting practices and approaches emphasise the significant importance of a relational

connection between parents and children (Hughes, 2009; Tuttle et al., 2012), whereas others contrast with models of hierarchical relationships between parent and child (Faber, 2002; Fish, 2000). Siegal and Hartzell (2004) suggest that even though parenting has historically been constructed hierarchically, more contemporary models emphasise parenting as a relationship. However, to truly understand the parent-child relationship, an understanding of parenting and the related parenting practices are required. The discussion of the themes, sub-themes, and categories are substantiated with literature and data excerpts from the participants' narrative interviews. The narratives information presented will either be confirmed, compared, or contrasted, and conclusions will be drawn from the relevant literature.

Recent medical literature draws attention to media exposure on children (American Academy of Pediatrics, 2013), indicating that uncontrolled exposure has harmful effects on behaviour and psychological well-being with increased exposure to violent, sexual, and other unhealthy content. Therefore, parental control and supervision of media use is imperative (American Academy of Pediatrics, 2013).

The first sub-theme of Theme 3 is presented next – 'building relationships'.

5.5.1.1 Sub-theme 3.1: Building relationships

Competence is a multifaceted and dynamic concept that refers to aspects that include the understanding of knowledge, clinical skills, interpersonal skills, problem-solving, clinical judgment, and the technical skills of various professions (Verma, Paterson, & Medves, 2006). *Competencies* are specific skills, traits, capabilities, and behaviours (Chase, 2010). Thus, *parental competence* may be understood as the abilities and skills of parents that affect the parent-child relationship; thus, *competency* is linked to the parent-child relationship and child-rearing, and ultimate outcomes.

Parental competence is described by the components of parents that illustrate what parents do and the parenting style used to do it. It is essential to include the support and control dimensions of parenting associated with child outcomes within understanding parenting competence (Maccoby & Martin, 1983). As aspects relating to parental support, child development, socialisation, control, behaviour, and functioning within environments are all to be considered in producing parental competence. Parental attributes directly associated with positive child outcomes and parental competence include cultural and environmental influences, parental support of children, and parent-child interactions in parenting (Schoenfelder, Sandler, Wolchik, & MacKinnon, 2011).

Furthermore, parenting competence is strengthened by parent-child supportive relations that formulate the positive parenting practices that encourage favourable childhood behaviours and activities in children (Johnson et al., 2014). The responsiveness of parents and their ability to be sensitive to the needs of their children are the determinants of infant attachment and later parent-child relationships and parent-child communication, which formulate the strong parent-child bonds (Cummings & Cummings, 2002). Thus, developing supporting, caring, and nurturing parent-child relationships is crucial to childhood outcomes, and furthermore, this parent-child relationship established continues throughout childhood into adulthood (Cummings & Cummings, 2002). This suggests that parental competence, support, nurturance, and communication all positively contribute to the longevity of favourable parent-child relationships.

Supporting parenting practices consist of the following responses and approaches to parent-child interactions: spontaneous physical affection; verbal statements of acceptance; praise, worth, and love; playing together; and supporting and encouraging child development (Bugental & Grusec, 2006; Locke & Prinz, 2002; Maccoby & Martin, 1983). Supporting parenting practices at earlier developmental stages of children require frequent, warm, verbal

interaction; stimulation of speech; avoiding negative reactivity; supporting social interactions; and scaffolding to encourage compliance (Edwards & Liu, 2002). Furthermore, parents in their supportive and socialisation roles protect children from risky people and circumstances and empower children with the knowledge to reduce risky situations (Bugental & Grusec, 2006). The responsibility of parents intensifies as children mature, and the parental tasks and responsibilities require more social engagement through parent-child relationship and communication to help children achieve appropriate, responsible, pro-social conduct, and nonaggressive conflict resolution behaviours (Bugental & Grusec, 2006).

In the study conducted, the following factors were identified as influencing the building of a parent-child relationship, namely: i) being available, ii) not being available, iii) fulfilling of both parental roles, iv) utilising family time as a way to ensure availability, and v) showing interest and getting to know your child.

These categories are described in more detail in the sections below.

5.5.1.1.1 Category 3.1.1: Being available

A lifelong attachment and bond are formed at birth. These are further strengthened during childhood, and continue throughout the life course of an individual (Moran, 2005). Bowlby (1953) emphasised that the quality of the connection determines the parent-child relationship, in that parents who are accessible, sensitive, supportive, and responsive to their child's needs developed long term secure relationships (Sumer, 2006). The mother and child attachment was strongly connected at 81%, and the mother and grandmother attachment reciprocity was 75%, which indicated strong maternal-child bonds over time (Benoit & Parker, 1994).

A critical component that was found in this study was that of building parent-child relationships and bebeing available. This was affirmed by the participants in Families A, B, and C, who stressed the importance of being available to one's children at all times; this

includes being supportive, providing a listening ear, and respecting children's viewpoints and opinions.

> *"You must always be there for your children, in times of need and at all times"* **(Family A, participant G2).**

> *"You need to be there for them if they need you - assist and support"* **(Family B, participant G2).**

> *"Well, they are always there to listen. They always listen, and they are respectful towards us, my brother and I think they are a very good example for us"* **(Family C, participant G3).**

The importance of parental availability may be associated with parental role models, parents set a good example and strengthen the parent-child relationship. This gives children a solid foundation from where they can discover, learn, and interact with their parents and environment (Bowlby, 1980). Thus, 'being available' contributes to building strong parent-child relationships. Thus, this study validates that the parent-child relationship, within the context of 'being available' can take on many different forms, and are related to the lived experiences, parental attitudes, and social norms that inform the parenting practices and intergenerational construction of families and communities. As it was evidently shown that parenting and developing good parenting competencies involves providing care, nurturing, education, and attention to ensure optimal child development. This was highlighted in the parenting factors outlined in theme 2, and this subsequently influences intergenerational transference of parenting between generations, within a South African context. Furthermore, this aspect also relays to the type of parenting style and approach , such as being available and involved versus uninvolved parenting, which ultimately determines a child's socialisation and emotional development, as this study also revealed that both physical and emotional care is essential parenting competency factors. This is due to the fact that an individual consists of diverse biopsychosocial factors that affect the child's growth therefore these, emotional and social development aspects are critical to ensure mental stability and overall well-being (Aunola & Nurmi, 2005). These skills, imparted and modelled by parents, are therefore

evidently linked to behaviour, traditions, beliefs, techniques, approaches, and attitudes, and

help children's development, and parents social and emotional competence too.

5.5.1.1.2 Category 3.1.2: Not being available

Parental unavailability was pointed out by the participants as affecting the parent-

child relationship. Sometimes parents are so consumed by their work and providing for their

child's basic needs, that they forget to take care of their child perhaps socially and

emotionally.:

> *"I think it's, parents, have to – they struggle with finding a job and whilst they get a job they need to work hard, and parent start to focus more on their job, because they just want the best for their children, but sometimes in the process of working so hard to provide for the children, they then forget that ok I have to take care of the child"* ***(Family C, participant G3).***

Thus, two distinct aspects are mentioned by the participants, namely: working parents

and an absent father, as some noted:

> *"When they were younger, he (father) was not interested in them"* ***(Family B, participant G2).***

> ***"****He was never there for them, as I will now say, what a father will do. He was never here"* ***(Family B, participant G2***).

This alludes to the physical and emotional care provided by fathers and concern over

absent parents, particularly fathers. The role of fathers has changed over time with fathers

taking on more active roles and responsibilities toward their children compared to previous

generations (Pleck & Pleck, 1997). However, in this study, the participants indicated that

absent fathers were evidently a challenge and limited building parent-child relationships

Consequently the absence of fathers may also impact on the role modelling the child receives

and future parenting enacted. The important role of fathers in the development and overall

adjustment of their children cannot be overstated enough (Geary & Flinn, 2001), in that

fathers add to their child's social, emotional, behavioural, language, and educational

development. This enhances the child's social functioning (Sarkadi, Kristiansson, Oberklaid,

& Bremberg, 2008) and the overall functioning and well-being of the family (Gage & Kirk, 2002).

5.5.1.1.3 Category 3.1.3: Fulfilling both parental roles

Family B participant experienced fulfilling both parental roles. The participant expressed that this experience was demanding, as she has to make sure everything is done and perform both parental roles of mother and father. This indicates that in married couples, roles are split, and each parent is responsible for respective parental tasks. However, in single-parent households, it is the responsibility of the present parent to perform all the responsibilities. This increased role of one parent in the absence of the other parent is becoming prevalent in the South African context and this study further validates this as one participant indicated:

> *"As in my children, Mommy has it, Mommy, I must be there, Mommy and that - I have to be all, I have to be everywhere. I have to play Mom and Dad"* (**Family B, participant G3**).

5.5.1.1.4 Category 3.1.4: Family time as way to ensure availability

The benefits of family rituals, occasions and traditions are that they contribute to establishing and building family relationship satisfaction (Spagnola & Fiese, 2007). In this study it became apparent that participants emphasized the importance of family time, as their views indicated that it provides a probable structure that guides the interaction, communication, responsibility, and behaviour of families, as well as create an emotional climate that supports early development of parent-child relationships, family ties, and socialisation as corroborated by (Sameroff & Fiese, 2000). Furthermore, it was demonstrated that family time foster the development and transference of family characteristics, attributes, goals and values across generations. Moreover, they regulate family practices to standard acceptable behavioural dimensions (Fiese et al., 2002; Lucyshyn et al., 2004); develop a

sense of belonging amongst family members; impact the formation of intrinsic and extrinsic pro-social behaviours (Spinrad & Gal, 2018); and build and strengthen family bonds and quality of attachment in families (Lieberman, 1979; Sen & Kavlak, 2012). This demonstrates that intergenerational transference of parenting and attachment within families is established and transferred through the interaction and social influence occurring between grandparents and parents, and subsequent transmission to G3 children.

Participants therefore emphasised the theme of family time, indicating a strong belief in eating and socialising together. Another participant, favours special outings, like a picnic, or fun family day to strengthen family ties and relationships.

The following participants' excerpts support our findings:

"But we always believed we should eat together" **(Family C, participant G2).**
"There were good childhood days like when we went to the beach - had fun swimming there, we took with a few things to eat and so nice, yes picnic and so on. Still today by the river like in the summer and we feel for a bit of togetherness and so, everyone is also discussing us - everyone makes a salad, and everybody brings meat and then we go" **(Family B, participant G2).**

"When we all have picnic together, we all visit, my mom is there, we are there, our children are there, their children are there. Then we're all there" **(Family B, participant G2).**

5.5.1.1.5   Category 3.1.5: Showing interest and getting to know your child

Positive descriptions – During the early developmental stages, parents have more control and involvement in their children's daily routines and activities, while during adolescence, they adopt a more supportive role. They remain involved and informed, and still monitor, care, guide, and support where necessary or required, as the child experiences greater autonomy and develops a sense of self-reliance (Allen & Land, 1999).

Participants further corroborated with international literature that showing interest and getting to know your child is essential to effective parenting practices, as presented below.

"See, I can really tell you another thing that parents now have to place or what parents are up to is the fact that you have to go, and you have to know your child so well. If there is a fault with that child, you should know" **(Family C, participant G2).**

"*You must bear knowledge of your children. You must know your child well - you must know him very well. You know exactly as the parent when your child is in trouble"* **(Family A, participant G2).**
"You know your child, and, in that regard, you can see that something is not right. Then the parent should talk, but if he starts to get quiet, I ask what's wrong again. Sometimes a child does not want to speak immediately, so you have to give them time to relax" **(Family A, participant G2).**

Furthermore, parents also indicated that showing interest in their child includes

getting involved and supporting their extramural activities and other interests.

"Since school days yes. My dad made effort, every Saturday, to go to field as well as my mom. Athletics, everything. They have always supported –- the whole family" **(Family A, participant G3).**

Yes, when he was in school, he did sports. He played Rugby, yes - I've always been watching him play. But not always, but I was always there for sports. My daughter was also interested in sports" **(Family A, participant G2).**

"*Sometimes, she (mother) does not need words, every so often, she knows me so well - she only has to look at my facial expressions, she would already know what to expect"* **(Family A, participant G3).**

"*Yes, no we went, they loved sports and me as well with my 'sigselwers' and the teachers always said that you're just like your grandmother - your grandmother was just as good at sports. And now they're just doing their sport and then we'll go see how they play and do their things on the field"* **(Family B, participant G1).**

"*Yes, I am very much involved as my little boy plays rugby –- I am there –- I support him. I always want to be there I want to be there even if they may play a game"* **(Family B, participant G3).**

"*I'll play with, kick with, play marbles whatever, because I want to be part"* **(Family B, participant G3).**

Therefore, these findings reveal that parental involvement, support, and supervision

contributes to positive parenting. Furthermore that positive parenting produces participation,

consistent parental supervision and control (Sheehan et al., 2017). This fosters the

development of a positive parent-child relationship and promotes higher life expectancy as it

reduces children's risky behaviours, substance abuse tendencies, and exposure or involvement

in violence (Cluver et al., 2018).

Negative description – The home environment shapes children's habits, communication, behaviours and social interactions, and responses within society (Vaughn, Martin, & Ward, 2018). It also impacts the child's socio-emotional difficulties, psychosocial environment, including home learning and family routines (Shah & Stewart-Brown, 2018). Furthermore, it enacts multiple levels of influence, i.e., through income gap or parent-child interactions, which in turn determine children's interests, academic performance, sporting activities, community involvement, and other associations (Vaughn et al., 2018). Parents are therefore key gatekeepers of the home environment (Vaughn et al., 2018).

> *"But this mother (referring to herself) was not interested in anything (sports and school activities), because there was no time for a person to be interested in in anything. I did not even graduate" (Family A, participant G1).*

5.5.1.2 Sub-theme 3.2: Parent-child communication

Various contributing factors can positively or negatively influence the parent-child communication. According to the participants' responses, the parent-child relationship is inclusive of: i) modelling positive communication, ii) open communication, iii) expressing love, and iv) poor communication. These are discussed in more detail below.

5.5.1.2.1   Category 3.2.1: Importance to show (model) positive communication

Participants expressed views indicated that parent-child relations are strengthened by positive communications and interactions that include parenting practices inclusive of warmth, support, affection, love, and attention. This in turn produces pro-social behaviours, co-operative interactions, and positive parent-child relationships that produces positive parenting and more likely to be transferred intergenerationally (Daniel, Madigan, & Jenkins, 2016; Spinrad & Gal, 2018). The following participants' excerpts are relevant here:

> *"Oh, and I do not like to curse. And I get very angry with a mommy who curses a child. I always say to the mommy, it's a sin - it will come back to you, and the child will not be harmed because it came out of your mouth" (Family A, participant G1).*

"My role has always been, as I say, to be the example in what I am saying - how I talk to them, is there encouragement or I'm pushing them down?" **(Family C, participant G1).**

5.5.1.2.2   Category 3.2.2: Open communication

As children mature, parents provide less physical affection and more dialogue to communicate feelings and information (Hartup & Laursen, 1991). Thus, in this study participants validated that open communication between parents and children was actively practiced and enhanced the parent-child relationship concerning trust, communication, support, and problem-solving. In most instances, a change in this form of parent-child relationship brings about the use of substances in children (Hartup & Laursen, 1991). Therefore, increased parental involvement and awareness of their child's whereabouts and other activities decrease child problem behaviour (Barber et al., 2005). This indicates that although children become older and mature, they continue to require emotional warmth and affection through communication and involvement from their parents over the entire life course of an individual in most instances.

This finding confirms that parent-child communication involves open and honest relationships, whereby children tell their parents everything. When sharing information, some teens only provide limited information, omit details, or only partially share what they want their parents to know (Smetana, Villalobos, Tasopoulos-Chan, Gettman, & Campione-Barr, 2009); others use avoidance, avoiding contact with parents and possible questions altogether (Mazur & Hubbard, 2004). Furthermore, girls tend to disclose more information and engage in less secrecy than boys (Keijsers, Branje, Frijns, Finkenauer, & Meeus, 2010); while mothers are more frequently approached and trusted with information than fathers (Smetana, Campione-Barr, & Metzger, 2006). This indicates that parent-child communication is an essential component of formulating strong parent-child relationships (Barnes & Olson, 1985). Participants' views on communication illustrated in support of the literature were:

"You know, we are very open - my two children and I, we are very open with each other. They talk about everything - that is how I have reared them. If there is a problem, then we can talk about it" **(Family A, participant G2).**

"Therefore, I always know where my children are. Even if it is 12 o'clock at night, they will call or send they a message" **(Family A, participant G2).**

"My mother and I, yes, we are open to everything. I share everything with her. Anything" **(Family A, participant G3).**

"We talk openly about sex and such kind of things. We had good conversations when I got my period and so on, and who are friends and so on. She (mother) had good conversations with me - if you have trouble come to me, do not stay away" **(Family B, participant G3).**

"They openly discuss. My dad tells us exactly how he feels about that topics and he remind us that this will be the consequences when I should come home and tell my dad that I'm pregnant or something like that" **(Family C, participant G3).**

5.5.1.2.3 Category 3.2.3: Expressing love

Part of good positive and open communication is the ability to express love and affection as a parent (Daniel et al., 2016). Participants experienced difficulty in expressing love in words and affection, as it was not strongly expressed by families and generations. It was reported that G1 parents, especially fathers, expressed themselves in words and used less emotional affection, while G2 and G3 parents (both mothers and fathers) increasingly express love and affection toward their children, albeit in different ways. Mothers were rated as more emotionally expressive than fathers and shown to be more verbally and non-verbally responsive to children's positive and negative emotions, except for anger (Dimberg & Lundquist, 1990), indicating maternal and paternal parental differences in expressing emotions, with females having greater sensitivity to recognise and respond to emotions than men (Biele & Grabowska, 2006). This is affirmed in the response below:

Every time we will tell each other how fond we are of each other and we give each other hugs" **(Family A, participant G2).**

5.5.1.2.4   Category 3.2.4: Poor communication

The emotional expression between parent and child is inclusive of verbal
(communications) and nonverbal (warmth and affection) intensity (Brody & Hall, 2000).
However, it appears that the parent-child communication may be affected when an outside
(like a boyfriend to the mother) factors into the family, disrupts parent-child communication,
and thus may contribute to poor parent-child communication developing. One parent
participant shared her experience as follows.

> *Because they are no longer open and come ask me (after mother became involved with*
> *another man" **(Family B, participant G2).***

> *Maybe things have also changed a little between us because of the friend I have" **(Family***
> ***B, participant G2).***

5.5.1.3 Sub-theme 3.3: Decision making

Studies recognised that paternal parenting is very influential in providing guidance
and takes the lead in decision making, as fathers more dominantly than mothers influence the
growth and development of children into well-adjusted adults and steer the course of the
family (Black, Dubowitz, & Starr, 1999; NICHD Early Child Care Research Network, 2004).
In addition, fathers shape their male children's paternal behaviour and independent
contribution as fathers to their children and family (Black et al., 1999; NICHD Early Child
Care Research Network, 2004). A participant from Family B recalls the husband as the
predominant decision-maker in the family; however, the couple does make decisions
collaboratively. This indicates the dominant role of fathers regarding decision making within
the family. This is supported by the following excerpts:

> *"The man is ultimately the one who makes the decision, and then we probably had to abided*
> *by it" **(Family B, participant G1).***

> *"Yes, both of us have made decisions – together" **(Family B, participant G1).***

5.5.1.3.1   Category 3.3.1: Encouraging children to make choices

Parents steer their children by expressing their expectations for their children as well as expecting them to be responsible in the autonomous choices they make (Black et al., 1999). Participants across Families A, B and C, and generations G1, G2 and G3 corroborated that parents encourage children to make their own choices, which is in turn transferred intergenerationally across families to inform latter parenting, as outlined in the excerpts below:

> *"Like me –- there are not really rules in the house, but so she (mother) raised us, she knows what's right and she knows what's wrong. So, if you do something then you know that there are consequences. So, it's on yourself. You know you have a house she should not have done what she did, why did she do it or so? She will not tell me what time I have to be at home"* (***Family A, participant G3***).

> *"At that time, they were still very young when he died (father) so they had to make their own decisions. What they wanted to do"* (***Family B, participant G2***).

> *"Yes, because it will not make me happy –- it will make me happy in a way, but I do not want my children to be unhappy just to please me. So, I want him to make his own decisions and I will support him for whatever he chooses, because it will make him happy in the end"* (***Family B, participant G3***).

> *"As he loves rugby, but I'm very concerned because he gets the fits and so. So, I'm worried about that. That's why I do not know now –- because now I tell him you're allowed to play - maybe he might get hurt. Then how then? Then I ask of him if he does not want to do anything else instead of rugby. Isn't there anything else? Then he says to me, I want to play chess. Then I said ok then you play chess –- I bought to the board that he could pick up at chess. But at school it is, but he's under 10 now so he has to play rugby for school and so on. I do not know what - he needs to make his choices, I will assist him either way"* (***Family B, participant G3***).

> *"Then I walk up to her –- Mommy they're all out tonight, can I go along? Then she says on one condition and that is very important. You can go, but if you're not at home at 11:00, I'll close my doors. So, it depends on you –- you can go, but by 11 o' clock you must make sure you are home. So, I just pushed myself that I am at home by 11:00, because otherwise I cannot go out again"* (***Family B, participant G3***).

On the contrary, participants also indicated that children were only allowed to make decisions at an older more mature age, and not before then. This was perhaps due to the responsibility that comes with decision making. With the input and guidance of parents, older children were afforded this opportunity. This also suggests that parents ultimately have the responsibility of teaching children how to make responsible decisions with the awareness and

understanding of the positives and consequences attached to the decisions. That children do not make choices is expressed in the excerpt below:

"No, the kids did not make any decisions" **(Family B, participant G1).**

The following section presents the next sub-theme of Theme 3 – 'dealing with conflict'.

5.5.1.4 Sub-theme 3.4: Dealing with conflict

As a sensitive matter, different parents and children approach conflict differently to find resolution and restore family relationships and family functioning (Cox, Owen, Lewis, & Henderson, 1989). Family C, participant G2 confirmed that families and parents deal with conflict in various ways, such as using communication and finding solutions collaboratively:

"He (husband) tells me what he thinks of me, but not anymore –– we differ many a times, but we can talk about it and get solutions to it" **(Family C, participant G2).**

5.5.1.4.1 Category 3.4.1: Parental conflict

A correlation exists between positive marital relationship and responsive parenting (Miller, Cowan, Cowan, Hetherington, & Clingempeel, 1993). Conversely, a conflicted, discordant marriage contributes to problem behaviours in children and affects the parent-child relationship (Erel & Burman, 1995). This means that the relationship between the maternal mother and paternal father is strongly correlated with parenting practices, and ultimately affects child well-being. Furthermore, it was found that responsive, sensitive, and warm parenting is increased when parents engage in communication and explore solutions to conflictual matters; in addition, respecting each other reduces marital conflict (Volling & Belsky, 1992).

Marriage is an essential aspect of parenting as it involves the maternal and paternal parent's fundamental contributions to child-rearing. There is a connection between parenting

practices and child outcomes, and a connection between parenting practices and marital conflict.

When parents are unable to mutually agree on the parenting styles and parenting practices to collaboratively enforce their children's upbringing and household functioning, it often results in marital conflict, and consequently, behavioural problems in children. Parental conflict directly impacts the child's behaviours, parent-child relationship, and later their own parenting perceptions and practices (Shamir, Schudlich, & Cummings, 2001). Therefore, ineffective parenting styles can also serve as a mediator between marital conflict and maladaptive child outcomes, as parents due to the conflict engage less effectively in parenting practices, such as discipline (Chen & Johnston, 2012). Furthermore, parental conflict produces feelings of emotional insecurity and related psychological problems (Cummings & Davies, 2002). Fathers thus compensate for what mothers' lack in their parenting practices and skills, and provide parental involvement and support in their children's daily functioning.

A middle ground and similarities in parenting should be established to eliminate marital disharmony and conflict (Rinaldi & Howe, 2012). Thus, maternal and paternal parenting styles may determine child outcomes and marital relations (Rinaldi & Howe, 2012), highlighting a correlation between parental conflict, parenting practices, and a child's behaviours.

It is apparent that couples can be from vastly different backgrounds and parental upbringings, which in turn influences how one parents. This suggests that couples do quarrel and experience differences, but this happens outside the knowledge and environment of the children. Also, that couples collaboratively find a resolution for conflict through communication, mutual discussion, and collaborate in decision making in the way forward, as outlined by one participant:

> *"No, a person could never hear my mom and my dad scramble or fight or whatever. I never knew they scold, but then my mother said you probably think we do not scold, but we do*

scold, but we were not doing it in front of you. Because it's not meant for your ears" (**Family B, participant G3).**

The next sub-theme of Theme 3 is presented below – 'discipline'.

5.5.1.5 Sub-theme 3.5: Discipline

Another aspect of the parent-child relationship is the ability of parents to discipline children inductively. This includes explaining the impact of misbehaviour on others, and how children perceive parental actions and messages in the process of receiving discipline (Morris et al., 2013). Parental monitoring, another aspect of parental competence, includes the parental knowledge of children's whereabouts and various activities (Stattin & Kerr, 2000). This knowledge is obtained mostly through child disclosure and other sources that help reduce delinquency behaviours (Stattin & Kerr, 2000). Morris et al., (2013) further indicated that a warm parent-child relationship was associated with increased child self-disclosure which improved parental monitoring and support as well as strengthened the parent-child relationship. Other beneficial interactive control methods associated with discipline and good childhood outcomes include "privilege withdrawal, contingent rewards, being direct and firm, joint decision making, avoiding overprotection, using logical and natural consequences, and managing unsupervised time as well as peer and sibling relationships" (Johnson et al., 2014, p.96).

It is remarkable to note the participants validated that authoritative parenting is associated with the ideal outcomes in child-rearing as per the excerpts below:

"They understand how I feel, and they take my opinion into consideration" (**Family C, participant G3).**

"I allowed them to decide and then to tell me what they have decided" (**Family A, participant G2).**

This may be because authoritative parenting provides appropriate limitations and boundary setting, and consistently implements rules and guidelines for structured

environments and discipline (Lewis, 1981). Other significant characteristics of authoritative parenting include parents giving good reasons for rules and providing reasons for discipline and punishment enacted; allowance is made for children to provide input into the modification and improvement of rules when and where appropriate; an open reciprocal communication process is created in the parent-child relationship, which may positively increase children's compliance (Lewis, 1981).

The two categories related to this sub-theme are presented below.

5.5.1.5.1 Category 3.5.1: Using communication

Communication is used to find a solution to experienced family challenges and family grievances (Cox et al., 1989). Family C, participant G1 stated that their family deals with problems by holding a family meeting to discuss and resolve the matter, explained as follows:

> *"If there is a problem in the family, everyone is called together, and the story is unpacked on the table – How come and why is there – talk now"* ***(Family C, participant G1).***

5.5.1.5.2 Category 3.5.2: Avoidance

Some families use avoidance to cope with problematic situations. Avoidance is described as "a way of handling conflict by ignoring it, pretending it isn't really happening, or communicating indirectly about the situation" (McCornack, 2013, p. 255). However, using communication to resolve conflict appears to be the best way to deal with parent-child conflict or disagreements. This was confirmed as follows:

> *Conflict, no –- I think we'd rather stay out of each other's way. Yes, we avoid each other instead"* ***(Family A, participant G3).***

> *I'll just do - I'm just going on with my own stuff. I say the little houses are truly a good idea, because you cannot go to bed angry or not because she's moving – you can't avoid touching when you pass each other. You cannot live angry like that. So, there is no other choice, we need to work out things so that we ....")* ***(Family A, participant G3).***

The next sub-theme of Theme 3 is described below

5.5.1.6 Sub-theme 3.6: Discipline: A form of love

Discipline and the associated disciplining practices are a universal aspect of socialisation in all cultures and families (Devi, 2014). The various strategies implemented depends on the parenting style adopted (Devi, 2014). For instance, parenting practices may vary from physical punishment, threats, and love-withdrawal (authoritarian), or may be inductive of warmth, attention, affective (love), and reasoning (authoritative). Authoritarian parenting, as discussed in Chapter 3, provides warmth and is responsive to the needs of children by outlining boundaries and expectations, but similarly providing warmth and affection (love) (Devi, 2014). Family B, participant G3 confirms this, noting that although her mother was a very strict parent, she still received affection and immense proportions of love. This shows that parents can be strict and simultaneously show love and affection; and that discipline may be used in correlation to affection.

"My mom was very strict, and we got a lot of love" **(Family B, participant G3).**

Discipline informs children of their parents/caregivers expectations through constructive communication in relation to their behaviour and the consequences for misconduct (Jansen, 2013). Participants indicated that they use communication as a form of discipline to provide guidelines and enforce rules; and explain/give reasons for inflicting punishment, expressed as follows:

"Chat ... you give a clear direction. Every house has its rules" **(Family C, participant G2).**

"Look, I will now give them a word or two or say a few harsh words hey, then they won't talk to me. Before they go to sleep, mommy is back with them. Mommy is sorry, but you were wrong there, so you must listen when I speak. Next time it will not happen. If you want something, then you will ask me –- if you want to do something then you will ask me. Do not do your own things. Mommy does not know where you are. I will be responsible if you have to overcome something. Then they understand me. Not (scream) where were you! I do not know where you are! I have to sit down and sort it out before going to bed" **(Family B, participant G3).**

"Yes, yes, my dad is a very strict person. And he will always let us whatever we .... For example, I've been in an argument, for instance –- now, I'm moody in the house. Nobody knows what the arguing was about, so now I'm pretending of being moody. That's not right,

then my dad will tell me, look here, that is wrong –- what's this now really about?" (**Family B, participant G3**).

5.5.1.6.1 Category 3.6.1: One parent responsible for discipline

In many instances, the model of discipline is articulated in one or other form as "tough love" such as school and household settings, like single-parent households. However, the means of discipline is maintained and includes a deep sense of care and compassion for the well-being of children (Jansen, 2013). This suggests that forms of discipline vary according to household parenting formations and contextual settings. Considering the rural context of this study it was noteworthy that there were varying opinions among participants regarding discipline and the parent that assumes responsibility for discipline. Family B, participant G1 indicated that depending on the character of a parent, whether strict or soft, the stronger and stricter parent would assume the responsibility for disciplining the children. This could mean that within dual-parent households, one parent assumes responsibility for discipline above another parent.

> *"No, it was just like I told you, I had to wait until the husband came to hit him"* (**Family B, participant G1**).
> *"He (father of children) was a very gentle man, but I was the strict one"* (**Family B, participant G1**).
>
> *"My dad was not the one, but my mother was the strong one. She was the one who - she reared us very strict. If our parents said something should be done, then it had to be done"* (**Family B, participant G2**).

In terms of growing single parent households, one participant pointed out that in the case of an absent parent, the single parents assume the role of both the mother and the father (dual roles) to ensure responsibility for discipline and affection. This was corroborated by Schmuck (2013) who stated that within single-headed households, responsibilities for ensuring disciplined is increased.

> *"I have to play mom and dad"* (**Family B, participant G3**).

5.5.1.6.2 Category 3.6.2: Parents compliment and support each other

Evident in participants' responses was that participants were able to clearly indicate the disciplinarian parent, displaying authoritarian parenting style. Furthermore, parents also ensured that children understood whom the disciplinarian was to approach. Participants sentiments coincide with literature that fathers are more often than not identified as the primary disciplinarian. Although changes have occurred with parents sharing the responsibility in fulfilling various roles of discipline (Schmuck, 2013), fathers as disciplinarians is still strongly evident, but also couples being supportive in each other's roles as expressed in the participants views:

> *"Man, one time I told him (father) just you dear lift you hand for my daughter. Then he did not hit the child, he took her by the chest, and he threw her in the air and she fell. I'm telling you to keep your hands away from my children. Then I decided there and then he gets too angry. I said, you are fighting with the child as if she's an adult. He said that he was sorry that he got so angry, I will never hit your children again. You need to discipline them yourself. And that is how I've always disciplined them"* **(Family A, participant G1).**

> **"**Look, if you ask me now, I'm a very soft person. Where the man says no, and his no remains no. This is very important - a child still needs a fatherly hand on him" **(Family C, participant G2).**

> *"So, I'll always say go ask your dad first and then he will say what did your mother say? Then they say mommy said I had to come to Daddy first"* **(Family C, participant G2).**

> *"So that is with my mom normally use ... to my dad because my mom is like a softy and my dad is like no, no it is like my dad would say something and my mom would go like, ok just leave it and that is like no....I have to tell this to them, they have to learn, so"* **(Family C, participant G3).**

> *"Even though my dad makes the decisions, my mom always stands by him. She doesn't say ok no just do it even though your dad says no?"* **(Family C, participant G3).**

> *"I would ask my mom first – because I know she would say yes, but now she is like ask your dad. Then he would say, 'your mom sends you? We've already discussed it, she said yes and now you just have to ask me' and then sometimes he would say yes and sometimes he would say no and then it would be no, there is no argument about it"* **(Family C, participant G3).**

Value of parental relationship acknowledged

A strong parental relationship was positively correlated with marriage, strengthening parenting and child outcomes (Zvara et al., 2015). The value children place on the union of a couple through marriage was affirmed by one participant as follows:

"I think yes, the fact that they are married – they have a really strong relationship" (**Family C, participant G3**).

5.5.1.6.3 Category 3.6.3: Punishment

Parenting and parenting style is recognised as a determinant of child outcomes, and associated behaviour problems, conduct disorder, and risky lifestyle choices in children are associated with lack of punishment (Shah, 2018). It is therefore crucial that parents adopt forms of discipline with related punishment to ensure socially accepted mannerisms and behaviours of children (Shah, 2018), as indicated below:

"If you're just watching what he's doing and not, and not disciplining him, then he's not going to be right" (**Family B, participant G2**).

"I'll tell you you're not going to go there –- and yet still you went to play there, I just told you – no, I hit them, no, I hit them out. These days, the children cannot be beaten anymore" (**Family A, participant G2**).

"I do not know if it is protecting in a way or not. She asked us once – we wanted to smoke, and she caught us once. Then she called us all, she gave us our cigarettes and then she told us 'you're smoking it now'. And a glass of beer – then I choke and since then I never smoked. I drink but I do not smoke, and I will never do it again. I will not do that again" (**Family A, participant G3**).

"If we – my mom said we had to go get wood, now we take too long in the woods and then we'll be playing there for a while, and then we'll be back late, and my mother will scold at us and we'll get hidings" (**Family B, participant G1**).

"She had a way she looked at you then she does not need to hit because we know" (**Family A, participant G3**).

"I also hit a lot, then they would say, to this day still, they will say my father did not hit us, but you, mother, you beat us a lot" (**Family B, participant G1**).

"Many times, I'm strict, many times I will let things go and I would warn them of what I'm going to do if they're not going to listen. So, they must accept it, or they have to go on with their little things – I told you and you do not listen, so now you have to get punished" (**Family B, participant G3**).

"I hit him on his hands. Because they are small – there's a saying that says: 'bend the tree while he is small'" (**Family B, participant G3**).

Some concluding remarks are provided below

5.6 CONCLUSION

This chapter provided an in-depth discussion and analysis of the parent-child relationship and its related components, coincided with literature and participants' responses. Nine participants and three families (Families A, B, and C) across three generations (Generation one (G1), Generation two (G2), and Generation three (G3) residing in Genadendal took part in this study. This study therefore comprised three generational (intergenerational) quality parent-child relationships. The empirical data were discussed in three main themes and several sub-themes and categories which were delineated according to the responses given by the participants. The themes and categories represent the parents' perceptions, beliefs, understandings, and experiences of parenting and the parent-child relationship across the three generations.

To briefly state, a number of competencies and parenting factors were described as essential for effective child-rearing and child positive outcomes. The importance of parenting practices, however, cannot be overstated, having life-long implications for children throughout their advancement from childhood to adulthood, affecting their ability to cope, regulate emotions, and manage their lives.

Positive parenting was associated with healthy child outcomes and skill development needed for later in life, whereas negative parenting was correlated with negative, destructive emotional experiences and emotional responses, disrupting emotion regularity (Creswell, Apetroaia, Murray, & Cooper, 2013), and giving rise to problem behaviours.

Finally, this study indicated that three-generational (intergenerational) quality parent-child relations are ongoing among families, demonstrating intergeneration transference and continuity in parent-child quality relatedness.

CHAPTER 6

THE ENVIRONMENTAL INFLUENCES

6.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter focused on the parent-child relationship. This chapter shifts to the fundamental importance of the influence of the environment on parenting. Consideration is given to contextual factors of the environment and other contributing factors that influence parents parenting, such as skills, abilities, and experiences that impact on the intergenerational transference of parenting. This chapter also looks at the relationship between parenting and the environment, and how these associations and connections that are formed contribute to parenting experiences, functioning, outcomes, and future relationships articulated with the environment and significant others, such as their children, siblings, peers, teachers, and other adults that co-function and influence socialisation within the environment. The ensuing discussion is arranged under two broad themes, and their related sub-themes and categories, as outlined in Table 6.1. The chapter closes with a few concluding remarks.

Table 6.1 Environmental Influences – Themes, Subthemes, and Categories

Themes	Sub-themes	Categories
1. Environmental influence on parenting	1.1. Community and family members supporting each other	
	1.2. Community lifestyle	1.2.1. Peer influences
		1.2.2. Safety and security issues
	1.3. Lack of opportunities	1.3.1. Lack of opportunities and poverty-related challenges
	1.4. Substance abuse	1.4.1. Substance abuse affecting parenting
2. Problem behaviours of children	2.1. Parental and home influence	
	2.2. Lack of spiritual guidance	
	2.3. Lack of discipline	

6.2 THEME 1: ENVIRONMENTAL INFLUENCES ON PARENTING

Emergent literature suggests that parenting practices and attributes change over time and contexts depending on various factors (Lubiewska, 2019). These factors such as

children's situations and experiences, familiarities, involvements, and knowledge are all influences on parenting (Jooste, 2012). These influential factors further contribute to the changes in parenting (Bowers, 2014; Holden & Miller, 1999). Additional research supports the ecological context and environmental dynamics as the most dominant factors determining variation in parenting across parents (Holden & Miller, 1999). In terms of the former, contextual factors are essential to competent parenting and contribute towards children's outcomes. Therefore, parents make every effort to empower themselves to become competent in the various areas of parenting to ensure they provide the best parenting practices to benefit their children's functioning, well-being, and ultimate outcomes (Bradley, 2002). Parent-child relationships develop as parents strive towards further lifelong competency in the various capacities of parenting by personally equipping themselves or seeking assistance to ensure best child outcomes. In terms of the latter, it is pertinent to consider the ecological circumstantial influences on parenting practices, as well as the parent-child interactions for improved beneficial parenting practices.

Other environmental factors to consider include the noise level, suitability of the environment for growth and development, environmental resources, and community facilities, as well as determining a stable home environment that will provide minimal and predictable change (Bradley, 2002). Parenting practices and the parent-child relational influence may be further impacted by other factors such as teenage parenthood, parental stress, and conflict between first- and second-generation parents (Belsky, 1984; 2007; Bornstein, 2006). These various environmental influences may be considered as contributing factors that strengthen child outcomes, stimulate positive family relations, and produce constructive parenting and supportive parent-child relations.

6.2.1 Sub-theme 1.1: Community and family members supporting each other

The key characteristics of family-centred practices include the collaboration and mutual support of families by community members (Dunst, 2017). Support may be provided by linking families with various community support structures. These may include programmes designed to strengthen families, such as teaching families how to treat others with dignity and respect, and providing related resources and communal support to produce optimal parenting and child outcomes (Dunst, 2017), to mention a few examples. The correlated support between families and community members was further supported by participants who indicated that community and family members support each other in Genadendal. For instance, siblings would assist with child-rearing to enable other siblings to work. In addition, community members would help rear and discipline a child, even if they were not the biological parent, highlighting the role of the community in parenting and caregiving. However, this has changed somewhat over the years, as younger generations do not adhere to discipline imposed by elders or other parents in the community. Participants reports therefore account to the changes regarding continuities and discontinuities occurring within communities regarding secondary generations understanding and responses to the traditional community practices and support, but similarly highlight the caring nature of the community and families members to offer support like these siblings caring for one another's children. This is supported in the following excerpts:

*"However, those days I did not have my own house. Those days I was still staying with mom in their house. There was always someone who looked after our children. This one had already looked after mine when I was working, and the other sister looked after my daughters and she cared for my son when I had to work." (**Family A, participant G2**).*

*"Same as if you got me along the way and I've done something wrong, you'll spank me. And when I got to my mom and complained, I'll get another spanking" (**Family A, participant G3**).*

Furthermore, care and support were also shown by assisting the elderly in the community. Family B, participant G1 reflected that she cared for the elderly in many ways when she was younger by fetching water for them, cleaning their homes, and changing their bedding. She did this out of the goodness of her heart, without expecting anything in return, as shown in the extract below:

*"I've also done such a lot for old people who have been old and fragile. Take them water – at that time you still had to draw water from the ditch and the rivers for drinking and consumption. Always considering old people who cannot do anything for themselves any longer, then you go clean their house, pull off their bedding and wash it out and, using the clean bedding, cover it again. Make sure that their houses are clean and tidy. Many old people have greatly praised me for that. Not that I had to do it, I wanted to do it myself and by my own free will" (**Family B, participant G1**).*

However, the participant further expressed that Genaal has changed, as the communal spirit of love and care among each other is not like it used to be. This suggests that deviations have taken place over time, and between generations, and previous practices and ideologies are being adapted or changed.

*"No, it's not that old Genaal like it was previously – they have changed. It is no longer the old Genaal that love that existed between the people ... We are sitting here today and drinking coffee that time until evening then we would head back home. So, you no longer experience this between people." (**Family B, participant G1**).*

Thus, there is a clear indication that the socialisation of communities is closely linked, and the development of parenting styles and parenting practices across cultures functions in a bidirectional nature and within the ecological framework system (Morris et al., 2013).

Several authors suggest that the bidirectional nature of socialisation is found between the parent and child, as well as the family and the residing environmental context. These influence the development of the child as well as future competencies (Morris et al., 2013; Bugental & Grusec, 2006; Patterson & Fisher, 2002). For instance, parents' supportive social network and other available resources formulate the bidirectional influences that provide

support by encouraging parenting practices, enhancing child functioning and parent well-being (Morris et al., 2013). On the other hand, a child related environmental element, such as emotional reactivity, will also produce harsh parenting practices and, as a result, worsen the child's emotional reactivity and coping abilities (Morris et al., 2013). Therefore, this bidirectional interactional nature is paramount to conceptualising parental competencies and developing adequate parental functioning within the contextual environments and connectedness to community life to include the influences, networks, and support.

6.2.2 Sub-theme 1.2: Community lifestyle

The lifestyles of individuals include their health and well-being, and social relations between community members. These play a role in informing their behaviours, resources, and other orientations that are in response to their social, cultural, and economic environment (Abel, Cockerham, & Niemann, 2002). At a community level, and especially during the developmental phase of adolescence, "lifestyles of individuals start to unfold in social and community environments, where opportunities for constructive leisure play an important role" (García-Poole, Byrne & Rodrigo, 2017, p. 2). The lifestyles of individuals are distinctive to developing social relations, and participants' responses emphasise the uniqueness of the Genadendal lifestyle that positively influences child rearing. Although the participants typically found Genadendal to be a friendly, respectful, and caring environment, they shared that it has been tainted by negative City influences. This indicates that there is varying child rearing differences in the rural as compared to urban communities. Nevertheless, participants perceived it to be safer to live in the rural than the City(rural), as it provides more peace and freedom, expressed as follows:

"Of course, Genaal played a role. If I wonder that maybe I should have stayed in another place, what I see now that I go to a lot, I am quite grateful that I grew up in Genaal. Because it's quiet, it's peaceful. You do not have to be afraid to send your child to the shop and to say, oh, you never know if your child will return, but here your child is safe, safe." ***(Family A, participant G2).***

"I think in Genaal, like us, what Genaal is, we are more respectful. We greet the people; we all know each other. If someone needs help, we will always help. But what I now noticed in the Cape with the friends I've got there. People live past each other. There is no respect" (**Family A, participant G3**).

"I think I have a little bit more freedom here, because here it is still fine to just walk I think in town it is more dangerous because there is a lot of shooting and like my brother was being robbed there" (**Family C, participant G3**).

6.2.2.1 Category 1.2.1: Peer influences

It was established through participants responses that children are influenced and impacted by multiple attachment relationships, such as peers, parents and teachers. These sentiments were further corroborated by literature that supported that peer associations and peer influences contribute to the functioning and wellness of children (Laible, Carlo, & Roesch, 2004). They also play a role in the actions, activities, and behaviours of children, expressed as follows:

"I think the children has been affected by other children in this society – they have this gangster attitude and they have no respect and they just – it's like they just think ag I can just do what I want – its' a grandmother or it's just this person – it's not my mom" (**Family C, participant G3**).

"I always say it's the friends that influence that child. At home they are like angels around you, but when they are with their friends, then they are very different, then you hear your child was so –- then I would say: no, my child was not like that." (**Family B, participant G3**).

Another participant indicated that her son smokes dagga due to the influence of his friends/peers, thus drawing attention to the salience of peer influence on substance use.

"The youngest smoke marijuana and it is the friends he got involved with." (**Family B, participant G2**).

Overbearing (authoritarian) parenting was associated with distrust in peers, feelings of isolation from peers, and poor peer communication (Bergin, et al., 2003). This indicates that although peers are highly influential, parents may be able to reduce their influence by being more involved and influential in their parenting practices. This directly related to parent-child relational aspect and expectations placed on children. This is confirmed below:

"My thing is, I always say, bring your buddies home so that mommy can meet them, and I want to know who are their parents that I can say, but those are good people. That boy must first come home before I will let you go there (allow you to associate) because I want to see how he is with my own eyes" (**Family B, participant G3**).

Thus, one may deduce that greater parental involvement may allow parents to regulate their children's friendship groups to ensure their safety.

6.2.2.2 Category 2.2.2: *Safety and security issues*

The safety and security of individuals is a major concern due to rising welfare issues and factors impacting their environments (South African Police Service, 2017). According to The ("Services | SAPS (South African Police Service)," n.d.), the government prioritises the safety and security of rural communities in South Africa. Strategies have been adopted to create safer and more secure rural communities that are particularly vulnerable to violence and stock theft ("Services | SAPS (South African Police Service)," n.d.). In addition to the above issues, the participants raised other concerns jeopardising their safety and security, ascribed mainly to City influences, such as child rape, abduction, gangsterism, and drugs, expressed as follows:

"Look Genaal is a small place, but Genaal is getting rough. Children are disappearing and are raped, so you may think that it does not happen here, but it's happening here now too." (**Family B, participantG3**).

"We have such effects even of hooligan element." (***Family C, participant G1***).

Other factors hindering the peace and safety of the community include limited employment growth, opportunities, and job prospects, to which attention now shifts. It appears that the varying City influences has a detrimental effect on the functioning of rural small-town communities.

6.2.3 Sub-theme 1.3: Lack of opportunities

The functioning and advancement of families are strongly influenced by opportunities, such as schooling, and other learning and skills development related opportunities. Additional factors hindering the progress of families include gender, race, family support, and social-economic status (Ramey & Ramey, 2000). Participants highlighted the limited employment opportunities in Genadendal. This results in many seeking employments in other neighbouring towns or in the City. Leaving Genaal and pursuing tertiary education or work in the City was not always perceived negatively, although in some instances it was described as affecting the presence of parents and their parenting practices. Furthermore, the lack of employment also impacts families' abilities to provide, sometimes leading to poverty-related conditions, expressed as follows:

"Yes, but only one thing was never in Genaal. There was never work in Genaal. You always had to go out. That was one thing." (***Family A, participant G2***).

Thus, circumstantial factors linked to limited opportunities take account of poverty relating to socio-economic status, educational opportunities, and employment vs. unemployment of parents.

Employment and Parenting

Many changing factors across cultures and families have impacted the employable nature of parents. Contemporary households often comprise dual-income families. This is particularly due to the cost of maintaining current lifestyles. Parenting comes with a hoard of responsibilities related to child care expenses to cater for various activities, needs, and essentials to ensure children's optimal functioning and holistic well-being, i.e., food, shelter, education, and recreation. Furthermore, parents assume an array of roles whether farming, cooking, cleaning, or teaching; however, payment or remuneration for work is at the core of ensuring that children's needs are met during parenting (Repetti & Wang, 2014).

Pre-1970's, parental life in the United States was perceived along gendered parenting roles – mothers were classified as stay at home workers who performed nurturing and household responsibilities, while fathers were regarded as the breadwinners and financial providers of the family within the paid labour force (Repetti & Wang, 2014). However, a shift took place in 1970's, with an influx of middle-class married women entering the workforce and continuing to work after the birth of their children (Repetti & Wang, 2010). In this regard, parent–child attachment is illuminated by an Australian study that indicated that the attachment levels of infants vary in relation to the duration that it takes for mothers to return to work. It was found that the longer the mothers were at home, the less attached children appeared to be (Harrison & Ungerer, 2002). In addition, employable mothers who returned to work within the first nine months showed to be beneficial for positive child outcomes (Harrison & Ungerer, 2002). Thus, the child reared by employed mother's portrayed positive behavioural and emotional outcomes in childhood.

Moreover, economic models emphasise the benefits of dual family incomes and recognise the positive outcome of financial contributions on the well-being and functioning of individuals (Repetti & Wang, 2014). Furthermore, research shows the detrimental effects of parental joblessness on the functioning and well-being of the family, and the strain it

places on the everyday functioning of children and parents' ability to provide (Repetti & Wang, 2010). In some instances, the involvement of fathers, and their contact and relationships formulated with their children are affected by the financial contributions made to the child's necessities and other requirements (Bianchi & Milkie, 2010). Thus, wage earning parents provide a multitude of benefits for families and even impact on the parent-child relationship. It has been identified that a better financial position due to income generating households helps produce material resources, safer neighbourhoods, and more stable living conditions (Repetti & Wang, 2014). Consequently, parental job loss exacerbates the stress of families as general needs go unmet, subsequently distorting parents' view of their parenting abilities (Evans & Wachs, 2009). This subsequently distorts parents' view of their parenting abilities to care, provide and rear their children. In addition, two-parent homes are likely to be better off financially than one-parent homes (Oyserman, Radin, & Saltz, 1994).

"We've always worked like this. I came home each night and he would come home for weekends and I came home each night –- every night." (**Family A, participant G2**).

This new stance taken by mothers raised concerns relating to whether working mothers may be affecting children (Bianchi & Milkie, 2010). However, this study revealed that dual earning households are necessary. Also encouraged that younger generations adopt an attitude that they are required to work even if it is means smaller jobs or helping someone. The following excerpts have reference:

"I worked –- taught in Grabouw and Daddy had to be there in the city –- he is a wood mechanic and... but we pushed through with our children and we placed them in his mommy and daddy's care during the day." (**Family C, Participant G1**).

"But here in Genadendal are not really job opportunities here. You have to go out (of Genaal) to work and so." (**Family B, participant G2**).

"It's been difficult. They do not think like our parents thought those days. There's no work, you can at least do something for someone. You may earn in order to eat." (**Family C, participant G1**).

Lack of opportunity does not necessarily have a negative impact. The following excerpt expresses this sentiment.

"Many times, it's people that had it a bit more difficult growing up, it's them that thrive than others who had it a bit easier." (**Family C, participant G1**).

Another participant indicated that hard work and sacrifices were needed to improve their lives and step out of the norm of assuming labour work, and this was achieved through furthering their education. Thus, education was highlighted as an aspect that improves the living conditions and opportunities of individuals.

"And she (mother) had one of 2 things to do, and it was either to learn in order to become something in life. She may also decide that she is going to work on one of the local farms." (**Family C, participant G2**).

Furthermore, parents divulged that their children dropped out of school due to negative peer associations and influences. Dropping out of school impedes their ability to pursue career and employment opportunities. This is supported by Lynch and Kaplan (2000) who state that schooling and income impact on people's socio-economic status. This shows a distinctive correlation between education and socio-economic conditions, that the one will inform and determine the other.

"I also did not have much schooling because, we, my daddy was also middle-aged, and I also had to go out to help with rearing the little ones left behind." (**Family B, participant G1**).

6.2.3.1 Category 3.3.1: Lack of opportunities and poverty-related challenges

For Ramey and Ramey (2000), the education level achieved by individuals will often determine the opportunities provided and employment afforded. Schooling and employment

opportunities are more likely to elevate individuals and families to a better status and provide

some form of financial stability (Ramey & Ramey, 2000). The converse will most often result

in poverty related challenges and affect the quality of living, family functioning, parent-child

relations, and impact on individuals' interaction and responses to the environment (Egeland

et al., 1993; Steinberg, Darling, Fletcher, Brown, & Dornbusch, 1995; Fagot & Gauvain,

1997). Therefore, the influence of parents, the family environment, and the opportunities

within the family and associated environment are considered the most important influences

on an individual's life, opportunities, and aspirations (Duckworth & Sabates, 2005). In recent

years, there has been an evident change in the dynamics of the family and environmental

influences, which includes the learning, schooling, and further skills developmental that

occurs with individuals and families (Ramey & Ramey, 2000). It was found that parent-child

relationships in relation to environmental factors stimulated family functioning as a unit and

inspired value placed on cognitive outcomes such as learning, education, and employment

(Duckworth & Sabates, 2005). This suggests that there are strong correlations between

learning, education, and employment, and therefore, if any of these areas are challenged or

compromised, such as education, it may result in limited employment opportunities. In this

study, participants' responses indicate that the lack of opportunities and poverty-related

challenges in Genadendal are often linked to poverty related challenges, as peoples' earning

capacity is minimal and the family is dependent on the few rand for their needs. Furthermore,

as expressed below, participants highlighted the negative impact and influence

unemployment has on parenting in Genadendal:

"I had to wait until he gets back. I slept lots of nights with them until he comes home on Fridays, in every arm a sick child. In each arm, I had to lay through the night with them until I can get to a doctor, to wait for the few pennies he brings. That they can get to a doctor." ***(Family B, participant G1)***.

*"The oldest one had a Standard 1, had to leave school so that she can assist me with their cleanliness and food and so on - cooking and so on. But she left school and the others can go to school." (**Family B, participant G1**).*

The sub-theme of substance abuse is discussed next.

6.2.4 Sub-theme 3.4: Substance abuse

Another external environmental factor identified was substance abuse. Participants made connections between substance abuse, lack of employment, and the subsequent poverty experienced by families and communities as a result. Participants especially brought to light the influence of alcohol as an environmental factor and how it explicitly affects parenting and the functioning of families, as indicated below.

*"I do not know, today you get all these drinking places, and the parents are drinking so much - it's almost impossible for them to look after the children and care for the children." (**Family B, participant G1**).*

Therefore, showing a clear connection between poverty and substance abuse, as well as parents abilities to provide for their children. In addition, there also appears to be a close connection between socio-economic status (SES) and poverty and the related effects on parenting, child-rearing, and child outcomes This association between SES and poverty is a major predictor of financial stress for parents, and this parental strain is most often transferred and experienced by the 2nd generation adult children within their own experiences of parenting (Bowers, 2014; Conger, Belsky & Capaldi, 2009; Jooste, 2012).

It was further reported that the problem of substance abuse is intensified when people are unemployed and live in poverty as one participant said:.

*"Unemployment is actually what is affecting parenthood, a negative effect. And you can see here in Genadendal." (**Family C, participant G1**).*

This may suggest that substance abuse and its effects on parenting is attributed to social economic conditions experienced within rural communities like Genaal. The consumption of substances is also reportedly linked to escaping the low socio-economic conditions, of living in a small rural community (Smyth, Sheehan & Fehlberg, 2001). This highlights that environmental factors like substance abuse experience by children over the life time will impact on their understanding and behaviours within parenting their own children in later adulthood, demonstrating intergenerational transference of parenting from G1 – G2 over the life course of an individual and their underlying experiences.

Thus, low SES and poverty exacerbate parental challenges within child-rearing and may negatively influence the transference of parenting in future generations. As generations will either adopt these similar behaviours or modify and change their parenting approach.

In terms of the above, the challenges experienced in Genaal include limited resources and job opportunities, and poverty. The latter often leads to substance use, further compounding poverty. In essence, unemployment and poverty, especially in a small rural communicate are critical factors that further influence the use of substances and consequently parenting and the care of children. Although being a community with a rich heritage, Genaal continues to experience the fragmentation of apartheid, evidenced in the lack of resources, minimal job opportunities and associated outcomes, such as substance abuse, crime, and violence This is dealt with in the next category.

6.2.4.1 Category 3.4.1: Substance abuse affecting parenting

Substance abuse is described as a pattern of harmful use of any substance for the purpose of altering one's mood, and if used repeatedly, will cause impairments (Buddy, 2020). As already mentioned above, substance abuse is a growing concern in Genaal,

especially due to the increasing number of drug users. Based on the research findings, it appears that younger generations are consuming substances more than the previous generations. The reasons cited included ease of access and availability. The use of substances by parents was strongly discouraged. It was also viewed as ethically wrong for parents and children to consume substances together, like alcohol. This indicates that parents and children should identify clear boundaries with the **use of substances.**

Participants were unanimous that there is one major aspect negatively affecting parenting in Genaal, namely, alcohol use by parents. This is particularly due to the negative effect alcohol use has on parenting, in that parents tend to be neglectful of their parental roles and responsibilities. Despite parental alcohol consumption, participants asserted that children must remain respectful toward their parent/s.

*"A negative aspect is just alcohol. They (parents) only drink a bit too much. But also, not going over-board. That's how it was back then." (**Family A, participant G3**).*

Additionally, participants also expressed that parents that consume alcohol often inadvertently affect relationships, both the parent-child relationship. Therefore, it was found that negative experiences consequently affect the mother-child and father-child interactions differently (Bai, Reynolds, Robles, & Repetti, 2017).

*"My father and I do not speak. We do not talk like my mother and I do, I can speak to her about anything, but if he's there, but if my dad is sober, he cannot speak." (**Family A, participant G3**).*

Thus, the roles parents (mothers and fathers) adopt within caregiving differ in relation to the opportunities afforded to interact, teach, and socialise their children (Bai et al., 2017). In terms of the role of mothers, studies suggest they are primarily providers of transport, assist with homework, and provide emotional and physical care, whereas fathers mostly assume the role of the enjoyable friends (Saxbe, Repetti & Graesch, 2011).

Mothers are therefore linked with the following roles: child-rearing; the socialisation and cultural processes of children; and monitoring and supporting of emotion regulation experiences. These are aspects fathers are less involved in (Denham, Bassett, & Wyatt, 2010). These children are more likely to disclose information and seek advice from their parental mother figure during their youth than their counterpart father figures (Bumpus, Crouter & McHale, 2006). It is therefore deduced that mothers play a more superior part than fathers do in child-rearing, and they also formulate stronger mother-child relations with their children (Bai et al., 2017). This shows clear differences in parent-gender differences and parent-child relations and interactions.

Furthermore, the parental – the mother-father parenting relationship – is also affected by alcohol consumption.

"But we (husband and wife) have our talks, (dealing with conflict). Not in front them (children). And they remember it. I said that it does not give you the right to not like your dad. That's what happened to all the people who drink. Because wine goes to your brain, your brain does not work as it should." (***Family A, participant G1***).

Parental roles that offer limited support and affection will inadvertently affect the behavioural and other child-related stressors (Wei, Cummings, Villabø, & Kendall, 2014). Therefore, parents play an essential role in the child's environment because the environment is partially shared and influenced by the parent-child interactions, which are associated with parental roles performed, parent-child involvement, and interactive contact experiences (Rapee, 1997; Wood, McLeod, Sigman, Hwang, & Chu, 2003).

Etiological models often accentuate the reciprocity of the parent-child relationships (Chorpita & Barlow, 1998). This is due to the interaction between child information processing and parental factors and attitudes that contribute toward childhood development (Ginsburg & Schlossberg, 2002; Ollendick & Benoit, 2012). Conversely, if the parent-child

interaction is poor, it will lead to vulnerability issues, such as lack of control, inadequate development of independence, and related anxiety aspects (Chorpita & Barlow, 1998; Rapee, 1997). This may in turn exacerbate substance consumption and poor academic performance, suggesting that there are positive and negative associated child outcomes related to the use of substances, such as alcohol.

Substance abuse in certain cases might not affect parenting. Positive parent-child interactions and related involvement is described as a stable and trait-like measure of openness, closeness, and knowledge in a parent-child dyad (Ekins, McGue, & Lacono, 1997). In addition, it has been established that a warm, affectionate, and supportive parent-child relationship is advantageous to the development of a child's ability to manage stressful situations and develop adaptive patterns of coping amid adversity, for example, such as peer rejection (Bowes, Maughan, Caspi, Moffitt, & Arseneault, 2010). Furthermore, the quality of the parent-child relationship has been strongly associated with children's ability to deal with emotionally disappointing situations (Morris, Silk, Morris, Steinberg, Aucoin, & Keyes, 2011); develop problem-solving skills; promote coping in the classroom or at school (Neitzel & Stright, 2003); and voluntary disclosure of everyday activities to fathers (Bumpus et al., 2006).

This indicates that positive parent-child relationships promote healthy development of children in their relations with others, including their peers, as well as their ability to cope and deal with stressful matters, and promote emotion regulation skills (Bai et al., 2017).

In some instances, alcohol use was not seen as affecting parenting, as the parents were not violent or argumentative despite alcohol consumption.

"We like partying and such, but we are not people that fight and argue among themselves and such." (**Family B, participant G2**).

Substances are more readily available to children nowadays. This was a concern to the participants who also stated that their children's drug habits and associated behaviours were contrary to their teachings. This was hurtful for parents to witness.

*"I'm very worried about drugs today. I am talking specifically in Genaal. Here are many young children who use drugs." (**Family A, participant G2**).*

*"They (children) upset the parents so much and this is not how the parents raised them." (**Family A, participant G2**).*

*"Is probably because they can get hold of these things easily. It's easy. And if you look and think, oh my, and it's always the children that one would not expect. And it's always the beautiful boy. I always said that he would one day certainly manage to get very far. And then again you see that child it is a child that ..." (**Family A, participant G2**).*

"Such type of drugs and stuff. And alcohol abuse" (Family C, participant G1).

*"But something that prevails here is children who clearly choose the wrong direction with drugs and such stuff." (**Family C, participant G2**).*

The next section deals with Theme 2 – 'Problem behaviours of children' – and its related sub-themes.

6.3 THEME 2: PROBLEM BEHAVIOURS OF CHILDREN

The environment in which parenting practices and parenting attributes are enacted has been associated with environmental influences linked to SES, educational levels, and substance abuse. Studies show that these influences impact the parent-child relationship negatively as it leads to destructive parent-child communication, disproportionate restrictiveness and harshness, and disapproval of children's expressive emotions and behaviours, which is damaging to their self-image and relations with others (Mayes & Truman, 2002; & Bornstein, 2012). A number of issues and aspects are considered contributing factors to SES, including educational achievement, type of occupation, financial

income, and status quo. These aspects are directly linked to the functioning and wellness of parenting as experienced and practiced (Bornstein, 2012). Another fundamental contributing factor to functioning and wellness is poverty. Poverty has been expansively associated with affecting the experiences and competencies of parenting. These include their ability to provide, parental wellness, and parent-child relations (Bornstein, 2012). Therefore, the environmental factors and associated circumstantial conditions are strongly connected to children's experiences and related child outcomes.

The three related sub-themes discussed under their respective headings below are: parental and home influence; lack of spiritual guidance; and lack of discipline.

6.3.1   Sub-theme 2.1: Parental and home influence

Across families it was indicated that the problem behaviours of children are linked to peer and environmental influences, as identified in Theme 1. These aspects overlap and filter into the following theme and sub-themes. (Laible et al., 2004). One aspect the participants strongly shared were their views of household functioning and the misuse of alcohol by parents. This was identified as affecting the behaviours of children and influencing the functioning of parenting and the household. Therefore, the parental relations and associations a child receives and retains may positively or negatively impact on their choices and their behaviours within the home and society, as outlined below:

"Many children, where the parents both drink at home and curse. So how can that child be any different? Then the people are so fond of saying 'no he picked it on the road. He the devil did he not pick it up along the way. He picked it up at home." **(Family A, participant G1).**

"They did not have respect for their children because they are now drunk. That is how that child is being reared. Many of them here at 12, 11 they leave school because drinking at the house is too good." **(Family A, participant G1).**

Furthermore, the misuse of alcohol by parents disrupts the functioning of the family, in that the family environment is less cohesive, lacks routine and warmth, and there are high levels of conflict (Burke, Schmied & Montrose, 2006). Parental alcohol misuse therefore results in impaired parenting (Sher et al., 2000), as parents lack in areas of parental monitoring (Stattin & Kerr, 2000), discipline, support, emotional guidance, and the parent-child communication relations (King & Chassin, 2004), which formulate crucial parenting practices to prevent substance use, delinquency, and especially other risky behaviours in adolescence (Beck, Boyle & Boekeloo, 2004). Thus, parental alcohol misuse affects parenting and disrupts home functioning. Participants also indicated that when parents were drunk, they would swear and lose respect in the presence of their children. They expressed concern for how these modelled mannerisms could be inadvertently assimilated by children.

"Yes, father says so, Mother even says so. What if the child says the same thing tomorrow?" (**Family A, participant G1**).

This suggests that parents play a crucial influential role in the actions they model as acceptable behaviour to their children.

The developmental period of early adolescence is considered a transitional period that is accompanied by numerous changes, not only for the individual, but also the family and the environment. These include important changes in family dynamics, academic demands, and peer relationships (Bai et al., 2017).

An examination of the associated links between negative schooling events and further interactions within the home environment assists in understanding the related reactions and emotional and behavioural outcomes of youth as well as the perceptions and responses of youth toward peer and academic related problems experienced (Bai et al., 2017).

Research indicates that the stressful experiences at school impacts on a child's family interactions at home (Chung, Flook, & Fuligni, 2011; Lehman & Repetti, 2007; Repetti, 1996; Timmons & Margolin, 2015). Hence, one may deduce that different environments and the experiences within these environments directly and indirectly influence each other. The reciprocal influence indicates that school related problems negatively influence the quality of parent-child relations and the associated interactions and functioning within the household (Bai et al., 2017). However, few studies have honed in on children's perceptions of the quality of parent-child interactions (Chung et al, 2011: Lehman & Repetti, 2007; Salamon, Johnson, & Swendsen, 2011; Timmons & Margolin, 2015).

Studies further support that the spill over effect from one environment to another is also evident in adult behaviours. Mothers and fathers tend to withdraw and lessen their interactions with one another and their children when they have had more intense, negative, and stressful experiences at work (Repetti & Wood, 1997; Schulz, Cowan, Pape Cowan, & Brennan, 2004). In a more positive light, social withdrawal has been identified as a coping mechanism for children to manage stressful school and peer associated challenges (Rubin, Coplan, & Bowker, 2009). Contrarily, some children may seek their parents' support, comfort, and advice on how to manage their current experiences and challenges, and thus spend more time with their parents instead of withdrawing (Bai et al., 2017).

6.3.2   Sub-theme 2.2: Lack of spiritual guidance:

Research studies on spiritual guidance and religion indicate that families, especially parents, play a significant role in providing the foundations for spiritual beliefs and religious involvement for children (Van Niekerk & Breed, 2018; Elkins, McGue, & Iacono, 1997; DeVries 2004; Smith & Denton 2005). This highlights the influential role of parents in the development of the child's faith and religious practices (Nel & Van der Westhuizen, 2015). A

strong correlation has been found between faith development and practices, and social relations, personal identity, and establishing the meaning of personal and cultural faith (Fowler & Dell 2006). However, studies conducted on spirituality in South Africa are limited (Van Niekerk & Breed, 2018), and the generalisability of other studies in the South African context is uncertain (Nel & Van der Westhuizen, 2015). Therefore, the findings outlined in this study adds to the research progress in this area. Although participants recognised the importance of spirituality and their Christian beliefs as a fundamental value in child-rearing in Genadendal, one participant mentioned that they sometimes forget to teach their children about Jesus. This may suggest a lack of emphasis placed on the Christian faith and the teachings of spirituality in the later generations compared to previous generations:

*"You sometimes forget to teach the child about the Lord." (**Family A, participant G1**).*

*"I will not say parenthood –- I will not say that's the community either. It's only the devil." (**Family A, participant G1**).*

The environmental influencing factors include child related contextual factors, family and societal contexts, child's age, child's developmental level, temperament, and behaviour. These in turn impact on parenting practices, and further encourages parental development to reach parental competency. The literature further points out that the cultural and ethnic differences amongst parents within households, families, and societies helps us to comprehend, encourage, and support affirmative and educative child-rearing practices (Yasui & Dishion, 2007; Bornstein, 2012). The final sub-theme is discussed next.

6.3.3   Sub-theme 2.3: Lack of discipline

Family B indicated that younger generations have lost respect for themselves, the community, and especially their elders. This family was particularly concerned about their

use of vulgar language, blatant refusal to listen to or obey parental instruction, rudeness, disrespectfulness, and disregard for their elders and parental values and expectations.

"The children do not care if you're standing there; if they want to say an ugly word then they just say it. They are not bother that an older person is standing there - but that aunt will hear what I'm saying." (**Family B, participant G1**).

"But, children of today will say, no, I'm not keen to do it and then they'll walk away." (**Family B, participant G2**).

Effective parents develop attitudes, guidance strategies, and communication skills that work with, rather than against, a child's temperament. Difficult children can learn to be self-controlled, cooperative, and adaptable. Family, neighbours, child care professionals, and school teachers are the first to show children the way (Stephens, 2007).

6.4 CONCLUSION

This chapter examined the environmental influences impacting on parenting. The ensuing discussion took place under two broad themes, and their related sub-themes and categories. The presented literature was corroborated by verbatim quotes from the participants from all three families under study. It emerged that various environments effect the functioning of individuals. These consequently affect the implementation of parenting practices, as parents' responsiveness and participation vary depending on the relationships formulated in different environments. These environmental factors determine children's adjustment to the household, family, and broader society, while maladjustment leads to anxiety and other disorders in children.

A number of significant factors were identified as impacting on the child's functioning within the environment, such as parental absence and/or non-involvement, especially by fathers. This was evident in the research relating to interaction in the household with family interactions and academic performance. The influence of peers was another

identified factor, playing a pivotal role in children's decision making and interaction with the environment. This is specifically linked to respect for others and the use of substances, school performance, and even school drop-out. Therefore, understanding the influence of environments in the social and cultural functioning of individuals is essential, as the environment plays a fundamental part in either promoting or hindering the quality of a person's functioning. In this study, substance abuse, peer influence, and school drop-out were all associated with negative or problem behavioural influences on children within the environment, such as the influence of peers and parents. However, parental involvement was identified as a pivotal influence in school performance and related drop-out. Thus, it is important to consider both the internal and external environments as well as their associated positive and negative effects on the functioning of individuals.

Intergenerational transference of parenting is discussed in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 7

INTERGENERATIONAL TRANSFERENCE OF PARENTING

7.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter outlines the intergenerational transference of parenting. Herein, the fundamental aspects that contribute to understanding the transference of parenting across generations and over time are delineated. The first section describes the demographical information of the participants, which includes both the quantitative and qualitative data collection processes. This transference interpreted includes the contextual factors of the household, the environment, and other socio-cultural factors that contribute toward the influence and transference of intergenerational parenting. The transference of parenting suggests that certain competencies have been achieved in one generation and are therefore transferable to the next generation. This is followed by a discussion of the two main themes of the chapter: Theme 1 – Intergenerational transference of parenting, which has qualitative supporting data and Theme 2 – A different approach to parenting which has both qualitative and quantitative supporting date incorporated. The chapter thus aims to illustrate the components of the quantitative and qualitative data and how they are integrated to show the intergenerational transference of parenting.

The discussion begins by providing an overview of the demographic profile of the participants of the study to include the quantitative and qualitative findings and discussions.

7.2 DEMOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION OF THE QUANTITATIVE STAGE OF THE STUDY

The following section presents the demographic profile of participants of the quantitative stage, but due to the nature of this chapter, both quantitative and qualitive components are presented and discussed. The quantitative profile of participants, variables and descriptives are presented and discussed next.

Table 7.1 below provides an overview of the demographic profile of the participants of the quantitative stage of the study.

Table 7.1 Demographical information of participants (quantitative)

Variables		N=75	%
Gender	Male	12	16.0
	Female	63	84.0
Race	Coloured	75	100.0
Education		56	74.7
	Yes	15	20.0
	No	4	5.3
Head of the home/household	Mother	37	49.3
	Father	36	48.0
	Grandparent	2	2.7
Structure of the family	Married	36	46.7
	Married but separated	1	1.3
	Living together but not married	11	14.7
	Single, do not live together and are not married	15	20.0
	Single because he / she is widowed	8	10.7
	Single because he / she is divorced	2	2.7
	Extended family	1	1.3
	Only siblings	1	1.3
	Other	1	1.3
Biological fathers present in the home	Yes	41	54.7
	No	34	45.3
Stepfathers present in your home	Yes	5	6.7
	No	70	93.3
Grandfathers present in the home Valid	Yes	10	13.3
	No	65	86.7
The interaction of the fathers with children in the household		6	8.0
	Present but does not interact with the children	4	5.3
	Present and interacts with the children	41	54.7
	Absent but interacts with the children	14	18.7
	Absent does not interact with the children	5	6.7
	Deceased	5	6.7

The results presented in Table 7.1 shows that from a total of 75 participants, 63 (84%) were female; 12 (16%) were male; and all were from the coloured race (Genadendal is a predominantly coloured community). In terms of the educational data, only 20% of the participants had post qualifications after matric, while 80% did not. The family and community demographics show that the ratio of mothers and fathers heading the households

are comparable, with mothers rating at 49.3% and fathers at 48%. Two noteworthy points here are that (1) mothers are heading households for various reasons, and (2) this is not a patriarchal community. In addition, only 2.7% of the households were headed by grandparents, showing that parents are predominantly the caregivers of their children. The structure of family data presented that 46.7% of the participants were married; 1.3% separated; 14.7% living together but not married; 20% single (not living together, and not married); 10.7% single due to being widowed; and 2.7% divorced. Furthermore, 1.3% of the family were extended family members, and 1.3% were siblings cohabiting.

Furthermore, in terms of the presence of fatherly figures in the homes, the data shows that: 54.7% of households have a biological father present in the home; 6.7% a stepfather as a father figure; and 13.3% a grandfather as a father figure. This shows a high regularity of father figures that are present in Genadendal homes. It is further displayed that 54.7% of fathers are present and interact with their children; 18.7% are absent and do not interact with their children; 5.3% are present but do not interact with the children; 6.7% are absent with no interaction; and 5% were deceased fathers. This shows a good presentation of fathers present and involved in their parenting responsibilities. This concludes the collated demographical representation of the parents of the community of Genadendal who participated in the quantitative component of the study.

The following list of variables is presented as a means of understanding the coding used in SPSS to conduct the analysis as well as the meaning of the variables.

Table 7.2 Variables and The Meanings of Terms

Item	Variable	Meanings of terms
A	Autonomy Granting Dimension	This dimension is associated with the extension to which granting autonomy (independence) is addressed (Trevelyan, 2001).
B	Communication	The simple act of transferring information, sending or receiving, from person, place or group (Keyton, 2011).
C	Connection	A relationship in which a person or thing is linked or associated with something else (https://www.dictionary.com).
D	Control	To exercise restraint or direction over; dominate; command (https://www.dictionary.com).
E	Discipline and boundary setting	The practice of training people to obey rules or a code of behaviour, using punishment to correct disobedience (Turner, 2006).
F	Self-Efficacy emotion and affection	The self-worth is linked to emotion to include happiness and life satisfaction, and is related to happiness, life satisfaction, behaviours and attitudes (Salami, 2010, p. 247).
G	Empathy and understanding	Empathy and understanding is the "capacity to share and understand another's state of mind (Ioannidou & Konstantikaki, 2008, p. 119).
H	Learning and knowledge	Knowledge sharing is an important aspect of knowledge management that contributes to enhancing organisational learning (Paulin & Suneson 2012), p. 82).
I	Parental authority	Parental authority refers to the parents' rights and responsibilities toward their children (Tam et al., 2012, p. 183).
J	Physical Coercion	Coercion is the concept of encompassing almost any sort of interpersonal infringement on one's rights through force (Ripstein, 2004).
K	Play and enjoyment	Enjoyment and play during school lunchtime are correlated with children's physical activity (Hyndman, Benson, Ullah, & Telford, 2014).
L	Pressures	Pressure is defined by the amount of force on a certain area like work pressure (Roe & Zijlstra, 2000, p. 29).
M	Parental Self-Efficacy	The individual's perception of their self-worth to perform on a parental level (Salami, 2010, p. 247).
N	Psychological control	Psychological control refers to parental behaviours that are intrusive and manipulative of children's thoughts, feelings, and attachment to parents. (Barber & Harmon, 2002, p. 15).
O	Non-reasoning Punitive Dimension	Punishing by taking privileges away from the child with little if any explanation (Li & Xie, 2017, p. 637).
P	Regulation dimension	Regulation is referred to as the meaning that controls the quantity at a certain set point (Cadart, Venkova, Recho, Lagomarsino & Piel, 2019).
Q	Parent social context – Rejection	Psychological control refers to parental behaviours that are intrusive and manipulative of children's thoughts, feelings, and attachment to parents. (Barber & Harmon, 2002, p. 15).
R	Self-Efficacy	The individual's self-worth and ability to be effective (Salami, 2010, p. 247).
S	Self-Acceptance	Self-acceptance is exactly what its name suggests: the state of complete acceptance of oneself. True self-acceptance is embracing who you are, without any qualifications, conditions, or exceptions (Seltzer, 2008).
T	Parent social structure – Structure	Parenting occurs within dynamic social systems that interact at a person, family, neighbourhood and socio-economic level. These formulate the structural factors, and structural factors have been found to influence parent–child interactions (Hartas, 2015).
U	Verbal hostility	Verbal hostility is an aggressive form of behaviour that uses insulting or offensive words (Lee & Lincoln, 2017).

7.2.1 Descriptives of the quantitative data

This section provides descriptive statistics that addresses the research objective that

sought to determine the most prevalent parenting styles of the total sample, namely, to

216

'determine and explore the parenting factors (parenting styles and practices skills, teachings, practices, styles, performs, quality of parent-child relationship, warmth and strict control, parental knowledge) of generations in Genadendal'. The means (*M*) and standard deviations (*SD*) for PSDQ of the total sample (n=75) parenting styles are presented in Table 7.3 below, which illustrates the means and standard deviations for each of the 29 parenting elements, including the parenting styles and dimensions of parenting.

Table 7.3 Collective Table of All the Parenting Styles and Practices (quantitative)

Items	N	Minimum	Maximum	*M*	*SD*
Connection Dimension	74	1.20	4.20	3.61	.48
Regulation Dimension	74	1.60	4.00	3.59	.48
Autonomy Granting Dimension	73	2.00	4.00	3.13	.58
Physical Coercion	71	1.00	6.75	2.06	.93
Verbal Hostility	73	1.00	4.00	2.50	.84
Non-Reasoning /Punitive Dimension	74	1.00	3.50	2.04	.58
Parental Self Efficacy	63	2.09	6.00	4.86	.78
Self-efficacy; emotion and affection	73	.00	8.60	3.13	1.87
Play and Enjoyment	74	3.17	10.00	8.60	1.66
Empathy and Understanding	73	3.50	10.00	8.82	1.43
Control	58	3.83	10.00	7.56	1.24
Discipline and Boundary setting	74	3.33	10.00	8.4	1.58
Pressures of Parenting	51	3.50	9.00	6.45	1.38
Self-Acceptance	69	3.17	10.00	8.67	1.48
Learning and Knowledge	74	3.33	10.00	8.32	1.65
Rejection-Parent Social Context	74	.00	9.40	3.71	2.22
Structure-Parent social context	73	2.17	10.00	8.73	1.62
Parent-Child Communication	73	1.00	2.58	1.88	.36
Parental Authority	73	2.00	5.27	3.62	.51
Psychological Control	73	1.00	3.00	1.60	.37
Parenting Styles	**N**	**Minimum**	**Maximum**	***M***	***SD***
Authoritative Parenting Style	73	1.73	4.00	3.46	.41
Authoritarian Parenting Style	70	1.25	3.75	2.19	.59
Permissive Parenting Style	74	1.00	4.00	1.95	.60
Parenting Practices	**N**	**Minimum**	**Maximum**	***M***	***SD***
Authoritative Parenting Practices	75	2.00	9.10	3.84	1.00
Authoritarian Parenting Practices	74	1.90	5.00	4.15	.58
Permissive Parenting Practices	73	1.30	6.00	2.89	.74

The following was illustrated: Connection Dimension (*M*=3.61, *SD*=.48), Regulation Dimension (*M* =3.59, *SD*=.48), Autonomy Granting Dimension (*M* =3.13, *SD*=.58), Physical Coercion (*M* =2.06, *SD*=.93), Verbal Hostility (*M* =2.50, *SD*=.84), Punitive Dimension, (*M*=2.04, *SD*=.58), Parental Self Efficacy (PSE) (*M* =4.86, *SD*=.78), Emotion and Affection (Self -efficacy; emotion and affection) (*M*=3.13, *SD*=1.87), Play and Enjoyment (*M*=8.60, *SD*=1.66), Empathy and understanding (*M*=8.82, *SD*=1.43), Control (*M*=7.56, *SD*=1.24)

217

Discipline and boundary setting (*M*=8.4, *SD*=1.58), Pressures of parenting (*M*=6.45,

SD=1.38), Self-acceptance (*M*=8.67, *SD*=1.48), Learning and knowledge (*M*=8.32,

SD=1.65), Reject (Parent social context) (*M*=3.71, *SD*=2.22), Structure (Parent social

context) (*M*=8.73, *SD*=1.62), Parent-child communication (*M*=1.88, *SD*=.36),1.00), Parental

Authority (*M*=3.62, *SD*=.51), Psychological control (*M*=1.60, *SD*=.37), Authoritative style

(*M*=3.46, *SD*=.41), Authoritarian style (*M*=2.19, *SD*=.59), Permissive style (*M*=1.95,

SD=.60), Permissive parenting practices (*M*=2.89, *SD*=.74), Authoritarian practices (*M*=4.15,

SD=.58), Authoritative practices (*M*=3.84, *SD*=1.00).

The parenting styles and practices of the quantitative results is presented next before

the theme discussions continue.

7.2.2 Parenting styles and practices: quantitative results

Table 7.4 below illustrates the quantitative results of the parenting styles and practices

of the participants.

Table 7.4 Parenting styles and practices

Items	N	Minimum	Maximum	M	SD
Styles					
Authoritarian Parenting Style	70	1.25	3.75	2.19	.59
Authoritative Parenting Style	73	1.73	4.00	3.46	.41
Permissive Parenting Style	74	1.00	4.00	1.95	.60
Practices					
Connection-Practice Dimension	74	1.20	4.20	3.61	.48
Regulation Dimension	74	1.60	4.00	3.59	.48
Autonomy Granting Dimension	73	2.00	4.00	3.13	.58
Physical Coercion	71	1.00	6.75	2.06	.93
Verbal Hostility	73	1.00	4.00	2.50	.84
Non-Reasoning /Punitive Dimension	74	1.00	3.50	2.04	.58
Permissive Parenting Style	74	1.00	4.00	1.95	.60

The results of Table 7.4 suggest that the most prevalent parenting style across the total

sample (N=75) was authoritative parenting (*M*=3.46, *SD*=.41). The most prevalent parenting

practice was parenting connect (*M*=3.61, *SD*.48), followed by parenting regulation (*M*= 3.59,

SD=.48). Parents scored the lowest on permissive parenting (*M*=1.95, *SD*=.60).

Theme 1 - was discussed in the sections above. Theme 2 is presented next, namely, 'a different approach to parenting'.

7.3 DEMOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION OF THE QUALITATIVE STAGE OF THE STUDY

Table 7.5 below provides the case profile of the nine (9) participants from the three (3) case families. The demographical information of the qualitative component is outlined below.

Table 7.5 Case Profile of Participants

Demographics	Family A			Family B			Family C		
	G1	G2	G3	G1	G2	G3	G1	G2	G3
Age of parent	80	48	23	85	51	29	73	51	22
Gender	Female	Female	Male	Female	Female	Female	Female	Female	Female
Family structure	Married	Living together but not Married	Single	Married	Married	Married	Married	Married	Single
Parenting status	Parent	Parent	Not a parent	Parent	Parent	Parent	Parent	Parent	Not a parent
Number of children	14	3	0	11	3	2	3	2	0

In

Table 7.5, nine participants from three (3) case families – Family A, Family B, and Family C – formulated the case profile for the study. In terms of gender ratio, there were eight (8) female participants and one (1) male participant. The family participants were selected from three generations to formulate G1, G2, and G3 participants. From the demographics, the ages were: Family A = G1-80, G2-48, and G3-23; Family B = G1-85, G2-52, and G3-29; Family C = G1-73, G2-51, and G3-22 years. The demographics indicate that seven (7) of the nine (9) participants were married and biological parents of children; seven (7) were married; and two (2) were single. All the parent participants had more than one child – the highest ratio was eleven children, and the lowest were two children. This concludes the demographics. The next section presents the themes, sub-themes, and categories of Chapter 7 pertaining to intergenerational transference.

7.3.1 Intergenrational transference of parenting

Table 7.6 outlines the themes, sub-themes, and categories of Chapter 7 pertaining to intergenerational transference in and across the parents. The discussions that link to the intergenerational transference of parenting is subsequently provided. Table 7.5 below is based on thematic analysis and the themes that emerged.

Table 7.6 Intergenerational Transference: Analysis of themes, Sub-themes and Categories

Theme	Sub-theme	Categories
1.Intergenerational transference of parenting (qualitative)	1.1. Caring for the community	
	1.2. Family caring for each other	1.2.1. Children caring for parents
		1.2.2. Grandparents supporting parenting of grandchildren
	1.3. Norms and values	
	1.4. Work ethics and skills	
	1.5. Parenting competencies transferred	
2. Intergenerational transference: A different approach to parenting (qualitative and quantitative)	2.1. Communication	
	2.2. Punishment	2.2.1. Community's influence on punishment
	2.3. Substance use/abuse	
	2.4. Parenting Differently	2.4.1. Not implementing parenting styles of previous generations
		2.4.2. Independence of adult children
		2.4.3. Less responsibilities for older children
		2.4.4. Reflecting on changes of punishment styles over the generations

7.4. THEME 1: INTERGENERATIONAL TRANSFERENCE

This study seeks to fill the knowledge gap on the intergenerational continuities of a particular community's experiences and perceptions of parenting. Research conducted on the intergenerational aspect of parenting assisted in providing an understanding of the processes and behaviours of parents. However, there remains a limited understanding of the continuities and discontinuities transferred in child-rearing practices (Conger et al., 2009). The findings of this study will therefore contribute to the enhancement of understanding the transmission of parenting intergenerationally.

The two particular methods of intergenerational transference of parenting identified in this study, namely, (1) influences of behaviours and parenting practices, and (2) genetics (Rutter, 1998), are discussed below.

i) Influences of behaviours and parenting practices – The influences of behaviours and parenting practices were linked to the continuity and discontinuity of intergenerational transference. Rutter (1998) described continuities and discontinuities in parenting practices and behaviours as follows:

(a) discontinuities are likely to be more evident than continuities; (b) continuities in behaviour across generations may be as much a part of the broader environment and related to individual characteristics of family processes; and (c) the key question for future research involves the identification of mechanisms that account for intergenerational continuity when it occurs, and (d) continuities in behaviour between parents and their children may result as much from genetic as social mechanisms. (Conger, et al., 2009, p. 1276 – 1277)

Thus, these concepts are considered significant for the recognition of parenting behaviours, practices, and mechanisms, as well as the execution of effective parenting. The parenting mechanisms are the instrumental tools used within parenting practices, i.e., communication utilising verbal expression, which is applied or necessary for parents to reach the effectiveness of parental practices and child outcomes.

ii) Genetics – Intergenerational transference is also genetic (inherited). Previous studies have attempted to assimilate and draw genetic relations between the continuities and discontinuities in the intergenerational transmission of parenting (Rutter, 1998). Heritable characteristics were mostly related to the modelling of inherited behavioural characteristics (Patterson, 1998; Rutter, 1998). In addition, the inherent intergenerational transference of biological organisms is linked to factors of the environment, such as peer association, and

alcohol abuse. This interaction produces the biological and psychological processes (Belsky, 2005b). Hence, the environment is also a fundamental factor in shaping inherent aspects of transference between generations (see Chapter 6, environmental influences). This suggests that inherent factors and environments are directly correlated and function in a multifaceted manner to cultivate an understanding of intergenerational continuities and discontinuities of parenting practices and behaviours (Cicchetti, 2007; Reiss & Leve, 2007). However, the underlying mechanisms, for instance, communication, discipline/punishment, and parent-child relationships tend to influence these characteristics of intergenerational transference (Belsky et al., 2009). Therefore, the basis of the study proposes that focus should primarily be on the influential factors of the environment towards intergenerational transference of parenting and, to a lesser extent, on the genetics or inherent factors of parenting.

The emerged sub-themes and categories linked to intergenerational transference were identified and are described next, supported by participants' excerpts and substantiated by relevant literature.

The first sub-theme discussed is *caring for the community.*

7.4.1 Sub-theme 1.1: Caring for the community

The interconnectedness between generations is important and may influence an array of factors, such as parenting styles and practices adopted, feeding preferences, safety of infants, and parental role realisation (Negron, Martin, Almog, Balbierz, & Howell, 2013). Other contributing factors are the proximity in living spaces, similarities or differences in traditional practices, the type of relationships formulated with close relatives, parental ties, and the age of the grandparent/s (Fahey & Shenassa, 2013). In this study these factors revealed to affect the roles and influences that society, family, and social supportive role players, such as grandparents, community members, and organisational resources assume to strengthen parenting. These factors also influence community members' perceptions

regarding childbearing and child-rearing aspects, and decisions adopted concerning parenting roles and practices. Therefore, the responsibility of women, together with grandparents and community members in caring for families are fundamentally essential, as demonstrated in this study. Furthermore, the study established that kinship and connection to significant others were essential to family functioning and demonstrating care and support. This, pointing to a holistic approach to ensure the well-being of families ("What Is Holistic Nursing?," 2014). This approach includes supporting women with child-rearing to optimise their roles and experiences of parenting ("What Is Holistic Nursing?," 2014). Social support was show to be provided by extended family members, other prominent community members, and professionals who are prepared to contribute to parental care and education in communities. Participants across Families A, B and C, and generations G1 and G3, indicated that *caring for the community* was an essential value in Genadendal. For Family A, caring for others was a trait that was transferred within families and across generations, expressed as follows:

> *"Grandma, you can at any time at night - her door is always open to you. here are so many people in Genaal - if she's not just her children, but she's Nanna for everyone. She had the soup-kitchen so, if they should get her along the way, it's Nanna. She's almost like she's everyone's mother."* **(Family A, participant G3).**

> *"My mom has also caught a baby. And so, I also learned and became fond of visiting and caring for sick people. Yes, but I was the one who as - they came to call a lot from my mother at night. Then she wakes me up - I had to walk with her. But I never got angry, I learned from it. The one that she dragged with was me - I think I got that from her that I'm so fond of visiting sick people."* **(Family A, participant G1).**

Family B, participant G1 perceived caring for others within the community as pivotal for the development of friendships, helping others in need, and showing respect. Willingness to aid others was displayed through showing compassion and consideration toward fellow community members. This was expressed as follows:

> *"Yes, we were many friends who have always been – especially when we get out of the Sunday schools and so on, so we see how people struggle and then we would say, let's go help and so on."* **(Family B, participant G1).**

"Yes, the people here in the town – my grandchildren from the Cape have always said, they all know me as Mamma; seems like everyone knows Mamma … because they all greet and show respect. Then I would say, I also greet everybody who walks by every day." **(Family B, participant G1).**

Family C, participant G 1 conveyed that caring for the community is based on values, beliefs, customs, and skills acquired from observational learning during childhood (Vygotsky, 1968). Furthermore, this is shaped and guided by their primary caregivers by observing and subsequently imitating others in their social context (Bandura, 1977). Community assistance is therefore crucial, especially when parents are uneducated, unskilled, and exposed to poor support systems.

"She was very fond to give. Someone needs something - a need and maybe money or something in the house, then she loves to make something and share with the people who are suffering." **(Family C, participant G1).**

"We who see things accept now that we have to get involved. Do not discourage, make the change. Bring the change or make the difference." **(Family C, participant G1).**

Caring for others is thus transferred across generations and helps to preserve communities.

The next related sub-theme, 'family caring for each other', is discussed below.

7.4.2 Sub-theme 1.2: Family caring for each other

'Family' is described by the Republic of South Africa: Department of Social Development (DSD) (2013) as:

The setting for demographic reproduction, the seat of the first integration of individuals into social life, and the source of emotional, material and instrumental support for its members (Belsey, 2005), the family influences the way society is structured, organised, and functions. It is essentially through the family that each generation is replaced by the next; children are born, socialised, and cared for until independence; and each generation fulfils its responsibility of caring for minors, the elderly, and the sick (Waite, 2000). (Republic of South Africa: Department of Social Development (DSD), 2013, p. 5)

Consequently, families formulate the cornerstone of care, survival, and parental connections and existence in communities. However, factors such as unemployment, crime, and teenage pregnancies are significantly affecting communities and families. Therefore, society's views of the family and parenting involvement are becoming questionable. Furthermore, women entering the workforce and single parenting are both on the rise. We thus see the blurring of traditional family roles (Winefield & Air, 2010), with extended families fulfilling traditional caregiver and household roles (Wright & Leahey, 2013). Contemporary family systems are structured differently due to contributing factors such as geographical distance, lack of intergenerational dealings, transformation, and globalisation.

The socialisation experience between the generations gives rise to the question of whether and how the social changes within society and the family influence individual characteristics, such as parenting and intergenerational relations in the family (Lubiewska, 2012). Grandparents were recognised as key providers of care and social support, helping families and parents, especially mothers, to cope more successfully with parenting and child-rearing (Fahey & Shenassa, 2013). This is supported by the following excerpts:

> *"My children, my two older children actually also grew up by my mother – because when I worked, my mother took care of them."* ***(Family B, participant G2).***

> *"My mother helped me with them when he and I were separated – my mother helped me a lot with them (children)."* ***(Family B, participant G2).***

Furthermore, Family B, participant G2 indicated that she reciprocated the same approach when her son went to work and assisted with rearing her grandchild.

> *"I told my son I'll stay home to rear her (grandchild)"* ***(Family B, participant G2).***

Thus, providing social support and care within families is a noticeable trait that is intergenerationally transferred. Social support has three categories: *emotional support* includes making a person feel loved and supported; *involved support* includes providing assistance to accomplish tasks; and *informational support* includes providing education and knowledge (Fahey & Shenassa, 2013; Negron et al., 2013). These enhance the functioning

and well-being of families. In terms of providing support and information to others, one participant commented:

> *"She (mom) is very straight forward. If she wants to say something to you then she says it ... you know exactly where you stand with her. Yes, yes if you want to say something to a person, say it. And say it straight, do not go around bends and delay or deceive the next person."* **(Family A, participant G2).**

7.4.2.1 Category 1.2.1: Children caring for parents

The life-course (as discussed in Chapter 2) of an aging parent will most often require care in their later, more frail years (Conway, 2018). Therefore, there is an increased need for adult children to care for their aging parents (Atchley & Barusch, 2004). The average life expectancy these days appears to be 80 years (Durant & Christian, 2006). Care is usually informal and provided by spouses, adult children, relatives, and friends, rather than other trained professionals. Adult children and parents are then interdependent carers responsible for the sustainability of the family. Evident in this study is that elderly kinship bonds and adult children caregivers are strongly connected to care and family well-being, as supported by Staples and Johnson (1993) who state that "black elderly kinship is cohesive and extensive".

Family B, participant G1 confirmed that her children support her by contributing toward her livelihood and taking care of her shortcomings. In addition, the parents' role of providing continues, as even in adulthood aged parents still try to help their adult children wherever possible. These sentiments are expressed as follows:

> *"They are now all married and the ones, but they give every time they have a birthday or something or if there is a shortcoming, then they always come to mum. We give mum every month, because even if I get my allowance, they give me R100 or so every month or where there is little food or so, they would bring me. And if I see again, they get a little hard, then I would pinch off from my side to help them in turn."* **(Family B, participant G1).**

Family B, participant G3 indicated that children care for their parents and grandparents to acknowledge and honour the sacrifices made for them. Effort is thus made to show their love, respect, and appreciation, which is noted as follows:

> *"And see, all the grandchildren still always come, then they come from where they are, they come when it's her (grandmother) birthday and so. To me it's almost like - she plays a big part in my life and my mom was raised like that by her now."* **(Family B, participant G3).**

7.4.2.2 Category 1.2.2: Grandparents supporting parenting of grandchildren

There are no defined norms as to what delineates the role of the grandparent (Stelle, Fruhauf, Orel & Landry-Meyer, 2010). Factors affecting the role grandparents play in their grandchildren's lives include geographical distance, culture, maternal and paternal relationship with parents and in-laws, age of the grandparent, and subsequently, the influence they have over childbearing and parenting (Reid, Schmied, & Beale, 2010). The number of grandchildren raised in the same household as their grandparents has doubled since 1970, and many of these grandparents are considered the primary caregivers (Arnold, Lewis, Maximovich, Ickovics, & Kershaw, 2011). Grandparent care is therefore not a new phenomenon. In recent times, grandparents play a primary role in family life, the dynamics of rearing children, and the offering of support (Stelle et al., 2010). Intergenerational solidarity includes: "Reciprocal care, support and exchange of material and non-material resources between family members, typically younger and older generations" (White Paper on Families, 2013, p. 3). Family C, participant G1 confirmed that grandparents support the parenting of children. This shows that grandparents influence the parenting styles and practices of parents.

> *"With my own mother – I was not under her care"* **(Family C, participant G1).**

This can lead to grandparents being afraid of losing the children they are raising.

> *"She (grandmother) was so over us as children that she was raising…"* **(Family C, participant G1).**

The converse is also true, indicating that there is also a lack of attachment and respect towards grandparents. Family C, participant G3 indicated that children have the perception that 'you not my mommy to tell me'. This implies a change occurring over the generations, to influence the concept of 'my child is your child', and therefore, the instantaneous reaction to provide love, guidance, and punishment in the biological parent's absence has faded. One participant commented on this as follows:

> *"I think the children actually don't have respect for their grandparents because they are like with their other friends that's parents are also not there and they like think they – 'she is just my grandma – she can't tell me what to do'"* **(Family C, participant G3).**

Grandparents fear losing the children they are raising. This was confirmed by one participant who indicated that his grandmother refused to let him move to Cape Town to live with his biological father. The decision was supported by his biological mother, even though his father was willing to raise him, and living in the City would provide more potential benefits. In this case, family blood ties, strong parental connections, and strong grandparent attachment relationships superseded the biological father's wishes. The separation of a child from their home is a decision that should consider the risk and benefits of staying at home in familiar surroundings with family and friends, and considering what would be in the best interest of the child (DeRoma, Kessler, McDaniel & Soto, 2006). This indicates that parental attachment of children or grandchildren could negatively impact on the bonding relationship with the other parent being denied, in this instance, the father.

> *"It's still that time there in the Cape. And he (father) came once. because his dad(grandfather) wanted him to take the child and bring him so that they can rear the child big"* **(Family C, participant G1).**

Grandparents are fundamental role players in assisting young mothers with child-rearing (Boski, 2010; Inglehart & Welzel, 2005; Nowak, 1979; Siemer, 2002). Similarly, a Polish study revealed the significant role grandmothers play in this regard (Lubiewska, 2012, p. 213). Additionally, the attachment from grandmother to grandchild was found to be stronger than from the mother to the child, displaying strong grandmother (G1)–grandchild

(G3) relationships (Lubiewska, 2012). Stronger attachment thus assumedly influences the transmission of parenting styles and practices displayed by the grandparent. In addition, in cohabiting households, parenting styles and practices are transferred between cohabiting generations of parents. Lubiewska (2012) noted that three-generational families frequently imitate the family structure and functioning due to increased grandparent involvement.

Intergenerational dependency through assistance and guidance given to young parents increases the relationship between parents and their younger parents entering adulthood roles (Lubiewska, 2012). This relationship generates generational unity and encourages the transference of parenting skills and practices.

Lubiewska (2012, p. 217) suggests that "persons, the direction, and outcomes of intergenerational transmission are affected by the persons (agents) who are involved in the process, their respective relationships, the issue (contents) that are transmitted and the cultural context in which transmission takes place". According to Lubiewska (2012), parenting aspects include characteristics such as availability, supportiveness, and sensitive responsiveness, which have been demonstrated as fundamental in the intergenerational transmission of association between parent-child relations.

Studies have generally focused on two adjacent generations functioning and contributing to parenting children (Simpson & Belsky, 2008). Thus, three intergenerational families is therefore an under-researched area. Accordingly, further exploration of the latter in terms of intergenerational transference of parenting is therefore required. Furthermore, thus study demonstrates the importance of three-generational families and highlights the intergenerational parenting transference between G1, G2 and G3 parents and families.

The aspect of transference or transmission may be explained in two ways, namely: *absolute transmission* means that both generations share the same level of values, ideals, morals, beliefs, and ethics (Trommsdorff, 2008), whereas *relative transmission* endorses the

notion less, but the association of transmission between generations may be identified (Trommsdorff, 2008). This signifies that transference occurs between generations, at times sturdily and direct, and at other times less intense and indirect, with traces of continuity of some practices, and alternatively, discontinuity of others.

The assistance of grandparents in child-rearing is affirmed by Family B, participant G2. This shows a strong correlation with grandparents (G1) supporting parents (their children-G2) and influencing the parenting of their children and grandchildren. This suggests that grandparents are providing support and influencing their children's parenting, and that supportive parenting is provided across generations.

> *"My children, my two older children actually also grew up by my mother - because when I worked, my mother took care of them."* **(Family B, participant G2)**.

> *"I told my son I'll stay home to rear her (grandchild)."* **(Family B, participant G2).**

> *"My mother helped me with them when he and I were separated - my mother helped me a lot with them"* **(Family B, participant G2).**

Up to half a million infants are born every year to teenagers in the US (Oyserman et al., 2002). These infants are regarded as being at risk of developing optimally – socially, culturally, and cognitively (Oyserman et al., 1994), as teen mothers tend to lack the ability to parent adequately. Furthermore, in their preschool years, these children tend to display more distractible and impulsive behaviours, and have lower academic performance and levels of cognitive functioning (Oyserman et al., 1994). The parenting style adopted by these teen parents contributes to the problems experienced by the infants and later as toddlers in preschool (Oyserman et al., 1994). Thus, parenting style, especially of teenage mothers, is seemingly important to improve the development – both behavioural and cognitive – of children.

> *"Yes, that should change because see, you now have a responsibility on yourself, the way you brought it upon yourself. So, you have to stand for it. But like today's kids, they have the babies, then they still go out. If you see in the tavern-how the young children are drunk, and they have children at home. Now I say it's the parents who allow the kids*

because if you say you don't go out, look after your own child." **(Family B, participant G2).**

"The good ones are excluded, but there are some of them where the child is there, mommy have to watch - I go. My mother raised us when the older sisters of us who had children now said, 'look after your child!' Weekends, through the week, you have to sit here and watch." **(Family B, participant G2).**

Parent-child interactions of young adolescent mothers varies in comparison to older mature mothers, with the former being less empathic, approachable, and communicative in their interactions with their children than older mothers (Oyserman et al., 1994).

In some instances, parental support increases as grandparent involvement increases. In this regard, grandmother involvement in the process of child-rearing was found to increase emotional stability and greater warmth in the adolescent mother-child interactions (Oyserman et al., 1994). Although less attention is placed on grandfathers, they similarly play a fundamental supportive and influential role (Oyserman et al., 1994).

Thus, grandparent nurturance is advantageous to the infant's development, also they play a significant role in the teenager's life by providing guidance and support. Additional nurturance reinforces positive child-rearing methods and strengthens correct and respectable parenting practices (Oyserman et al., 1994). The support provided enables the teenage mother to complete other tasks, such as schooling, maintain peer relations, and pursuit a career (Oyserman et al., 1994). This form of emotional support provided by grandparents allows for dual roles of a young person in pursuit of a career (work) as well as a young emergent parent to mature within parenting (positive parental skills development).

"About the child he has with the girl. Because the people came to complain to me a lot about her and I have been here with the welfare people twice with her about the child, because she drinks terribly, and she comes scolding about the money he has to give her and then she does nothing not with it - she drinks it out" **(Family B, participant G2).**

"... but she just leaves the child with people to go out. Because when the child, when she (mommy) was younger, she would leave the child with people, then they will tell me that the child is there, and the child is there. Now we go fetch the child, but she is drunk in the tavern." **(Family B, participant G2).**

"I told my son I would stay home to raise her because I mean that child was still small - she kept the child away from us. She says yes, we want to take the child. Because then

she won't get the money now – she doesn't want to work either. I'm told why aren't you going to work? The young people all work – they want to make your own money, because there are people who stay close to her grandfather. No, she doesn't want to because she wants to receive the money just as well" **(Family B, participant G2)**.

Young adolescent teen mothers tend to be more responsive if they receive family/parental instrumental support, including child care, and other parental performs, mentoring, and support (Oyserman et al., 1994). However, in this study, young adolescent teen mothers are uninformed of what their parental responsibilities entail.

"I don't think so (understand what it means to be a parent), because if you see the young children who are pregnant, then you think, I wonder if the child knows lying ahead for her. What I mean by that is a responsibility on you." **(Family B, participant G2)**.

Participants indicated that taking care of grandchildren is generationally transferred, becoming the responsibility of grandparents. Here, G3 and G4 grandchildren receive the 'privilege' of being reared and cared for by their own grandmother. This suggests that grandparents support parents parenting and child-rearing, as well as become the secondary carers for grandchildren.

No support – Family B, participant G2 indicated that the male figures in her home offer no support towards the household chores.

"Because I said that they are 3 men in the house, why don't they clean the yard" **(Family B, participant G2)**.

Family C, participant G1 indicated that grandparents support the parenting of children. Grandparents thus exert an influence on the parenting styles and practices of parents. This can lead to grandparents being afraid of losing the children they are raising:

"...because she (grandmother) was so scared he's going to talk to me now and later he wants to convince me to go away" **(Family C, participant G1)**.

Family C, participant G2 indicated that grandparents play a supportive role by continually providing finances and advice.

"My mom is actually as, for example, as I need with Ashley. Financially, she will also contribute and so forth. She loves giving and she loves to share." **(Family C, participant G2)**.

"Yes, advice and when necessary, she also reprimands them." (Family C, participant G2).

Parents cannot be replaced. Family C, participant G3 indicated that grandchildren have a lack of respect for their grandparents.

"I think the children actually don't have respect for their grandparents because they are like with their other friends that's parents are also not there and they like think they – 'she is just my grandma – she can't tell me what to do" (Family C, participant G3).

The next sub-theme in terms of intergenerational transference is 'norms and values. This is discussed below.

7.4.3 Sub-theme 1.3: Norms and values

Grandparents play a distinctive role in the transmission of family and cultural values, family morals, and traditional beliefs. The more these are cultivated in the family environment and space, the more entrenched they become, strengthening the family members' knowledge and sense of belonging. This instils a strong sense of moral fibre, family relatedness, and family belonging and identity, increasing the level of transference between family generations.

This connectedness is fundamental in disseminating familial norms, standards, expectations, and the cultural identity of their family to their grandchildren (Ofahengaue Vakalahi, & Taiapa, 2013; Winefield & Air, 2010), preserving these across generations. Cross-cultural parenting research reveals universal beliefs and values regarding corrective parenting. For example, children should be nurtured, cultivated, and educated, and not mistreated, neglected, or harmed (Lubell, Loften, & Singer, 2008), suggesting standard forms of parenting, irrespective of different cultural practices. Thus, the culture and ethnicity of parents and families are contributing factors to the beliefs, value systems, and other related family and parenting practices (Bornstein, 2012).

233

Family A, participant G1 indicated that the norm and value of respect and honouring her parents were fundamentally modelled by her mother. Family A, participant G2 described her mother as straightforward and direct, and expressed admiration for her mother's honesty and respect towards others. This shows that parents model norms and values to their children in their interactions with others.

"Where do I get my greatest respect? From my mother" (**Family A, participant G1**).

Communities adopt proverbs or sayings that function as "vehicles of culture in that they express well-known truths, social norms, or moral concerns" (Gibbs & Beitel, 1995, p. 134) or "shared beliefs, values, and wisdom of a society" (Nippold & Haq, 1996, p. 166).

"She (mom) is very straight forward. If she wants to say something to you then she says – she .... you know exactly how far you stand with her. Yes, yes if you want to say something to a person, say it. And say it straight, do not go around corners and threads" (**Family A, participant G2**).

The following sub-section presents the next sub-theme on work ethics and skills

7.4.4 Sub-theme 1.4: Work ethics and skills

'Work ethic' is described as a "cultural norm that advocates being personally accountable and responsible for the work that one does and is based on a belief that work has intrinsic value" (The work ethic site, 2017a) and can be summarised by the following three terms: interpersonal skills, initiative, and being dependable (The work ethic site, 2017a).

Interpersonal skills include "one's habits, attitudes, manners, appearance, and behaviours" used when engaging others (The work ethic site, 2017a). These develop during the early stages of an individual's life and are influenced by parents, extended family, friends, and other environmental experiences and observations related to work demeanour and performance (The work ethic site, 2017a).

In addition, the skills set include: 1) being loyal and able to resolve problems; 2) trustworthiness – to perform in a manner that is reliable/dependable; and 3) self-responsibility

– being responsible for one's own actions. These require self-discipline. Other work traits include showing initiative, drive, and effort; willingness to get work done; willingness to help others; helpfulness, politeness, and self-confidence. Therefore, work ethic and pursuing new skills development is based on inherent values, hard work, diligence, enhancing the character, and developing good morals (Draganescu, 2018).

Across Families A, B, and C, participants G1, G2 and G3 indicated that their parents were hard-working individuals; took pride in the work they performed; involved children in various roles and responsibilities to teach them a good work ethic, various skills, and to be conscientious individuals. Participants indicated that parents encouraged them to work hard and everyone had a role to perform. During the holidays, they were all expected to work as this extra income/manpower was beneficial to the family.

> *"For a long time, my father has patched people's shoes. He called me "Bokkie". 'Bokkie, come help quickly, for dad. Give dad... and make dad ... Bokkie, aunt Maria's shoes are done now I think you can take ta Maria's shoes away. Come, take the shoe brush and shine those shoes first – nicely clean"* **(Family A, participant G1).**

> *"Because I could see everything. My mother was mom and dad, because when our roof was broken, then she was the one to go and look what the roof, a stick those in the cane – thatched roof house – then she was the roof thatcher. You cannot ask a thatcher, because that man wants to be paid. Then she did it."* **(Family A, participant G1).**

> *"And if it had been holidays, then you had to go work. At that time the work was plentiful. Back then age did not matter. If it's vacation, you can go to work. But I do not regret it because that's what we learned and now that we are big, we use that. We know of hardship. And here we are still. And I can plant a pole, I can make a hole, I can."* **(Family A, participant G2).**

> *"What I will take from my mother – hardworking, respect yes and the way she reared me. Not that everything is just for women – men can do that too."* **(Family A participant G3).**

Family A, participant G3 expressed that he will use these aspects, traits, and parenting attributes with his own children, indicating transference to a fourth generation.

> *"I just think there's no choice. If it worked for me and worked for them, it would (transfer to his children) ..."* **(Family A, participant G3).**

Despite being a female child, Family B, participant G1 mentioned that her parents expected her to work and assist with tasks, such as planting seeds and gardening.

Consequently, she developed various work skills, even roles and tasks intended for sons, although every person in the family had their allocated roles and responsibilities.

> *"My dad was a gardener here in Genaal for people he provided vegetables and goodies, and so it was me who was the eldest who should have assisted him. He did not make much of the other siblings, but it was only me he depended upon. We are going to the garden now, but I have to help him and go with to the gardens to assist him and so on"* **(Family B, participant G1).**

> *"My dad raised me almost like his sons. We always needed. He does not have much ... I only had one stepbrother, but we were 7 girls where we were, so we had to do what a boy had to do. Yes, everyone had to bring their part yes."* **(Family A, participant G1).**

> *"In the morning, before going to school, I always let them take their bag of manure on their back and then to take over to the gardens. It was their job before they could go to school in the morning."* **(Family B, participant G1).**

Family C, participant G1 indicated that she parents her children the way her grandmother taught her and the way she was reared as a child.

> **"***My children – all three – I currently have 3 who are alive now and my children actually learn from me what my grandmother – how she raised me"* **(Family C, participant G1).**

Family C, participant G3 reiterated that developing good work skills and ethics are encouraged by her parents, along with pursuing career prospects and aspirations.

> *"So, my parents just preach on hard work and they just want the best and they want us to follow our dreams and just study and make something of ourselves"* **(Family C, participant G3).**

Furthermore, Family B, participant G2 expressed the lack of male support in her household, particularly regarding household chores and the upkeep of the home. This alludes to the decreased responsibility of males in terms of household chores.

> *"Because I said that they are 3 men in the house, why don't they clean the yard"* **(Family B, participant G2).**

Having described work ethic and skills above, attention now shifts to the next sub-theme which looks at the transference of parenting competencies.

7.4.5 Sub-theme 1.5: Parenting competencies transferred

Literature indicates that the parenting transference between G1 and G2 is often an unintended process (Belsky, 2005b; Boyce & Ellis, 2005; Belsky, Bakermans-Kraneburg, & van IJzendoorn, 2007), taking place through supportive and involved parent-child engagements (Pluess & Belsky, 2009). To achieve positive parenting, the function and importance of social and academic **competencies** must be promoted and encouraged for both parents and children alike (Meaney, 2001). Conversely, intergenerational continuity of harsh and controlling parenting in the G1 parents may be transferred and intensified by G2 parents, resulting in anti-social behaviour (Belsky et al., 2009).

Research queries whether the life stage (outlined in Chapter 2) of individuals should be considered in determining the continuity of parenting across generations, such as analogous assessment of G1 and G2 parenting at the same childhood ages for G2 and G3 will produce evidence that shows the amplification of intergenerational continuity (Kovan et al., 2009). It is with this postulation that the life-course theory is deemed crucial in the intergenerational transference of parenting. Therefore, the supposition is that the continuities and discontinuities of parenting styles and practices are assumed and enacted in similar stimulus contributing conditions, producing comparable intergenerational parenting.

Thus, one may distinguish that the inherent characteristics of a parent may vastly contribute to the continuity and discontinuity of parenting styles and practices. In addition, the personality characteristics of a person might serve the same regulating or restraining function in the continuity and transference of parenting. Another aspect to consider are the social and cultural aspects, and that changes in these areas may inadvertently affect the intergenerational transference and continuity of parenting practices (Cicchetti, 2013), as evidently shown in this study. These may, for example, be changes in societal views regarding aspects of parenting and affect the consequent parenting practice.

Family B, Participant G1 noted that parenting includes teaching others, like one's children and grandchildren, while they are parenting. Thus, in the event of observing parental errors, suggestions can be made for improvement. In this way, G1 continues to parent, but this time by facilitating the parenting of her children, thereby positively impacting as a grandparent on child-rearing in the next generation. Teaching correct conduct suggests that parenting is a learning practice, which also implies the transference of parenting practices between generations.

> *"Because I also have daughters who have children and then if they do not do something to my liking, I also talk to them. No man you cannot raise the child like that - he cannot do that"* **(Family B, participant G1).**

For Family B, participant G1, discipline comes love, which includes love and respect for one's siblings. She perpetuated this with her children.

> *"With discipline and we have to love each other and we also – we were 7 kids together and we have never been rude with each other. So, I've reared my children to this"* **(Family B, participant G1).**

Family B, participant G2 alluded to changes occurring when becoming a parent. Therefore, evidently parental responsibilities supersede social and other factors.

> *"My mother raised us when the older sisters of ours had children of her own: 'Look after your child!' 'It's not about galivanting and going to dance and that'"* **(Family B, participant G2).**

Family B, participant G3 indicated that her parents and grandparents shaped her parenting practices through the roles they played in her life, and that she will subsequently apply what she learnt from them. In this way, it is evident that parenting practices are transferred across generations as G3 applies parenting practices acquired from G1 and G2.

> *"Yes, it's due to, because if they had not played such a role in a person's life, I would not be the parent for my children today."* **(Family B, participant G3).**
> *"Yes, they teach me a lot of things - I can learn many things from them, they do not even know about it. I mean, I would see how they handle things, and I try to apply them to my children."* **(Family B, participant G3).**

> *"Yes, so I want them to also to have a life like we had"* **(Family B, participant G3).**

Family C, participant G3 pointed to continuing the parenting practices of her parents.

"If I have children, I would do what my parents are doing, because I think they are doing a good job" **(Family C, participant G3).**

Attention now shifts to the parenting styles and practices that comprises of both qualitative and quantitative components of the study.

7.5 THEME 2: INTERGENERATIONAL TRANSFERENCE: A DIFFERENT APPROACH TO PARENTING

This section presents both the qualitative and quantitative findings and discussions. In support of these parenting discussions and findings, the quantitative results are also presented alongside the qualitative findings to illustrate the findings relating to the intergenerational transference of parenting. For this study, a quantitative approach with a questionnaire was used to collect the data (see Chapter 4, the methodological design of the study). For the purpose of this chapter, the following are tabled: Quantitative demographical information of the participants is presented to explain the case context (Table 7.1); the parenting practices of the 75 participants (Table 7.6); the intergenerational continuities and discontinuities of the case study participants, i.e., the nine (9) participants who also completed the questionnaire (Table 7.5). This then provides an all-encompassing data set of the research findings relating to the parenting styles and practices of the community members – participants – of Genadendal. Theme 2: A Different Approach to Parenting – Doing Things Differently

Although many things have been intergenerationally transferred over time, there are also noticeable changes that have taken place. This theme documents these and the outlined sub-themes: communication, punishment, substance use/abuse, and parenting approaches.

The first sub-theme looks at communication changes.

7.5.1 Sub-theme 2.1: Communication

The aspect of *communication* was presented in both research components to include the qualitative findings and the qualitative results that formulated the discussion of this sub-theme.

Qualitative component: Findings

Previous research on *relationship quality* focused on the intergenerational transmission of negative and positive parenting behaviours (Birditt, Tighe, Fingerman, & Zarit, 2012). Relationship quality revealed that the relationships between parents and children include positive experiences, feelings of love, expressions of caring, and understanding tensions within relationships (Connidis & McMullin, 2002a, 2002b). In addition, studies indicate that the association between parent and child is linked with health, emotion regularity, well-being, and increased support in times of need (Birditt, et al., 2012; Fingerman, Kim, Birditt, & Zarit, 2016). However, it is important to recognise that relationships vary in levels of affection, commonality, and cohesion (Fingerman et al., 2011; 2016), and will therefore inform intergenerational transmission of parent-child relationship quality differently, as indicated by the participants.

Based on his experience, Family A, participant G3 indicated that he endeavoured to form a better relationship and develop a stronger father-son communication bond. This shows that even though the mother-child relationship is well established, children do long for a father-child relationship, and that children value the role and influence of father-child communication.

> *"I think I would have had more of a relationship. Talk to them (children), we did not. (father-son relationship)"* **(Family A, participant G3).**

For Family A, participant G3, the mother-child relationship across the generations was strong and well-established, although the father-child relationship, also perceived as important, required attention and development. Thus, one can deduce that forming good

communication in parent-child relationships is essential for family functioning. Positive

conversing also leads to strong and connected parent-child relationships.

Thus, participant G1 indicated that, in retrospect, she would have had more of a

relationship with her children and engaged in more communication. It appears that in

previous generations, parents talked less, and worked and disciplined more. There is thus the

realisation that communication enhances the parent-child relationship. This supports what G2

and G3 parents previously stated. They emphasised parent-child communication, an open and

honest parent-child relationship, and an environment that encourages the sharing of

information on topics ranging from sex to finding a solution to everyday problems.

Quantitative component: Results

Furthermore, in Table 7.6, the variables *communication* and *discipline* will be

discussed in terms of the mean scores across the families and generations. Families' scoring

for *communication* was as follows: Family A, G1, indicated a high score, M=2.25, as

compared to G2, a low score, M=2.17. Family B indicated a high score for G1, M=2.58, and

a low score for G2, M=1.75 participants. In Family C, a high score was identified in G2,

which was M=2.25, as compared to a low score for G1, M=2.08. This indicates that there is a

decrease in communication within families across generations, because the mean decreased

from G1 to G2 and G3 across the participants' responses. Thus, communication was highest

scored in Family B, G1, M= 2.58, and the low score indicated with Family B, G2, M=1.75.

Families overall scoring for communication showed a decrease from G1 to G2 and G3

participants, as G1 participants scored the highest: Family A, M=2.25; Family B, M=2.58;

and Family C, M=2.25. A comparison across generations shows that G2 participants scored

the lowest, with Family A, M=2.17; Family B, M= 1.75; and Family C, M= 2.08.

communication is positively increasing across generations and within families.

Combined deduction: Overall conclusion for the subtheme *communication*, which includes both the qualitative and quantitative aspects, communication is shown to have positively increased across generations and within families. This is due to the forming of positive parent-child relationships, comprised of positive experiences, feelings of love, and expressions of caring and understanding through open communication being used as a tool which even addresses previously taboo topics like for sex. This depicts that communication is a core contributing factor to formulating parent-child relations, also that it is comprised of strong, open and transparent communication mechanisms. Thus, the quantitative results strongly support the findings of the qualitive findings.

The sub-theme of 'punishment' is discussed next.

7.5.2 Sub-theme 2.2: Punishment

The aspect of *punishment* was presented in both research components to include the qualitative findings and the qualitative results that formulated the discussion of this sub-theme.

Qualitative component: Findings

Research aspects exploring parental discipline represented in the four parenting styles – authoritative, authoritarian, indulgent, and uninvolved – shows a similarity in parenting between mothers and fathers (Simons, Simons, & Su, 2013). Differences, however, were evident in parenting styles of discipline within this study. Mothers were found to be more demanding, displaying an authoritarian parenting style, than projecting a responsive, authoritative style of fathers . This displays gender differences in parenting styles and parental discipline within families and across generations within Genadendal.

Interaction between child gender and parenting style is evident, as girls perceived their fathers as more permissive and authoritative as compared to boys, and boys perceived

their mothers as more authoritative compared to girls (Kausar & Shafique, 2008). This reflects the relative strictness of mothers toward daughters and fathers toward sons.

Parental responses thus differ. Fathers were more attentive to girls' expressions of sadness or anxiety (submissive emotions) and boys' expressions of anger (disruptive emotions) (Eisenberg, Cumberland, & Spinrad, 1998; 2005; Fivush, Brotman, Buckner, & Goodman, 2000).

One participant from Family B adapted her way of inflicting punishment to accommodate her non-strict personality. While changes by a participant in Family C were due to their own experiences of being physically punished by their parents and the adverse effects it had on siblings. This shows that changes in punishment methods are occurring intergenerationally within parenting and that parents opt for punitive and corrective communication, rather than physical punishment.

Community's influence on punishment – Participants indicated that the aspect of discipline and respect of children is connected to how children receive punishment and discipline. In previous years, children were disciplined immediately for their actions or behaviours. This included in public, in front of other parents and children. Evidently, this has changed. The protocol nowadays, explained a participant from Family B, is to call the child inside (the house) to be disciplined and punished accordingly. Likewise, a participant from Family C commented that previously there was a culture of parenting where every parent cared for and disciplined a child, regardless of whether that parent was the biological parent. The concept of 'my child is your child' was traditionally practiced. The notion of reintroducing this practice was supported, highlighting the deep sense of responsibility towards the community's children by other parental figures.

> *"They've had the culture where other people's children were their children. They looked after the child if that child is just in the street without a parent and if that child is someone else's child did wrong, he would spank that child and treat the child as your*

*own. So, I think if something like that would be brought back to like it will also help to better the attitudes and gain respect from the children" (**Family C, participant G3**).*

7.5.2.1 Category 2.2.1. Community's influence on punishment

Despite legislative changes banning corporal punishment, punishment and discipline is a requirement for well-structured and acceptable behaviours (de Witt, 2016).

Discipline is viewed as a positive form of punishment, while *negative discipline,* which includes various forms of physical and harmful punishment, is not (de Witt, 2016), e.g., detention instead of canning. Discipline includes parent-child communication, providing an explanation for the punishment. Discipline simulates parental consistency in values, principles, and rules, resulting in positive emotional security, as the child feels safe to make a mistake as the parent allows for errors to occur, but is aware of expectations, well-established limits, and consequences of inappropriate performs (de Witt, 2016). This consequently develops the child's intellectual perceptiveness, emotional stability, and reinforces the parent-child relationship.

Commenting on changes in the punishment styles of parent, Family B, participant G1 noted that previously parents immediately disciplined children, even if in the street, but today they do it privately in their homes.

> *"Children do not really get what we got. You are not punished in the road; you must come in and you will be punished." (**Family B, participant G1**).*

Family B, participant G2 appears to be more lenient with the punishment given to children. The children are not as strongly reprimanded as previously expressed by G1.

> *"I do not want them - see I do not have that strictness .... if I've told them tonight 10 o'clock to be in the house or that time in the house and they're not there then I will not scold or punish them. I'll just say you came late? And next time you come – I'm not going to keep food for you. That's all. But still I do set aside their food and the things I do." (**Family B, participant G2**).*

Family C, participant G1 adopted a different way of punishment.

> *"Maybe it's because of I've felt, sometimes when one think of it today - my sister says grandmother abused us, but I do not believe it – it's not abuse. It's only where you do*

wrong, you have to be punished, and it's how I feel now. But then I just moved differently through the punishment." **(Family C, participant G1).**

"But I was not the one to discipline" **(Family C, participant G1).**

Community's influence – Family C, participant G3 alluded to a change in punishment across generations, with her parents being stricter when she was growing up. (Li, 2017)

"I think they are not so strict like their parents were. And they allow more freedom. And then you don't get hidings" **(Family C, participant G3).**

The following section encompasses the quantitative component relating to discipline and punishment.

Quantitative component: Results

Discipline – The following mean scores present the high and low scores for *discipline* and *boundary setting* as follows: Family A, G1, presented a high score, $M=10.00$, and G2, a low score, $M=8.33$; Family B presented a high mean score for G3, $M=9.50$, and a low score for G2, $M=7.67$; and Family C presented a high score for G1, $M=9.83$, and a low score for G2, $M=8.67$.

This shows that G2 across Families scored the lowest mean as compared to G1 in Family A and C that scored a high mean of $M=10.00$ for Family A, and $M=9.83$ for Family B. However, in Family B, G3 scored $M=9.50$, showing an increase from the low mean score $M=7.67$ presented in G2 parenting.

The following mean score presents the high and low scores for *non-reasoning punitive dimensions*. Family A, a high mean score $M=2.00$ for both G1 and G2 participants. This shows no change in and across generations of this family. Family B, a high mean score of $M=2.00$ for G2 and G3, and a low mean score of $M=1.75$ for G1. This shows an increase from G1 to G2 and G3 participants across generations in Family B case unit. For Family C, a high mean score of $M=2.00$ for G2 and low mean score of $M=1.25$ for G1. This shows an

increase from G1 to G2 participants. Across families and generations, the highest mean score was M=2.00 for G1 and G2 in Family A and Family B, as well as Family C, G2. The lowest mean score across families and generations was indicated by Family C, G1, M=1.25, and Family B, G1, was M=1.75. This shows an overall increase in punitive parenting, although the overall scoring remains low with M=2.00 as the highest score. Nevertheless, greater emphasis is placed on discipline and boundary setting, rather than punitive parenting. Thus, punitive reasoning is increasing from G1 and becoming more evident, with higher scores in G2 and G3 participants.

Combined deduction: Overall conclusion for the subtheme ***punishment*** which includes both the qualitative and quantitative aspects. It was found that the community and parents of Genadendal practice strong discipline and boundary setting. This ultimately sustains the culture, rules, roles, responsibilities, and social order in the community presented in the qualitative findings and further corroborated by the quantitative results. As the data show that the community and parents across generations and families work collaboratively to ensure discipline and social competence.

The sub-theme of 'substance use/abuse' is presented next.

7.5.3 Sub-theme 2.3: Substance use/abuse

One parent relayed that her parents consumed alcohol but not in the presence of the children. This may be the reason for her disinterest in consuming alcohol. In this instance, participant G2 refrained from alcohol consumption and modelled a non-alcoholic environment to her children. This shows that alcohol consumption between families is a preference and may vary from one family or generation to another.

> *"What some people do – they drink and make noise with the children or so, but our parents have not preceded us for such things. That's what we saw when we grew older. Have we also seen them to have a drink, but they were never difficult at home or difficult with us? But till today I do not like doing such things." (**Family B, participant G1**).*

In Family A, parents' substance of choice was alcohol, which affected their parenting abilities and altered their behaviours. The children, however, opted for a different lifestyle and approach. This shows that substance use across generations affect both parents and children differently and informs future parenting. This may be further supported as the dimensions of Control (*M*=7.56, *SD*=1.24) showed a low mean score. Also, the dimension of physical coercion was very low presenting a mean score of (M=2.06 and SD=.93). Indicating that the extent of controlling parenting is implemented to a lesser extent and more opportunities for responsible decision making is provided.

Combined deduction: Overall conclusion for the subtheme ***substance abuse***, the findings show that substance abuse in prevalent in the community, however that parental coercion and control are exercised to a lesser extent allowing for decision making skills to develop. Therefore, the qualitative and quantitative aspects, show that the approach to substance abuse appear to be changing in the latter generations, due to different forms of parenting dimensions performed as to prior generations.

7.5.4   Sub-theme 2.4: Parenting differently

Across Families A, B and C, and across generations G1, G2 and G3, participants indicated that they have adopted the parenting practices that they were taught and that were modelled by their parents, in their own parenting practices with their children. This is illustrated in the quantitative results in Table 7.6.

Table 7.7 presents the scores for the variables.

Table7.7 Case profile of participants and parenting variables

FAMILY	Family A			Family B			Family C		
GENERATION	G1	G2	G3	G1	G2	G3	G1	G2	G3
Parenting Styles									
Variables	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	M
Authoritarian	4.70	4.90		4.40	4.20	4.70	4.50	5.00	
Authoritative	3.60	3.40		3.10	3.50	3.00	4.30	2.20	
Permissive	2.90	2.90		2.10	2.90	2.10	4.40	2.10	

Parenting Practices Variables	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	M
Autonomy Granting Dimension	3.20	2.80		2.60	3.20	3.60	2.00	3.00	
Communication	2.25	2.17		2.58	1.75	2.33	2.08	2.25	
Connection	3.00	4.00		3.00	3.00	3.80	3.60	3.60	
Control	8.67	7.17			6.67	7.67	10.00	7.67	
Discipline and boundary setting	10.00	8.33		8.67	7.67	9.50	9.83	8.67	
Self-efficacy – emotion and affection	6.50	7.00		9.17	6.67		9.50	8.00	
Empathy and understanding	8.67	9.33		8.50	9.00	10.00	9.83	9.50	
Learning and knowledge	7.67	8.83		7.83	9.17	8.33	10.00	8.00	
Parental authority	3.73	3.73		3.20	3.53	3.27	4.40	3.10	
Physical coercion	2.00	2.00		1.75	1.75	1.75	1.00	1.00	
Play and enjoyment	6.00	7.50		9.00	8.50	10.00	10.00	5.33	
Pressures	5.17	4.17		6.67	8.33		6.83	6.17	
Parental self-efficacy	4.64	4.73		4.73	4.73	5.55	5.73	4.91	
Psychological control	1.38	1.25		1.50	1.38	1.38	1.75	1.38	
Non-reasoning Punitive Dimension	2.00	2.00		1.75	2.00	2.00	1.25	2.00	
Regulation dimension	4.00	3.40		4.00	3.60	4.00	3.60	3.60	
Parent social context-Rejection	5.20	2.20		2.20	3.40	0.80	4.20	0.40	
Self-efficacy	4.40	4.00		4.20	3.50	3.80	4.60	4.50	
Self-acceptance	8.67	9.17		8.67	9.17	9.50	8.50	8.83	
Parent social structure-Structure	9.67	9.67		9.00	8.00	9.33	10.00	10.00	
Verbal hostility	3.00	1.25		1.00	1.25	2.50	3.50	1.75	

The variables for the *parenting styles* are described next:

Authoritarian Parenting Style – Table 7.7 shows a variation in the scores for *authoritarian parenting*. These are illustrated as follows: Authoritarian mean scores for Family A: a high score for G2, *M*=4.90, and a low score for G1, *M*=4.70. This indicates an increase in the mean, which shows that G2 scoring is marginally higher than G1.

Family B, participant G3 indicated a high score *M*=4.70, and G2 indicated the lowest *M*=4.20 of the three generations. Family C, G2, presented a high score, *M*=5.00, and G1 presented a low score, *M*=G1-4.50. Across the families and generations, the scores show that Family C scored the highest *M*=5.00 for G2, and Family B, G2, the lowest *M*=4.20.

Therefore, both G2, across Family B and Family C, presented high and low scores. However, the differences between the high and low mean scores show that the authoritarian style of parenting was the highest scored across generations and families.

Permissive Parenting Style – Contrary to the high mean scores for *authoritarian parenting,* permissive parenting scored the lowest. Permissive parenting styles for Family A presented the same high and low score M=2.90, which shows no change in the permissive parenting style for G1 transferred to G2. Permissive parenting styles for Family B presented a high score M=2.90 for G2 participants, compared to G1 and G3, which scored the same low score of M=2.10. This shows that from G1 to G2 an increased occurred as compared to G2 to G3 where a decrease occurred. This shows a similarity between G1 and G3 parenting styles, which may be due to the influence of grandparents. Family C shows a high mean score M=4.40 in G1 as compared to the low score M=2.10 in G2. The scores reveal a decrease in the permissive parenting style from G1 to G2. Therefore, across families and generations, the intergenerational transference was high for Family C, M=4.40, and the lowest score M=2.10 in both Family B, G2 participants, and Family A, G2 participants. This shows a decrease in the use of permissive parenting within G2 participants.

Authoritative Parenting Style – The mean scores for *authoritative parenting* varied across generations and in families. In Family A, the high score M=3.60 was for G1 compared to the low score M=3.40 for G2. For Family B, the high score M=3.50 was for G2, and the low score was M=3.10 for G1. In Family C, the high score for G1 was M=4.3 and for G2 a low score M=2.2. This shows a decrease in authoritative parenting from G1 to G2 and G3. Overall, findings show that most families are authoritarian, but across generations, the trend shows that G2 and G3 are becoming less authoritative and more authoritarian.

Parenting Practices – The variables presented in Table 7.6 provide the overall practices of parents presented in this study. However, only the following variables are

relevant and discussed further: *communication* (sub-theme 2.1), *discipline and punitive parenting* (sub-theme 2.2) are discussed in Theme 2, to formulate part of the discussion outlining a different approach to parenting.

7.5.4.1 Category 2.4.1: Not implementing parenting styles of previous generations

Parental monitoring is essential for positive and effective adolescent development (Pettit, Bates, Dodge, & Meece, 1999). Poor monitoring is the primary predictor of problem externalising behavioural outcomes, such as anti-social behaviour (Ary, Duncan, Duncan, & Hops, 1999; Metzler, Noell, Biglan, Ary, & Smolkowski, 1994). Thus, the features contributing to constructive parenting differ over the life-course of individuals as their developmental phases change but are linked to the overall outcomes.

Research shows that intergenerational parenting that is positive, productive, and comprises aspects such as being supportive, consistent, and dependable are most often transferred from one generation to the next (Belsky et al., 2009; Chassin, Presson, Todd, Rose, & Sherman 1998; Chen & Kaplan, 2001; Simons, Beaman, Conger, & Chao, 1992; Thornberry et al., 2003).

Participants identified changes in parenting, such as younger parents having babies but not assuming their parental responsibilities. This reveals the transferring of parental responsibilities to one's parents and grandparents.

> *"But as today's children, they have babies, then they still go out."* (**Family B, participant G2).**

> *"And do you know what's the problem? Our parents were too young and unknowledgeable mothers, do you understand? That's why we have many single parents."* (**Family C, participant G2).**

> *"She just leaves the child at the grandpa and go her merry way, then she came back the next day only."* (**Family B, participant G2).**

> *"They (parents) have nothing to do with the children these days. They go where they want and the children, they leave them at their own devices."* (**Family B, participant G3).**

Family B, participant G2 indicated that previously when becoming a parent, more responsibility was taken, and changes were made to accommodate the care of a child. But this is not the case, with increased expectations placed on grandparents to rear grandchildren.

"But as today's children, they have babies, then they still go out." **(Family B, participant G2).**

"She just leaves the child at the grandpa and goes her merry way, then she comes back the next day only." **(Family B, participant G2).**

Family B, participant G3 indicated that many parents are not continuing with the styles of previous generations. This implies changes in child-rearing over the generations, and a deviation from traditional community values, norms, and practices.

"*They (parents) have nothing to do with the children these days. They only go where they want and the children, they leave them alone"* **(Family B, participant G3).**

Family C, participant G2 identified that one of the key challenges today is that parents are too young and immature for the role of parenthood that they find themselves in.

"And do you know what's the problem? Our parents are too young and unknowledgeable mothers, do you understand? That's what we have many single parents." **(Family C, participant G2).**

Some of the good parenting practices have been discontinued, noted Family C, participant G3. It is therefore suggested that these be revisited and reintroduced.

"They've had the culture where other people's children were their children. They looked after the child if that child is just in the street without a parent and if that child is someone else's child did wrong, he would spank that child and treat the child as your own. So, I think if something like that would be brought back to like it will also help to better the attitudes and gain respect from the children" **(Family C, participant G3).**

The next identified changing factor is discussed below.

7.5.4.2 Category 2.4.2: Independence of adult children

Participant G2 commented that she encourages her children to be independent and move out by the age of 25–29 years (the stage of emerging adulthood). This stage is characterised by the transition from parental dependence to independence (Arnett, 2015). By allowing one's adult children to remain in the parental home with their families (creating

multi-parenting households), G1 parents are limiting their emerging adult children's sense of autonomy and independence by formulating multi-parenting households.

Similarly, Family B, participant G3 also encouraged the independence of her adult children at an early onset, this is directly related to the LCT which determines development over the life span, and across generations. When making changes in her own parenting, these were questioned or opposed by her mother (G2). This shows a clear generational difference in the transference of parenting practices between G1 and G2 parenting, excerpts below:.

> *"What I will do differently is that if my children are at age 29 or 25 and they have children themselves, then I will go on your own - stand on your own feet. Now, my mom does not do that. She is still in the house and the one for me is so funny, because you have to be on your own legs. You have to get your own place. You cannot always be under the wings of my mother now my mom is so, she does not want to let her children go – she still wants to hold on to them and so." (Family B, participant G3).*

Although attachment is formed in the early developmental stages of children, Bowlby (1980) describes the attachment theory as a life-span developmental theory, as all humans need to form close and affectional bonds from childhood into adulthood. Rees (2016) professes that attachment is an important emotional link that binds families together; it also helps children to become independent and to be parents in the future. However, for the parents in this study, it appeared that attachment and emotional links created a sense of dependence rather than independence.

> *"Many times, I want to talk - I'm too strict with my children then my mom walks in and then she will say not like that, so. Then I say you make me confused because I'm their mother, so they must listen to me and it's very awkward for me - we have it many times and so. That's why I say I'll do that thing differently. I will expect my children if they are 21 and they do not have children, or they do have children - go live on your own. I want to see if you can stand on your own feet." (Family B, participant G3).*

7.5.4.3 Category 2.4.3: Less responsibility for older children

Parents from G1 relied on their eldest children to assist with the functioning of the household and other sibling related activities. Conversely, participant G2 placed fewer responsibilities on her oldest child to avoid school dropout and create more opportunities. Similarly, Family B, participant G3 encouraged her eldest child to complete school and

receive a good education. This decision was made in retrospect of the fact that this participant had fewer schooling opportunities, and desires more for her child than what she had experienced. This suggests that children today are encouraged to complete their schooling and become educated individuals compared to previous generations, highlighting generational changes.

> *"For me, it – I told my eldest one to finish school is very important for mommy, mommy was not there but I want to do everything in mommy's ability to give you the best in life. Mommy did not do that; mommy wants you to prove to mommy. So, I do everything in the ...? to give it to you my child. Because I did not have one."* **(Family B, participant G3).**

7.5.4.4 Category 2.4.4: Reflecting on changes of punishment styles over the generations

One parent mentioned that her older children received punishment due to the grandmother's influence, while the younger children were punished differently – in a more 'modern' manner. This points to a change in punishment styles across generations G1 and G2, but also within G3.

> *"They, I will not say - The two older children who were with my mother, they will still, but the youngest one - he's a bit - he's like I'll say, more with the younger ones. He has been more in modern times - how would I say - see the modern time is very different from what we have been."* **(Family B, participant G2).**

> *"I think they are not so strict like their parents were. And they allow more freedom. And then you don't get hidings"* **(Family C, participant G3).**

Corporal punishment is typically characteristic of African American households, who also tend to use strong instantaneous messages to convey their expectations and achieve results (Lubell et al., 2008; Simons et al., 2013). Authoritative parenting (characterised by high warmth, support, supervision, and consistent discipline with little or no corporal punishment) tends to refrain from inflicting physical punishment in discipline. The latter is more evident in this rural South African community.

> *"Maybe it's because of I've felt, sometimes when one think of it today - my sister says grandmother abused us, but I do not believe it – it's not abuse. It's only where you do wrong, you have to be punished, and it's how I feel now. But then I just moved differently through the punishment."* **(Family C, participant G1).**

> **"But I was not the one to discipline"** **(Family C, participant G1).**

Within this community, the normative form of punishment was the use of corporal punishment. However, this practice appears to reduce parental competence in parents that implement this form of punishment (Simons et al., 2013). Also, the effects on children show higher misbehaviour and depression, more delinquency, and poor school performance (Simons et al., 2013). Thus, it would appear that this form of parenting appears to be rooted in cultural parental parenting practices, where culture and ethnicity pre-determine the parenting styles and practices that are implemented. Also, the meaning associated with parental warmth and control varies between cultural groups, although the different enacted parenting is directed towards attaining similar outcomes in children across cultures (Deater-Deckard et al., 2011).

Components of warmth and other authoritative parenting dimensions have positive effects on children across cultures (Steinberg & Silk, 2002). Thus, there is cross-cultural effectiveness of various parenting dimensions and the associated outcomes produced in children, as well as the transferability of parenting practices as perceived and intrinsically converted parenting performs (Morris et al., 2013). Therefore, there is directional influence and transferability on parenting between parent and child interaction. Cultural, environmental, and contextual factors influence and contribute to the effectiveness of parental practices and towards the establishment of understanding the competencies to function optimally as parental figures within the parenting practices enacted (Deater-Deckard et al., 2011).

In most instances, the parenting practices and forms of discipline used by parents are expected, as they are derived from one's own parent's child-rearing methods and upbringing (Belsky, Jaffee, Sligo, Woodward, & Silva, 2005; Conger et al., 2003). These normative expectations are grounded on the view that parenting practices are modelled, and in this manner, children learn parenting practices from their parents (Patterson, 1998; Simons et al.,

1992). This shows significant strength in the intergenerational transference of parent-child intergeneration associations concerning parenting styles and practices being transferred across generations and therefore conserved over time between generations (Capaldi et al., 2008; Capaldi, Pears, Patterson, & Owen, 2003; Smith & Farrington, 2004). These findings spur further exploration to understand the ethology of parenting practices and how parenting is transferred from the first to the second generation (G1 and G2), and the possible subsequent effects on children in the second and third generations (G2 and G3). The conceptualisation, therefore, is that constructive parenting consists of multifaceted aspects of parenting that contribute to generational transference and the life cycle of an individual.

Family B, participant G2 highlighted noticeable differences in the behaviour of her older and younger children, with the latter being more 'modern'. This points to a difference between children and the epochs they are reared in, and the influence this has on behaviour.

"They say I will not say - The two older children who have been with my mother, they will still, but the youngest one - he's a bit - he's like I'll say, more with the younger teams. He now has more in modern times - how would I say - see the modern time is not very different from what we have been" **(Family B, participant G2).**

Reflecting on the drinking habits or behaviours of some parents, Family B, participant G1 mentioned that some parents party and socialise with their children, which implies the joint consumption of alcohol. For participant G1, this was not the case in her home, and as a result, to this day, she does not consume alcohol. This highlights parental role modelling in alcohol consumption, contributing to the use or non-use of substances.

"What some people do - they drink and make noise with the children or so, but our parents have not preceded us for such things. That's what we saw when we grew older. Have we also seen them to have a drink, but they were never difficult at home or difficult with us? But till today I do not like doing such things." **(Family B, participant G1).**

Combined deduction: Overall conclusion for the subtheme a different approach to parenting, the findings show that second and third generation parents develop good parenting competencies which were transferred from previous generations. However, even though these are strongly transferred intergenerationally across generations for continuity there is also

different approaches assumed such as not implementation previous generations parenting styles, like G1 authoritative but G2 is more authoritarian approach, showing changes and discontinuities occurring within generations G2 and G3, over time.

Some concluding comments are provided next.

7.6 CONCLUSION

In conclusion, the similarities identified across the generations were: 1) Generational transference of parenting, which included caring for the community, norms, and values of the family, work skills, and ethics; 2) Parenting practices included physical care, emotional care, routine, and teaching, and the differences were communication and substance abuse; 3) Building relationships; 4) Discipline; 5) Transferring norms and values; respect for people, respecting the property of others, religious practices, responsibility; and 6) Parent-child communication; importance of showing (modelling) positive communication, open communication, and expressing love. The differences identified were communication and substance abuse. These were the strongly correlated similarities and differences identified as outlined in the themes discussed above.

This study therefore extended previous literature on two-generational transference by examining intergenerational transmission of parenting practices across three generations of families. Transference of parenting behaviours from one generation to the next was evident. Children who experienced negative parenting behaviours perpetuated these with their children. Likewise, positive characteristics of parenting were simulated and transferred from one generation to the next. In short, children exposed to positive or negative parenting behaviours and practices are more likely to replicate the parenting behaviours they are exposed to and then further transfer the observable behaviours from one generation to the next. Yet, there are no studies to our knowledge that examine how generational differences (discontinuation) occur or intergenerational transmission of relationship qualities across three

generations would assimilate or vary. This chapter therefore concludes that parenting

encompasses various components that are continued or discontinued through

intergenerational transference.

7.7 SUMMARY: INTERGENERATIOAL TRANSFERENCE OF PARENTING AND THE LIFE COURSE THEORY

This study used a life cycle theory (LCT) to understand the intergenerational transference of parenting within families and over time. In this chapter particularly, Chapter 7, it is evident that continuities and discontinuities are occurring within families across generations. The LCF allowed the influences, understanding, knowledge and development of intergenerational parenting to be explored in-depth. This provided in-depth information regarding the intergenerational transferred practices and the different approaches to parenting adopted.

The case study of families and participants from the qualitative and quantitative phase of the study, provident substantial evidence of the extensive influences: socially, culturally and historically. The evidence emerged over the life course of a person within a particular context, to develop the individuals, the family, their experiences and perceptions of parenting. This was further demonstrated in the parent-child relational factors that was revealed, as established parent-child relational traits over time, as highlighted in Chapter 5. These were recurrent parenting patterns, identified over generations that are being transferred. The influence of environmental factors on the functioning of individuals were also established. The findings demonstrated that the environment does impact on their parenting practices that are adopted and practiced later in life when individuals become parents - in Chapter 6 of this study. This related to the stages of the LCT of an individual who is consistently influenced across the lifespan from birth to adulthood.

Through the lens of the LCT, the parenting factors, like the parent-child relationship demonstrated in Chapter 5, plays a central role in the parenting styles and practices that are adopted and intergenerationally transferred within families. Evidently, good parenting requires certain skills and competencies. This study established and provided a clear set of

parenting competencies which was demonstrated as the key fundamentals to understand and practice positive parenting. Furthermore, these parenting competencies were divulged and validated as both the - past and present - fundamental practices that have been realised, implemented, replicated and reshaped over generations of parenting and produces positive social and behavioural outcomes, within individuals from birth to adulthood (LCT).

Furthermore, the effects, be it positive or negative, of this parent-child relationship is often demonstrated in children's behaviour. The LCT evidently highlights their interaction with the environment (showing the interrelatedness of relational parenting and environmental influences), and their own parenting styles displayed later in life and henceforth still influenced by contributing factors. In this manner, transmission takes place from one generation to the next by these three key areas which were discussed in Chapters; 5, 6, and 7 respectively. This ultimately produces intergenerational continuities and enables the development of certain parenting knowledge, skills and abilities, leading to acquired parenting competencies over time. Therefore, over the life course of an individual, parenting and parenting factors form a measure of understandings, explanations and experiences that will either form an inclination or declination within the individual to generate and transfer parenting styles and practices. The LCT, which allows for the exploration of patterns, such as parenting across generations, ultimately inform the progression of parenting intergenerationally and over time.

PARENTING GUIDELINES FOR PARENTS AND PROFESSIONALS

8.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the emerged guidelines from the workshop, results, and data analysis of the preceding three chapters (Chapters 5, 6 and 7). The guidelines formulated document and present the parenting approaches captured in the study (across the three generations). This chapter provides an all-inclusive compendium of parenting across the three generations. It also shows which parenting practices have continued and discontinued across the generations, as well as provides reasons for the changes applied by the parents.

The aim of the workshop was to establish consensus the intergenerational transmission of parenting between generations – from G1, to G2, up until G3. The workshop presented the findings of the study for participants' further input. Their engagement and contribution in the process provided invaluable insight into the maturation of parenting across generations by highlighting the continuities and discontinuities that have taken place over time within these families parenting practices.

In conclusion, the workshop assisted to understand the individual, family, and cultural differences that have encouraged intergenerational parenting. The process uncovered diverse contributing processes and related parenting factors, which concurred with the data regarding parental and environmental factors influencing parenting. All these aspects informed the design and modification of the guidelines for parents and practitioners as outlined below.

8.2 FORMULATING GUIDELINES

In developing guidelines, specific rules should be followed to provide order and avoid misrepresentative or distorted understandings (Jaeschke, Jankowski, Brozek & Antonelli, 2009). The following steps adapted from Jaschke et al., (2009) were applied in this study: a) Determine the purpose, scope, and intended audience; b) Select the main focused clinical

demands the guidelines will address; c) Decide on the relative importance of outcomes; d) Evaluate the balance of desirable and undesirable outcomes and consequences for a particular course of action; e) Formulate recommendations, including their strength; and f) Consider a system for subsequent guideline implementation and evaluation. These are the guiding steps that help produce guidelines in a systematic process:

- *a) Purpose of the guidelines:*

- The purpose of the guidelines is to produce proactive measures to strengthen parenting and parenting practices to strengthen and support parents, professionals, families, and communities that engage in child-rearing aspects:

  b) Objective:
- The main focused clinical demands the guidelines will address:

- Provide opportunities for proactive action to individuals and families whose circumstances make them eligible for specific assistance like these parenting guidelines and related programmes.

- Strategic objectives – parents are made aware of their roles and responsibilities regarding parenting so that they play a meaningful role in prevention.

- *c) Outcomes:*

- Seek to strengthen self-reliance by promoting parenting practices that reduce children's problematic behaviours.

- Are appropriate and accessible to parents and professionals to reduce the increased challenges experienced within parenting and child-rearing.

- Aim to support and strengthen parenting practices to help families cope more effectively.

- Provide the norms and standards of parenting and are directed toward vulnerable parents to reach effective driven parent-child outcomes.
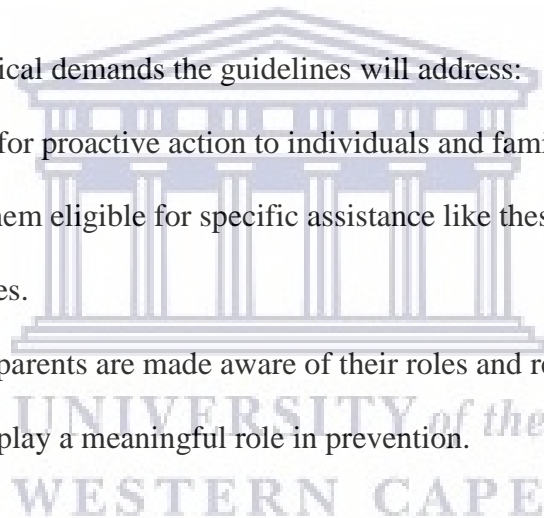
- Promote community participation in child-rearing and allow community members to develop personal ownership of their parenting practices in their communal approaches adopted and re-enacted.

d) Theoretically linked measures (methods):

A combination of theoretical methods may be suitable alongside these developed guidelines formulated within the framework of the LCT. Examples are, the strengths-based approach, narrative approach, and solution-focused perspective. This may be further linked to child care policy documents and even related legislation, such as the Children's Act 38 of 2005.

e) Programmes:

Extended programmes may be used in addition to these guidelines, such as parental training focused on factors affecting children's behaviour; parenting practices that break down children's self-perception; responsive parenting to include communication, listening, and the parent-child relationship; parental assertiveness; parental conflict management; and parental discipline and punishment (understanding the aspects of discipline and punishment; addressing parents' attitudes toward parenting). The guidelines provide tools and measures to understand a phenomenon, like parenting.

f) Deduction:

These guidelines provide parents and professionals with a basis to understand the norms and standards of efficient parenting. In addition to creating an opportunity for learning, they provide insight into the domain of parenting, guard the integrity and promote the well-being of the parent and the child in terms of the social context of the family and community.

8.2.1   Guidelines framework

As explained earlier, the family forms part of other systems, such as the community (Brooks, 2011). The community, in turn, comprises even more systems, such as the school, peers, employment/job environments, church, and so forth (Bronfenbrenner, 1979). Changes occurring in one system (family), creates a ripple effect in other systems and influences interrelated areas, such as parenting within families. For this reason, parenting guidelines or related programmes need to take the surrounding environment and its influential factors (on the family and specifically how families are parenting) into account to ensure that the family benefits from these guidelines and related programmes. Interventions should be geared towards understanding the contextual environmental setting in which parenting takes place, as this will ultimately inform the parenting practices adopted within families and intergenerational transference. Cognisant of this, this study applied Bronfenbrenner's (1979) ecological systems theory as a theoretical perspective to frame the proposed guidelines.

8.2.1.1 The Ecological Systems Theory

Bronfenbrenner (1979) presents the ecological systems theory as a set of interrelated spheres representing interactive systems. These systems include the: microsystem, mesosystem, exosystem, macrosystem, and the chronosystem.

The Figure 8.1 below outlines the linkages between the parenting guidelines that were developed in this study within the framework of the ecological systems theory.
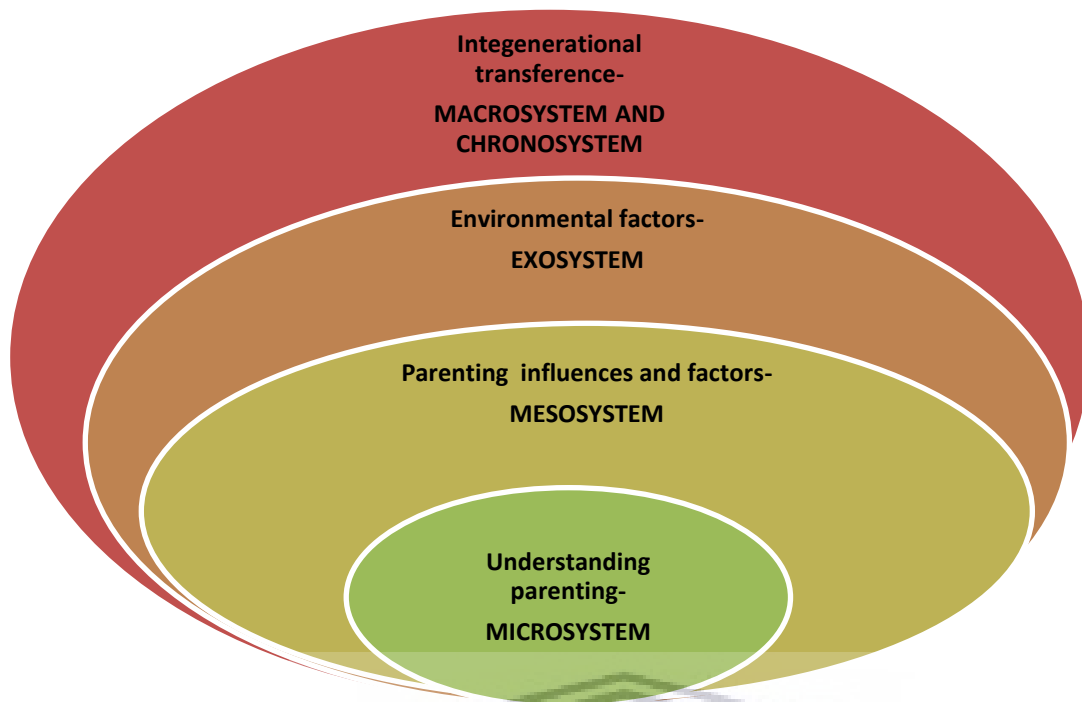
Figure 8.1.Ecological Systems (Source: Adapted from Small, Raghavan & Pawson, 2013)

The ecological model illustrates that the child is dependent on their environment and interactions with these various systems (i.e. the child's family, peers, school teacher, and community) for optimal development (Bronfenbrenner, 1979). This interaction process is necessary for information, awareness, and understanding to be transmitted. Therefore, the ecological systems theory is utilised to demonstrate the interconnectedness of all of these components that are working together to inform parenting in one immense framework of joined systems. This is delineated in Table 8.1 below:

Table 8.1 Ecological Systems within Parenting

The systems	Systems explained	Systems linked to key research areas	Systems linked to themes
The microsystem	The individual is socialised through personal associations and interactions with parents, caregivers, siblings, occupying the same space.	Understanding the term parenting	Attitudes toward parenting
The mesosystem	Extends in terms of the interaction between the developing individual and two or more links such as the home, school, neighbourhood, and friends.	Parenting competencies	Parental tasks
The exosystem	Occurring incidences that influence the developing	Environmental factors	Behavioural outcomes

	person, such as the wider community, extended family, media, religion, activities at school.		
The macrosystem and the chronosystem	Lower-order system that interacts (micro, meso and exosystem layers); the chronosystems occupies time that influences the process of all the layers.	Intergenerational transference (continuity and discontinuity)	Intergenerational transference Doing things differently

The ecological systems were applied to understand the changes that occur within families. These changing processes moved from a microsocial group, and it was explained how they function within a broader macrosocial context. Therefore, the life-course perspective is relevant when used in relation to the ecological systems theory (Bengtson & Allen, 1993). The participants of this study shared their experiences, knowledge, and history to inform the changing social contexts across time and space. Therefore, the application of the life-course perspective to the study of the family reflects the broader contextual view emerging from the literature on the individual life-span development and family processes associated with the intergenerational transference of parenting between families over time.

The life-course theory makes allowance for the analysis of families by reviewing their shared history and social context through which related meanings develop over time (Bengtson & Allen, 1993). This allows for the exploration of meanings transferred within families over time, to develop an understanding of how the socially constructed meanings inform intergenerational parenting. This study thus refines concepts, methods, and theories to understand and explain parenting transference in families over time, which ultimately informs the application and intervention of parenting and parenting practices in the form of guidelines which are presented next.

8.3 GUIDELINES FOR PARENTS: PARENTING COMPETENCIES

These guidelines were designed to drive alignment with parenting competency development in parenting, and promote the intergenerational transference aspects of parenting. This study

expanded Baumrind's (1997, p. 323) simple definition of *competence* as the "attainment of effective human functioning that produces the desired cultural valued norms and goals" to include areas of social, cultural, emotional, psychological, behavioural, political, and socio-economic conditions. It therefore considers that child-rearing requires provision and satisfaction of a range of needs and related child-rearing practices. Baumrind (1997, p. 323) suggests that competence is a motivation, and that children thrive on challenges that drive them to achieve competence. It also underpins successful child-rearing practices to produce positive parenting practices and related positive outcomes of children in all of the above-mentioned aspects. Competence in parenting is developed at an early age by observing and engaging with parents, family, and related social and environmental influences. This is further supported by Grolnick (2003) and Ryan and Deci (2000) who state that every person has basic psychological needs that need to be satisfied, and competence is only one of these needs. Autonomy and relatedness are the other two needs; In terms of *autonomy*, parents seek to employ autonomy in their parenting and parenting practices; hence, second order (G2 and G3) parents adapt, modify, continue, or discontinue parenting through changes applied. Thus, autonomous parenting is another aspect that relates to parenting. Finding ways, means, and methods that work with the desired outcomes preferred to direct child-rearing and the associated outcomes.

Furthermore, the third aspect of competence is the sense of *relatedness* (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Relatedness is essential to reaching parenting competence. This was identified in the study through different mechanisms, such as through parent-child relationships to include communication, as well as through the influences of the environment. This may be due to the reason that competence and achieving competency in tasks (everyday responsibilities, i.e., that parents form) results in feelings of self-worth and self-confidence to attempt new tasks and overcome challenges.

The lack of gaining competence then may lead to the ever-increasing parent-related issues parenting, families, communities, and service providers are confronted with. It may also be linked and associated with the abundance of caseloads, as well as possibly perpetuating the increased violence and other issues confronting communities and households.

Therefore, understanding the different parenting competencies outlined in this study will result in improved parenting and family functioning, as well as provide a positive impact on child development into adults and future parents, formulating the factors contributing toward the intergenerational transference of parenting.

The following section provides the strategies for the different components of the parenting competencies that are outlined.

8.3.1 Understanding the term parenting

Parenting is experienced differently by individuals, depending on various factors. These factors include parent-child relationships that are established and experienced, the social-economic status, cultural practices and belief systems, parenting styles, and other parental factors and parenting abilities that were outlined. Parenting is also influenced (positively or negatively) by parents' parents, grandparents, family, friends, and other community members. This experience forms one's 'attitude towards parenting', contributing to the continuity or discontinuity of those parenting factors in the next generation. Parenting is a continuous learning process that encompasses learning, competency, and application of acquired parental skills, which form the parental competencies.

These formulate some of the mechanisms that informed the guidelines outlined in relation to understanding parenting.

8.3.1.1 Understanding the term parenting: communal aspects

The aspects that encompass the understanding of parenting include:

- Parenting is experienced differently by parents as each try to master the art of parenting, and in so doing, continue or discontinue with certain parenting practices.

- Parenting is a challenging task that requires various skills, abilities, roles, and responsibilities.

- Parenting is classified as hard but rewarding.

- Parenting and child-rearing are challenging, and therefore requires support and guidance.

- Parents' understanding and experience of parenting is influenced by the number of children they rear. Bigger families have increased responsibilities and tasks to perform, while smaller families are able to manage their household responsibilities with more ease. Socio-economic aspects may contribute to less financial strain.

- Level of parental financial income may contribute positively or negatively to the functioning of households, and plays a fundamental role in the experiences that formulate the understanding of parenting.

- Parenting is a choice made in life by parents.

Furthermore, the understanding of parenting may be comprehended in relation to the attitude of parents toward parenting. This is outlined below:

8.3.1.1.1 *Attitude towards parenting*

Aspects that encompass the attitudes parents adopt toward parenting include:

- Parenting requires certain attitudes and attributes that contribute to the experience of parenting.

- Parenting requires certain qualities, like being responsible, strong, and hopeful. This implies the requirement of certain abilities, skills, and tenacity to endure and withstand the challenges encountered during parenting.

- Parenting requires having patience and being strict when dealing with your children.

- Children adopt the attributes of either their mother or father's family. This suggests that parenting practices are merged during marriage, and that children adapt and respond differently. Furthermore, parenting styles and practices are adapted to each child's behavioural characteristics.

Attitudes towards parenting included the *influence of an absent parent*, and conversely, *the involved presence of a parent*.

a) Influence of absent parent

Below is a list of the guidelines provided for the influences of absent parents:

- The absence of a parent impacts on the parent-child relationship.

- The absence of a parent affects the child's functioning, especially at school.

- The absence of a parent leads to increased roles and responsibilities for the constant parent, i.e. assuming dual discipline roles.

- Children respond poorly to partners that assume their parent's absence in the instance of death or separation.

- Parents and children of an absent parent require increased support as they undergo changes in their household linked to parenting practices, roles, and responsibilities.

- Single parents are becoming an increasingly common phenomenon in communities.

- The absence of parents, especially fathers, requires intervention and guided strategies for single parents to be able to understand, manage, and cope with their children's related challenges, psycho-emotional state, and behavioural outcomes.

The positive effects of dual parenting are described next.

b) Influence of dual and active (involved) parenting

The aspects of active and involved parenting are described next.

Dual parenting:

- Has a more positive effect on child behavioural outcomes compared to single parenting.

- Lessens the pressure compared to single parenting situations with no mother or father involvement.

- Provides an opportunity for parents to share roles and responsibilities.

- Facilitates a collaborative approach, producing an effective means of child-rearing.

- Provides a supportive parenting environment.

Evidently, if parents adopt a collaborative and supportive approach, dual parenting will produce more positive and acceptable child outcomes and strengthen good parenting.

8.3.2 Parenting competencies

Parents require certain guiding parenting competencies to ensure some sort of framework to successfully implement child-rearing practices. These parenting guidelines would then be accelerative across generations over time, facilitating intergenerational transference. During this transference of parenting competencies, future parenting receives a semi-structured foundational guide that provides a framework for understanding what parenting encompasses. It also unpacks the roles and responsibilities that are required, including rules and guidelines for parent-child communication, and parent-child relationships. Changes or modifications are intended to improve these parenting competencies. The fundamental aspect informing these aspects is parenting and the transitioning of parenting intergenerationally over time to strengthen parenting competencies.

The next section is focused on the findings related to **parenting competencies**. The two terms – *competent* and *competencies* – may be understood as follows:

Parental *competencies* refer to the skills and knowledge a parent has acquired and requires for standard good/positive parenting and to produce acceptable child outcomes. *Competent* refers to a parent's ability to do, implement, apply, and enforce the competencies, skills, and knowledge received through teachings, modelling, and training that was channelled through relationships and communications. This then provides the understanding

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of parenting competencies in relation to the expectations of knowing the teachings, practices, and skills (competencies), and the subsequent application of confidently and assertively applying the known through action (competent). Thus, the ability to apply the parenting skills and knowledge adequately to the parental process of child-rearing requires the parent to be both competent as well as have inherent competencies.

Several parenting competencies are required for successful parenting. These are outlined below.

8.3.2.1 Parental tasks

Parental tasks include providing *physical care, routine, teaching*, and *modelling*. These are discussed further in the guidelines below:

8.3.2.1.1 Physical care

Parental guidelines for *physical care* include:

- The provision of children's physical care.

- Provision of children's physical needs.

- Conducting parental roles and responsibilities to ensure children's physical care.

- The prohibition of abusive natures, physical mistreatment, or the misapplication of physical punishment to incorporate discipline.

- The absence of mishandling, mistreatment, and cruelty mechanisms against children.

- Implementing structured patterns, arrangements, and routines.

- Children are required to be receptive and agreeable of the processes introduced and expectations set by parents to provide and achieve physical care.

- Parental performs and tasks, such as cooking.

- Spiritual care and spirituality, such as children's church; church attendance, practices, and rites of passage.

The next parental task discussed is *emotional care.*

8.3.2.1.2   Physical care is linked to emotional care

The following guidelines illustrate the link between physical and emotional care:

- Physical and emotional care are complementary to the caring components of child care.

- Emotional care includes showing caring sentiments, and providing warmth, affection and love toward one's child.

- Emotional wellness includes listening to their child's feelings or complaints expressed, and attends to these concerns raised accordingly.

The next three tasks discussed include providing children and households with routine, through structure and daily reinforcement of parenting skills, teaching, and modelling of parenting performance.

Routines are described next.

8.3.2.1.3   Routine

Parental guidelines concerning routine include:

- Incorporating daily routine in child-rearing, which is important for the functioning of children and the broader household.

8.3.2.1.4   Teaching

The guidelines provided for the teaching aspects of parenting include:

- Parents are responsible for teaching children social skills.

- Learning is an important part of growing up for children.

- Teaching children skills enables the family to function in communities in an acceptable manner and in accordance with their learned familial values and principles.
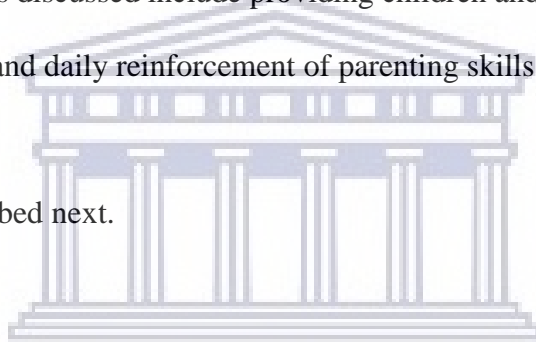
- Teaching a child social skill is essential for the child's upbringing. How the parent rears and enforces social skills will determine how the child adapts in life.

- Social skills should be taught and indoctrinated to guide children throughout life.

- Parents are to teach children responsibility in relation to gender specific roles, such as the fatherly role and responsibility should be communicated.

8.3.2.1.5   Modelling

The following section provides the guiding principles of modelling parenting. Parents:

- Ought to model how to work hard and consistently.

- Inevitably become role models and therefore must adopt responsible behaviours.

- Model how to deal with and approach mistakes.

- Are likely to make mistakes. In such instances, they are to acknowledge their errors and apologetically makeup for the mistakes enacted toward their children.

8.3.2.2 Transferring norms and values

Transferring norms and values to children is essential to upholding the family.

Related guidelines are outlined below:

8.3.2.2.1   Respecting people

The following section provides the guidelines on parenting values.

Parents are:

- Responsible for teaching their children to respect people; be cognisant of other people's feelings and emotions, and how one responds and relates to others during communication.

- Responsible for teaching their children how to be kind and respect their elders.

- Responsible for teaching their children to have respect within a marriage.

- Responsible for teaching their children to respect their peers.

- To respect one another. This includes discouraging intimate partner violence, violent episodes, and spousal abuse.

- Responsible for transferring norms and values to children.

- Responsible for teaching their children self-respect and to be self-assertive.

8.3.2.2.2   Respecting the property of others

Herewith follows the encompassing aspects of parenting concerns:

- Parents should teach children to respect the property and belongings of others.

- Children must be taught not to steal or damage the property of others, but instead, respectfully ask to use, borrow, or lend a helping hand.

- Children should be taught to think constructively, and preserve and respect the property of others.

- Teaching children to respect the property of others and rather ask for assistance or resources is an essential fundamental value and norm of child-rearing.

8.3.2.2.3   Religious practices

Guidelines for religious input necessitating religious practices within parenting is listed below:

- Religious practices should be a family norm.

- Children should attend Sunday school to receive religious instruction and spiritual teachings to instil spiritual foundations.

- Parents and children should attend church together, as this allows the parents to model spirituality and religion.

- Children receiving religious instruction when they are young should be obligatory.

- Certain rights of passage that a Christian child should undergo include baptism and confirmation, for example.

- Religious practices should be indoctrinated and taught both at home and in school.

- Religious practices have been strongly transferred as a value and norm and become a part/way of life for parents in Genadendal.

- The town of Genadendal is immersed in religious teachings and practices, which is strongly carried forth intergenerationally to parents and children.

8.3.2.2.4   Honesty

Below is a list of encompassing aspects:

- Honesty is a norm and value that is taught in families across generations. It is an innate trait instilled in children through parenting practices.

- Children are taught to be honest as a character trait from their grandparents and parents.

- An important part of child-rearing is rearing children to be honest and trustworthy.

- Parents in their relationships and engagements with children must show honesty.

- Parents must always be honest with their children.

- Honesty between parents and children allows for open parent-child communication.

8.3.2.3 Linked with respecting self and assertiveness

Below follow the encompassing aspects.

Children need to be taught:

- To respect others, as well as themselves, and to be self-assertive and not be intimidated.

- That both boys and girls develop differently but can do anything, like careers.

- To be strong and assertive, and to solve problems without violence.

- That society is evolving to be more egalitarian. This means that many jobs and roles between the sexes are now seen as being equal. By raising children according to their gender, stereotypes are limiting their opportunities.
- Ways for both genders to express difficult feelings, such as anger and frustration.

8.3.2.4 Responsibility

The guidelines of and for parenting are provided below:

- The family should be committed to contributing to the household tasks and responsibilities that help the family to survive. Parents and children are duty-bound and committed to the family by performing their tasks and responsibilities.
- Older siblings have more responsibility in that greater expectation is placed on them to help and support their siblings. As a result, they are forced to grow up and mature quicker, their childhood is shortened or deprived (less playtime), and they land up filling the role of an absent parent. Conversely, younger siblings have fewer responsibilities and expectations placed on them, and are able to engage in playtime.
- Older siblings are responsible for ensuring that the household continues to function optimally with structure and order, and that responsibilities are performed and tasks completed.

8.3.2.5 Perseverance

An encompassing aspect of parenting requires perseverance. During parenting it is important to develop perseverance in the midst of the adversity of being underprivileged or lacking finances – one has to press through the confronted circumstances.

8.3.2.6 Protection

Protection was another core theme identified in this study. These guidelines are outlined below:

- It is the responsibility of parents to protect their children.

- Protecting children requires a combined balance of being strong and also providing free time on occasion. Although children should always obtain consent or inform their parents of their whereabouts – protection goes hand in hand with boundary setting and making sure their whereabouts are always communicated.

- Parents should provide a constant presence, thereby providing constant protection, safety, and security.

- To protect your children is a transferring parenting practice.

8.3.2.7 Providing guidance and support

Providing guidance and support (less control and more monitoring role) helps to nurture children's ambitions and goal-driven aspirations, and fosters independence, individuality, and a sense of responsibility toward the family and the community.

These guidelines are outlined below:

- Parents are responsible for providing guidance and support, and teaching their children to discern what is morally right and wrong.

- Parents must lead by example by conducting themselves appropriately.

- Parents are responsible for providing guidance and support – these steers them in the right direction and teaches them leadership.

- Guidance and support are linked to open parent-child communication.

- In terms of the above, children are expected to engage in open and honest communication with their parents. This shows that parent-child open communication strengthens the guidance and support and affection provided by parents.

8.3.2.8 Building relationships

The key findings of this study identified that building parent-child relationships were fundamental to intergenerational parenting, whether continuity or discontinuity would occur.

The guiding aspects in this regard are outlined below:

8.3.2.8.1   Being available

Herewith follows the encompassing aspects:

- Formulating relationships with your children is important. This includes being available, especially in times of need, and being dependable for assistance.

- In terms of the above, parents should attentively listen to and be respectful of their children's views, opinions, and other shared/disclosed matters.

8.3.2.8.2   Not being available

Below is a list of the guidelines provided for unattainable fatherly roles:

- There is an increase in absent fathers in households.

- Father absence impacts the behaviour, emotional state, and overall functioning the child.

- Fathers should be encouraged to play more active roles in their children's lives.

- Unmarried fathers should still show commitment and responsibility to the rearing of their children.

- Parental employment impacts on the availability of parents to establish and build parent-child relationships.

- The role and influence of a father figure is essential to the development and progress of a child. The father's presence is as important as the mother's presence in child-rearing.

8.3.2.8.3   Fulfilling both parental roles

The following section provides the guidelines for dual roles of and for parenting:

- Norms and values for a family are intergenerationally transferred through generations fulfilling parental roles.

- Children are encouraged to talk about their feelings and ideas, even if they hold different viewpoints to their parents.

- Parents to display affection towards their children, especially fathers, by providing hugs and kisses (to both girls and boys).

- Children are to carry out tasks in the home and help plan activities and outings.

- Children must be provided with opportunities to make choices and to realise the consequences attached to decision making.

- Children are encouraged to talk about what they believe – help them to understand the family's values and belief systems. Also, discuss one's religious practices and beliefs with them.

- Fathers, as mothers, should take responsibility for child-rearing.

- Fathers have a very important role to play in their children's lives, especially fathers that are not married to their children's biological mother.

8.3.2.8.4 *Family time as a way to ensure availability*

Family time was indicated as an important aspect and way of being available as a parent. Family time allows for interactions through relationship engagements. This, then, strongly influences the aspect of relatedness.

Herewith follows the encompassing aspects outlined:

- Family time, which constitutes interaction between parents and children, is essential to strengthening family unity, formulating family bonds, and ensuring family well-being. Partaking in family time creates memories, family norms, and traditions.

- Parents and children spending time together as a family helps build good family relationships by conversing over shared meals and attending family functions.

8.3.2.8.5   Showing interest and getting to know your child

Beneath is a list of guidelines provided for attentive parenting to understanding the scope and nature of the child:

- Get to know one's child. This is important for the development and strengthening of the parent-child relationship.

- This includes making an effort to understand the child's needs, interests, and prospective aspirations.

- Parents must be good listeners, and listen to the needs and interests of their child.

- Education is important. Provide children with opportunities to learn, grow, and develop, and so build their future.

- Parents should know their children well and be able to understand their expressions and behaviours in order to recognise signs of trouble and danger.

8.3.2.9 Parent-child communication

This finding strongly projected that it is the parent's responsibility to show (model) and encourage positive forms of communication, which will be transferred intergenerationally. Parent-child communication is the cornerstone of strong familial relationships and the key to transferring parenting within families and across generations.

8.3.2.9.1   Importance to show (model) positive communication

The guidelines for parent communication with their children are described next. Parents must:

- Be attentive to the way they speak and convey information to a child, as this can either strengthen or dampen the parent-child relationship. Positive communication is imperative.

- Refrain from using swear words and vulgar language with their children.

- Be available to their children to assist and support them.

- Relate positive communications with their children.

- Engage in positive communication – this builds children's trust in parents.

- Communicate with respect to their children – avoid swearing and using vulgar language.

- Indicate what their expectations are with their children.

- Relay their disappointed feelings and emotions to their children when the children misbehave or act wrongfully.

- Be aware of the impact of their communication, whether positive or negative.

8.3.2.9.2   Open communication

The following section provides the encompassing aspects of communication with no limitations/boundaries/restrictions.

Open parent-child communication:

- Is important and ought to be the cornerstone of child-rearing.

- Produces the responsibility to live out the family rules, responsibilities, values, and principles as they were taught.

- Teaches children to be responsible and act in accordance with their familial teachings.

- Teaches children to be open and honest with their parents about everything, including their problems and whereabouts.

- Draws parents and children closer to one another and formulates a bond of trust and respect between parents and children.

- Must be encouraged, as it contributes positively to parent-child communication.

- Creates a safe space for parents to discuss pertinent issues, such as pregnancy, and its related consequences.

8.3.2.9.3 *Expressing love*

Herewith follows the encompassing aspects:

- It is important for parents to show warmth, love, and affection towards their children.

- Expressing love fosters loving, and close-knit parent-child relationships.

8.3.2.9.4 *Poor communication*

Factors affecting parent-child communication included separation of the parent (absent father) or if the mother became involved with another partner. This suggests that if the normality of the family structure is disrupted or if changes occur, it affects parent-child communication and relations, resulting in poor communication between parent and child.

8.3.2.10 **Decision making**

This theme was composed of the following sub-themes: Encouraging children to make choices, dealing with conflict, parental conflict, using communication, and avoidance.

The findings on decision making revealed children should be encouraged to develop decision making skills, as it develops responsible and independent adults.

These guidelines are outlined below:

8.3.2.10.1 *Parental decision-makers*

Below are the guidelines provided for parental decisions:

- The father or husband figure would predominantly make decisions in the best interest of the family, and the family would accept that.

- In recent times, dual decision-making is practiced.

282

- Married couples make mutual decisions concerning their parenting practices and children's well-being.

- Discussions and decisions regarding parenting styles and practices should be part of planning and preparation before starting a family.

- Lack of communication and consensus regarding decisions concerning parenting styles and practices due to varying backgrounds and different upbringings result in conflict. In such cases, parents should establish mutuality in support and compromise to establish coherence and consistency in parenting between the two parents.

8.3.2.10.2 *Encouraging children to make choices*

The guidelines for promoting children's decision-making abilities to develop their own choices are listed below.

Parents should:

- Teach and develop children's decision-making abilities. This will foster autonomous and independent thinkers, develop responsibility in the decision-making process, and an understanding of associated outcomes.

- Allow children to make decisions and convey the decisions they have made.

- Encourage decision making from a young age.

- Encourage their children to make individual choices, and support their choices.

- Provide boundaries and guidelines.

8.3.2.11 **Dealing with conflict**

The following guidelines are related to dealing with conflict.

8.3.2.11.1 *Parental conflict*

The parental guidelines for dealing with conflict are listed below:

- Conflict between a husband and wife should not occur in front of the children, but should be dealt with in private. This will protect the innocence of a child and avoids them having to choose sides.

- Parental conflict does occur in parenting, but should be dealt with between parents; the children should not be aware of the conflict or be affected in any way, to maintain the best interest of the child.

- When dealing with conflict, parents should be able to speak about conflictual matters and come to solutions with their partners and children.

8.3.2.11.2 Using communication – Conflict

Guidelines for dealing with conflict using communication are as follows:

- Parents and children should use communication as a 'tool' to deal with family conflict – well used communication helps bring resolution.

- Parents are responsible for providing discipline out of love to train and nurture their children.

- Communication is used as a tool to discipline – explain to the child what they did wrong and what the expectation is.

- Avoid dealing with children's issues when you are angry.

- Grievances will occur within families. Hold family meetings and encourage the participation of all. Collectively find resolutions and move forward.

- Be consistent with parenting practices. Inconsistency generates misunderstandings between parents and leads to deterring outcomes in child-rearing.

- Encourage good behaviour by using verbal communication instead of spanking.
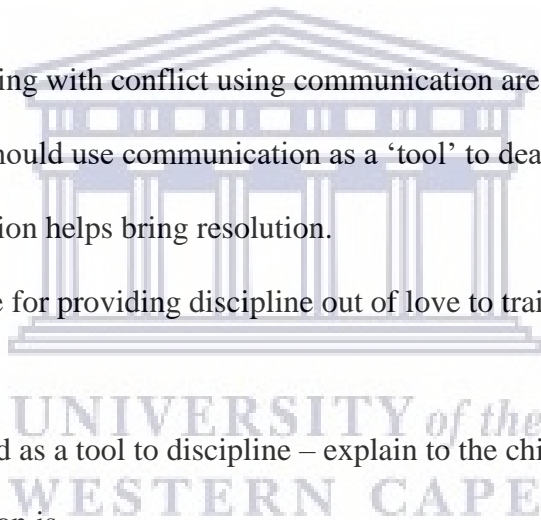
8.3.2.11.3 Avoidance

Avoidance is used by some parents and children as a form of non-communication and way of dealing with disappointments and disagreements. Once the anger of the relevant parties has subsided, the disagreement is addressed, and resolutions sought.

8.3.2.12   Discipline

This theme encompassed the manner in which parents in Genadendal discipline their children. Communication was the key form of discipline. Mothers were found to be the disciplinarians, yet an inclusive approach was adopted, whereby fathers were consulted to address the misdemeanours and spank (punish) the children. It was indicated that parents should be cognisant of their parenting styles and practices as well as similarities and differences, to compliment holistic parenting and create a uniformed approach. In addition, parenting practices must be consistent for all children in the household.

The ensuing guidelines are listed below:

8.3.2.12.1 Using communication – Discipline

The guidelines for dealing with discipline by means of using communication include the following.

Parents must:

- Inform children of the rules, roles, and responsibilities that must be adhered to, and reinforce these.

- Explain to children what they did wrong when disciplining the child – indicate what was incorrect or unacceptable, and clarify expectations.

- Deal with conflict as a collective (both parents). Identify a mutual platform to encourage parties to speak about the grievance and then seek a resolution.

- Discipline with communication is essential to provide guidance and structure.

8.3.2.12.2 One parent responsible for discipline

Below are the encompassing aspects of the roles of discipline/disciplinary roles:

- In some households, fathers are predominantly seen as the disciplinarians and show less affection.

- While in other households, the mother assumes the role of disciplinarian when the father is too soft spoken to scold.

- In single parent households, the mother fulfils both roles – disciplinarian and providing warmth and love.

- Most problematic behaviours of children are linked to single parents.

8.3.2.12.3 Parents complement and support each other in discipline

The following section provides the guidelines for parents seen as equal roles/parts of/to discipline:

- Parenting is inclusive of good discipline processes.

- Discipline is a shared responsibility between parents and parents should speak about discipline styles and how they can support each other.

- It is important to discern the extent and manner of the discipline enacted on a child.

- It is important for parents to acknowledge their strengths and weakness in different parenting aspects and assign appropriate role responsibilities to each parent.

- Parents should complement and support each other when it comes to disciplining a child who has broken the set communicated rules or boundaries.

- Discipline is a dual responsibility of parents which involves active communication and decision making.

- Parents should agree concerning discipline so that children do not manipulate situations.

- Children are able to communicate their needs and preferences but are not permitted/given an opportunity to make decisions. This indicates that parents made decisions on behalf of their children as they thought/deemed best suited for their children. As children become older, they are afforded opportunities to learn decision making and develop autonomous decision making.

- Married parents should have a strong relationship.

8.3.2.12.4 Punishment

The aspects of discipline are listed below:

- To discipline a child is hard, but an essential parenting practice component necessary for a parent to rear a child well.

- Children must be taught boundaries. For example, the time they are expected to be at home in the evenings.

- Discipline and punishment go hand in hand and should be dealt with in love not anger – 'tig in liefde' (discipline with love not in rage)

- Parents should reinforce rules, roles, and responsibilities by providing punitive (spanking/taking away privileges) discipline.

- Children should be reprimanded to learn and grow and uphold values and norms.

- Children should be punished while they are young so that they grow up with corrective social and behavioural skills when they are older ('buig die boompie terwyl hy jonk is') (mould a child while they are young and teachable).

- Lack of discipline leads to a lack of respect.

- Lack of discipline leads to behavioural problems and poor social skills.

- Over time, parents have become less strict. For instance, G3 parents use less spanking and more communication and warnings before reacting to punitive discipline.

Conversely, G1 and G2 insisted on immediate actions. Punishment does not have to be confined to punitive measures, but can be opportunities to impart knowledge.

- Fathers are generally the disciplinarians, although sometimes the mother is punitive with children, particularly in situations that require immediate responsiveness. Thus, both parents have a role to play in terms of discipline and punishment.

- Punishment provided by parents is essential for a child to understand their wrongful behaviours and provide corrective instruction for going forward.

- There are certain roles mothers and fathers play respectively in disciplining children. These roles are assumed and applied in the process of parenting, complimenting each other during parenting.

8.3.3   Problem behaviour of children

Parenting practices and styles are correlated with the developmental and behavioural outcomes of children. Thus, parenting is interrelated with adjustments and social and cultural outcomes of children. These outcomes are also further associated with different influences, such as parental and home influence, the lack of spiritual guidance, and lack of discipline. These components influence (within the home and environment) spiritual guidance and discipline, formulating the foundation of aspects to consider for children's behaviours. Furthermore, in terms of these aspects, it is important to note the interrelated nature of child and parent functioning with other environments, or systems, as outlined by Bronfenbrenner (1979). Therefore, the individual, including the parent and child, must be considered in terms of their interrelatedness to other environments in which they function, which will affect and influence parenting and children.

8.3.3.1 Parental and home influence

Below are the encompassing aspects:

- School dropout is most prevalent, followed by associated actions like loitering and unemployment. Children later regretted dropping out of school. Parents felt helpless and ignored regarding these problematic behaviours, with peers being more influential.

8.3.3.2 Lack of spiritual guidance

The encompassing aspects of spiritual guidance and the lack thereof include:

- Lack of spiritual guidance from parents manifests in children's unacceptable behaviour and lack of respect for others and themselves.

- Children require a foundation of spirituality and religious instruction.

- Parenting is strongly linked and associated with spiritual guidance.

- Parenting is informed by religion and instructs parenting.

8.3.3.3 Lack of discipline

Below is the list of guidelines provided for the lack of discipline:

- Lack of discipline manifests in children being let off from performing tasks delegated by parents.

- The problem behaviours of children is linked to the lack of discipline. The lack of discipline is linked to a lack of respect because children act disrespectfully (like swearing or using vulgar language), regardless of whether elders are in their presence. Thus, problem behaviours are evident in the lack of respect for others.

8.3.4   Environmental influence on parenting

Factors within the environment have an influence on parenting, as indicated below.

8.3.4.1 Community and family members supporting each other

The encompassing aspects of support among members include:

- Community members should also take responsibility to discipline children and ensure that they are well behaved. This eludes to the saying 'my child is your child'.

- The environment has an influence on parenting. As changes occur, this impacts on parenting and child-rearing practices. Furthermore, that community and family members should support each other by offering assistance but not feeling obligated to help.

- Due to the challenges of parenting, all parents on occasion require support. It is thus okay to ask for help and accept helping gestures from family, friends, and neighbours.

8.3.4.2 Community and family members offer support to each other to help rear children

Siblings supported fellow siblings by helping to care for their children. This could imply that the caring and parenting practices remain within the family.

8.3.4.3 Community lifestyle

Guidelines for communities and lifestyle living are provided next:

- Living in Genadendal plays a big role in parenting experiences and practices. Being a peaceful, quiet, and safe community, parents found the area to be conducive for rearing children. The area one chooses to raise their children in does impact, either positively or negatively, on child-rearing.

- Community members living in Genaal have less harmful environmental influences.

   a) Peer influences

   Below is a list of guidelines of the effects and influences of peers:

- The peer's children are associated with influence their thoughts and behaviours.

- In some instances, children follow the guidance of their peers rather than that of their parents.

- Parents must meet and know their children's friend associations to ensure that good company is kept.

- There is a strong association between peer influence and substance abuse.

- Children, in recent years, have adopted the attitude that 'you are not my mom', thereby demonstrating a lack of respect toward the view of who is a parent and the manner in which they should be treated.

b) Safety and security issues

Below follows the encompassing aspect of safety concerns:

- Genaal has always been a safe, secluded, and caring community. However, in recent years, they too have experienced safety and security issues. This indicates that small rural communities are being affected by similar challenges transferring from the urban areas – 'City life influences'.

8.3.4.4 Lack of opportunities

The following section provides the guideline of the opportunity challenges members are facing. The challenges related to the lack of opportunities and poverty are listed below:

- There are limited employment opportunities in Genaal. This is linked to high unemployment rates and associated poverty conditions.

- With the lack of opportunities, parents have to encourage children to pursue a different lifestyle and seek opportunities to grow and develop for an improved future.

- Due to financial constraints, times are difficult. Limited finances are linked to access to medical and other services. The lack of finances impacts access to opportunities and services, which is in turn linked to poverty-related challenges.

- Due to the lack of opportunities in Genaal, employment is sought elsewhere.

- Adversity experienced in parenting and growing up helps people to prosper and succeed, as they become determined and driven to improve their lives.

- Unemployment and related conditions of unemployment, like a shortage of resources, has an adverse effect on parenting.

- In some instances, for work-related reasons parents are forced to work away from home during the week and resume parental responsibility on weekends; the latter was not experienced negatively by children.

8.3.4.5 Substance abuse

The findings of this study show that the use and abuse of substances is becoming an increasing concern within parenting, families, and communities.

The guidelines are outlined below:

a) Substance abuse affecting parenting

Herewith follows the encompassing aspects of substance abuse affecting parenting:

- Substance abuse affects parenting. Parents use of substances, such as alcohol, impacts the communication between parents and children.

- Parental consumption of alcohol may inhibit them from taking care of their children. Parenting practices are thus affected, such as the basic physical care of children.

b) Availability of substances to children

The following section provides the guidelines of accessibility of substances to children:

- In Genaal, there is great concern over the increased availability and use of substances like alcohol, cannabis(dagga), and crystal methamphetamine (tik).

- Substances are becoming more readily available to children.

- Substance use has become a challenge to children in the community of Genaal, leading them in the wrong direction.

- Youth drug abuse has severe effects on the user and the family, and is a problem in both rural and urban areas.

- There is a need for substance intervention for youth in communities.

- Parents are increasingly concerned about the effect and availability of substances on their youth/children.

8.3.5 GENERATIONAL TRANSFERENCE

The findings of this study postulate that generational transference is occurring within families and communities. This transference is associated with the interactions and influencing factors that impact on parenting, such as the related parenting and environmental factors.

The guidelines related are outlined below:

8.3.5.1 Caring for the community

The aspects of members caring for their communities are presented next:

- Caring for the community and others is a trait that is developed from interactions, observations, and engagements with parents who care for the sick and show compassion towards others. Thus, caring for the community is generationally transferred through the modelling behaviours of parents to their children during the life course of interactions.

- A community culture to assist people in the community is existent in Genaal. This has been taught throughout generations.

- Community care as an inherent characteristic is essential to provide care for each other and the environment.

- Caring for the community includes helping others, sharing resources, and showing compassion.

- A sense of care towards others within the community is pivotal to developing friendships, helping others, and showing and reciprocating respect. People should naturally have a sense of concern towards others, but this is fostered by parents.

- Genaal lacks work opportunities. Parents should encourage their children to venture to the 'City' to further their education and avail themselves to employment opportunities.

- There are distinct differences between children of different ages and the times they were raised in, with younger children being more 'modern'– behaving differently from how 'they' (other children) were reared.

8.3.5.2 Caring for each other

Herewith follows the encompassing aspects of children caring for parents:

a) Children caring for parents

- Adult children provide financial, physical, and emotional care to their aging parents, and thereby help contribute toward taking care of their needs. Their financial assistance is in conjunction with the pension parents receive.

- It is important for children to care for their parents and grandparents, as they (the parents and grandparents) play a huge role in their lives. Children celebrate the lives of their parents by making a fuss of their birthday, thereby acknowledging the role they play in their lives and in their parenting.

- Grandparents play a supportive role in their children's lives by continuing to provide support by means of finances or advice.

b) Grandparents supporting parenting of grandchildren

Beneath follows the encompassing aspects of continuous parenting:

- Parents' role of providing support to their children continues throughout the life-course, in that even in adulthood they still try help their children the best they can when the circumstances or need arises.

- Grandparents (G1) support the parenting of their adult children.

- Grandparents have a significant influence on the parenting styles and practices of their adult parent children and the manner in which they parent their children.

- Grandparents fear losing the connectedness they have with the children they rear.

- In recent years, as the roles of grandparents to parents have evolved, it has been observed that grandchildren have a lack of respect for their grandparents.

8.3.5.3 Norms and values

Herewith follows the encompassing aspects of principles and standards:

- Many households still have distinctive (male-female) gender assigned roles and responsibilities.

- With the lack of support provided by male figures in the household, an empowerment approach focused on shared roles and responsibilities should be realised in households.

- Transferring norms and values are essential in the sustainability of parenting, households, and families, as these will be portrayed by future generations.

8.3.5.4 Work skills and ethics

The following section provides the guidelines of the self-moral and work ethic:

- Developing skills and a good work ethic is influenced by working alongside and observing parents' work-related skills.

- Working and teaching children to complete chores at a young age, help to develop a good work ethic and an array of skills.

- Parents can teach their children to perform various tasks to become vastly skilled.

- Developing good work skills and a good work ethic in children encourages children to work hard and pursue their dreams.

- Every person in the family has a role to play and children should be assigned tasks and responsibilities as part of the family unit.

- Work and work performance should be kept private from other aspects of life.

- Personal problems should not be displayed in our expressions – 'shown on our faces' – or interactions with others, especially not at work.
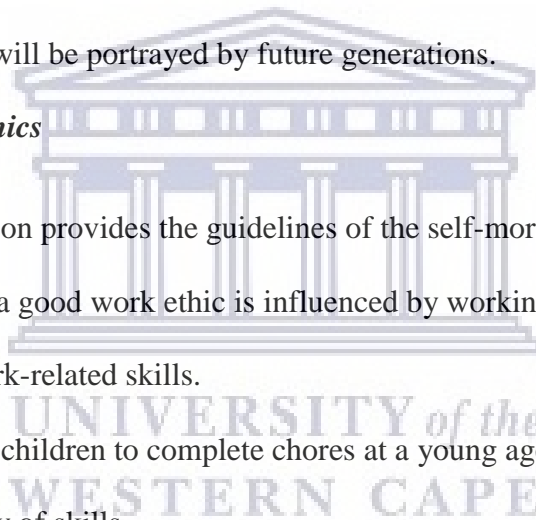
8.3.5.5 Parenting

The following section provides the encompassing aspects for parenting:

- Parenting characteristics include being hard working, being respectful, and the application of positive child-rearing practices.

- Parenting practices are transferrable across three generations of families.

- Parents tend to parent the way their grandparents taught and reared them.

- Generational parenting traits are transferred across generations, including to the fourth generation, and beyond.

- Parenting includes teaching others (children and grandchildren) while they are parenting. Thus, when identifying parenting errors among their parenting children, parents make suggestions for improvement. In this way, parenting is continuous for the parent, which suggests that parenting is a learning practice between generations.

- Parenting also includes teaching love, especially love, support, and respect for siblings.

- Due to occurring changes when becoming a parent, previous social priorities must become secondary to parental responsibilities.

- One of the key challenges of parents today is that they are too young and immature for the role of parenthood and therefore cannot confidently step into all the roles to provide and care for their children.

8.3.6   Intergenerational transference: doing things differently

This section highlighted the changing aspects of parenting within families. Thus, demonstrating continuities and discontinues in parenting within families and over time between generations. Aspects contributing to the continuities and discontinuities included *parent-child communication, punishment, substance use*, and *the parent-child relationship*.

8.3.6.1 Communication

Herewith follows the guidelines for the means of communication:

- Intergenerational transference of communication styles and skills takes place across generations.

- Father-son communication and relationships should be improved, while the mother-child relationship tends to be well established. Children value the role and influence of father-child communication.

8.3.6.2 Punishment

Below is a list of the guidelines provided for punishment:

- Punishment has changed over the generations, particularly due to changes in policy.

- Parents have become more lenient in their punishment, in that children are not reprimanded as harshly as in previous generations. Parents are concerned if this is dampening or strengthening their child. Although punishment has taken place over the generations and has been role modelled as important, with recent developments, parents are struggling to apply punitive measures in their discipline.

8.3.6.3 Substance use/abuse

Below is a list of the encompassing aspects of substance abuse:

- Alcohol affects the brain, which in turn affects parents' cognitions, and subsequently their parental role. Nevertheless, children have no right to dislike or judge their parents'.

- Some parents party or socialise with their children, while others do not model drinking or socialising together. This reflects different parental role models, and how these play a role/contribute to children's use/abuse of substances.

- Some families enjoy socialising with liquor as a substance, but this does not affect their parenting or result in disorderly conduct.

- There is a correlation between youth substance abuse and peer association.

8.3.6.4 Parenting differently

The guidelines of absconding from certain parenting practices are presented next:

a) **Not implementing parenting styles of previous generations**

- Changes are evident in the punishment styles of parents. Previously, discipline took place immediately, even if in the street, but today parents do it privately in their homes.

- Upon becoming a parent, more responsibility was taken, and changes in lifestyle were made to accommodate the care of a child, but parents today do not step into the role and responsibility of parenting. Instead, they maintain their 'previous 'lifestyles and leave the caregiving to their grandparents. This suggests that younger parents are not assuming parental roles as expected and grandparents are required to rear grandchildren.

- Many parents in the community of Genaal are not implementing the styles of previous generations. This suggests that child-rearing in Genaal has changed over the generations, with parents and children veering away from community values, norms, and practices.

b) **Independence of adult children**

Herewith follows the encompassing aspects:

- Parents help rear their grandchildren. There is a strong correlation with grandparent-parent childrearing. Grandparents (G1) are supporting parents (their children-G2) and influencing the parenting of their children and grandchildren. Thus, supportive parenting is provided across generations.

- Parents should encourage the independence of adult children at an early onset by encouraging children to move out of the home, live on their own, provide for their family, and function autonomously.

- Older generations tend to interfere or question young generations as they apply changes in their own parenting. This shows a clear generational difference in the transference of parenting and how it is perceived and accepted.

c) **Less responsibilities for older children**

Below is a list of the guidelines provided for responsibilities of mature children:

- In recent years, less responsibly is being placed on older children. Instead of older siblings dropping out of school to support their parents, they are now encouraged to complete school.

- The value of education should be instilled in all siblings for equal opportunities.

d) **Reflecting on changes of punishment styles over the generations**

Below are the encompassing aspects of generational punishment style changes:

- Punishment styles and practices of parents across the generations have changed. Parents are less strict and punishment is less harsh than they received whilst growing up.

- There are good parenting practices in Genaal that have been discontinued, as a result changes have been observed in children.

8.3.7   Conclusion of guidelines for parents

This section concludes the outcomes of the emerged guidelines for parents and professionals. Considering the findings of the research and literature consulted, the study's aim and objectives to develop guidelines were achieved. These guidelines were formulated based on the participants' views, understandings, experiences, ideals, and suggestions for parenting. However, they must be viewed in terms of the findings and limitations of the study, as well as the related context of Genadendal.

8.4 GUIDELINES FOR PRACTITIONERS

This study developed guidelines to guide parents in their parenting across generations and over time. Guidelines are documents most often presented in the form of a pamphlet,

299

brochure, or booklet (Gagliardi, Marshall, Huckson, James & Moore, 2015). Guidelines inform healthcare, decision-making, and can serve as the basis for policy, planning, evaluation, and quality improvement (Gagliardi et al., 2015). Once developed, effort should be made to promote awareness, acceptance, and adherence of the guidelines (Gagliardi et al., 2015). To achieve this, a workshop was conducted that formulated guidelines for professionals in relation to intervention and prevention that are outlined and discussed below.

8.4.1   Application and intervention

In terms of intervention, the following practice guidelines outlined in the Integrated Service Delivery Model (DSD, 2006) are considered applicable. These guidelines are directed toward achieving improvement in the social functioning of individuals within all these systems, especially strengthening families and parenting. The levels of intervention are divided into the following classifications: prevention; early intervention (non-statutory); statutory intervention; and reconstruction and aftercare services (DSD, 2006). These guidelines provide parents and practitioner with an opportunity to develop knowledge (competencies) about parenting factors and, in this manner, provide care which is more efficient for child-rearing.

8.4.1.1 Prevention services

The *prevention level* is most relevant for the formulated practice guidelines

Prevention services are aimed at "strengthening and building the capacity and self-reliance of the client" (DSD, 2006, p. 20). They "take into account the individual, environment and the influential societal factors that contribute to problem development" (DSD, 2006, p. 20). Furthermore, they are aligned with the aim of prevention programmes which are "to enhance the process whereby people are provided with ways and means of

taking greater control of factors that impact on their wellbeing, by reducing actions linked to undesirable conditions" (DSD, 2006, p. 20).

The next set of guidelines below outline the key parenting factors that are predominantly impacting on parenting and behaviour outcomes in individuals, as established in the consensus workshop.

8.4.2 Parenting styles and practices

The encompassing aspects of parenting styles and practices are listed below:

- Parents are strict and authoritative in terms of teaching norms, values, and discipline, but lack (and struggle with) warmth and affection towards their children. Skills development is needed to teach them how to bridge the gap between being a good strict parent and freely and openly showing warmth and affection without this compromising their parenting practices.

8.4.2.1 Punishment

The following section provides the guidelines of punishment listed below:

- Parents have become more lenient with the punishment given to children.
- Children are not as strongly reprimanded as in previous generations. Parents are concerned whether this is dampening or strengthening their child. Punishment was role modelled and took place throughout the generations, but due to recent developments, parents may not have been taught to punish differently, and may be struggling with punitive measures to ensure socially skilled, respectful, and well-behaved children.
- Parents require training and workshops focused on punitive measures to ensure punishment within legislative frames, but also improve parenting practices in this regard.

8.4.2.2 Decision making

Below is a list of guidelines provided for decision making for parenting practices:

- Although decisions were traditionally made by fathers in a family home or predominantly by single mothers rearing children. It is essential understand that both the maternal and paternal parent, whether , married or separated parents, at the present time and context, are required to make mutually agreed upon decisions that are in the best interest of the child concerned. Practitioners must take this into consideration when they have family conferencing or are developing parenting plans in relation to decisions which are made regarding children, child-rearing, and parenting practices.

- The environment plays a pivotal role in the influence of parenting, therefore environmental factors should be assessed in regard to the positive and negative influences on parenting and child outcomes.

- Peer influence impacts behaviours negatively and steers children towards substance use.

8.4.2.3 Schooling and education aspects

This section provides the guidelines for teaching and learning parenting aspects:

- Practitioners and parents need to work together to build supportive networks for parents in order to find ways to keep their children in school, especially children who are defiant.

- Over time, education has been prioritised in families and child rearing within communities. Previously, the eldest child's education was compromised to support household functioning, this is no longer the case with equal emphasis on education across children.

- Parental separation through divorce or death negatively impacts children's academic performance. In such cases, learners should be provided with support to cope (by school teachers and counsellors) and deal with the family changes being projected due the absence of a parent. In addition, parents should try to make the transition as easy as possible and keep the child's best interest in mind. Family support structures like siblings and grandparents are ideal to provide care and support.

- School-going children from single-parent households display more problematic behaviours.

- Single parents are increasing, particularly among young mothers. Instead of assuming their child-rearing and parental responsibilities, they are leaving this up to their grandparents. This suggests that young single mothers require skills development for parenting and transitioning into parenting roles and responsibilities.

- **Affecting school dropout:** Due to the challenges of life and having to work hard and contribute to the functioning of the household by performing certain tasks, schooling was not prioritised. School dropout was a result of these circumstances which influences access to opportunities for youth in rural communities.

- In some instances, due to household responsibilities and the adverse circumstances of the family related to aspects of poverty or unemployment, children were not given the opportunity to explore schooling activities and sport, as a result child showed poor participation in both aspects, and received minimal schooling education.

8.4.2.4 Parental conflict

The encompassing aspects of parental conflict are described next:

- Parents indicated that parental conflict and disagreements should not occur in front of the children, as it dampens family functioning and they sometimes have to choose sides.

- It was indicated that G1 parents intrude, influence, and interfere with G2 and G3 parenting, and help address and resolve intergenerational conflict on parenting matters.

The key findings of the participants across the three phases (the quantitative and qualitative phases, and workshop conducted) of the study are presented below.

8.5 CONCLUSION

These guidelines were designed with the idea of providing a framework for working with children, parents, and communities. These guidelines are intended for parents and

professionals to cultivate an understanding of the components and experiences of parenting that affect families; comprehend the extensive contributions within the family and environment that informs parenting practices and styles that impact on family functioning and wellness; and for professionals to develop an awareness of the parenting practices and its related outcomes (positive and negative) on children and families within societies. The aspects that may be considered in conjunction with these guidelines are various practices, performs, theories, and intervention strategies directed toward guiding the practice of parenting. In this manner, the guidelines may be used interrelatedly with other disciplines to strengthen the knowledge and abilities of parents in their parenting practices applied within families and across generations. The next chapter concludes the study.
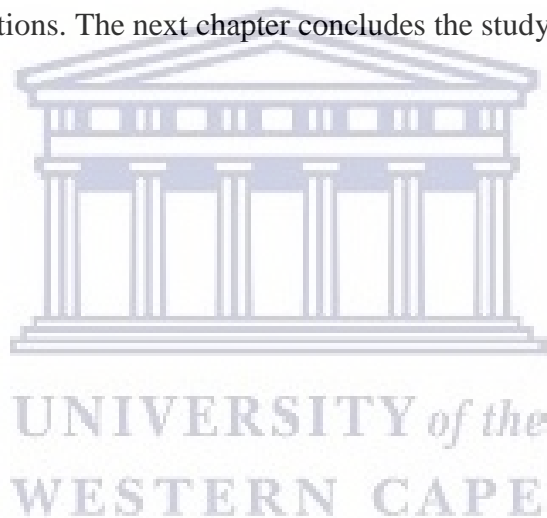
SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

9.1 INTRODUCTION

This study was designed to investigate the nature and scope of intergenerational transmission of parenting in Genadendal according to participating families' perceptions and experiences of parenting as a means to develop guidelines. In response to this, the development of guidelines (Chapter 8) for both parents and practitioners became the central focus of the study. In this chapter, a summation of the findings is presented conferring to the objectives outlined in this study. However, before the summary is presented, a synopsis of the problem statement, and aim and objectives of the study are recaptured for logical perspective. This chapter also integrates all the previous chapters, including the theoretical framework in Chapter 2, the literature review in Chapter 3, and results outlined to include both the quantitative results and the qualitative findings outlined in Chapter 5, Chapter 6, and Chapter 7, in order to discuss the central focus (to include the aims and objectives) of the study as outlined in the methodology (Chapter 4). Alongside the summary, recommendations, and conclusions, this chapter also presents the limitations of this study for future research

9.2 SUMMARY: THE RESEARCH PROBLEM, RESEARCH QUESTIONS, AIM AND OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

9.2.1   Statement of the research problem

The research problem that informed this study was based on the fact that, across generations, families tend to be diversified over time, as cultures and lifestyle practices change, and these are further affected by the different social, historical, environmental, and economic factors. The life cycle theory proposes that the norms, standards, and meanings of generations are reliant on various cultural and other influential factors existent in a family,

community, and environment. This study therefore considered how these factors within families affect the parenting practices of families, and whether parenting practices are continued or discontinued across generations within families. Thus, this study investigated the intergenerational transmission of parenting across three generations of families to establish the transferring parenting factors that contribute toward intergenerational parenting. The main point of interest was to investigate how parenting, whether positive or negative, would be transferred across generations, and what would inform these transmissions between families across generations. Based on this research problem, the following research questions were generated to explore the specific objectives of the study.

9.2.2   Research questions

The research questions guiding this study were:

1) What are the parenting factors (parenting styles and practices, skills, teachings, practices, styles, performs, quality parent-child relationship, warmth and strict control, parental knowledge) which are intergenerationally transferred over time?

2) Is there a significant difference in parenting factors (parenting styles and practices, skills, teachings, practices, styles, performs, quality of parent-child relationship, warmth and strict control, parental knowledge) between generations?

3) How is parenting intergenerationally transferred?

4) Which factors contribute towards intergenerational transference of parenting factors over time?

5) What guidelines are needed for parents and practitioners to improve parenting in Genadendal?

The research questions were answered in seven (7) main themes that emerged as discussed in Chapters 5, 6 and 7, for which recommendations are offered further below.

9.2.3 Research aim

This study aimed to explore the intergenerational transmission of parenting in Genadendal for the purpose of developing guidelines for parents and practitioners. The aim of this study was achieved in that the findings provided an understanding of the nature, scope, and utilisation of parenting across generations and within families whose perceptions and experiences were involved in the research process.

9.2.4 Research Objectives

The objectives of this study, as listed in Chapter 1, were to:

1) Determine and explore the parenting factors (parenting styles and practices skills, teachings, practices, styles, performs, quality parent-child relationship, warmth and strict control, parental knowledge) of generations in Genadendal;

2) Explore the intergenerational transference of parenting factors (parenting styles and practices, skills, teachings, practices, styles, performs, quality parent-child relationship, warmth and strict control, parental knowledge) in Genadendal;

3) Compare the parenting factors across generations in Genadendal;

4) Explore the contributing factors towards intergenerational transference of parenting factors over time in Genadendal;

5) Develop guidelines for parents and practitioners to improve parenting in Genadendal.

These objectives were achieved and presented in the discussions in Chapters 2 through to Chapter 8 of this study.

9.3 SUMMARY: RESEARCH FINDINGS

A summary of the findings of the current study is presented in relation to the objectives formulated and how they were achieved:

9.3.1 Parenting styles and parenting practices

The **parenting** domain has many constructions which include the aspects and the effects it has on the well-being and functioning of individuals. Parenting forms the central focus of families and communities. Baumrind (1971) identified three core parenting styles used by parents. These parenting styles are associated with parenting practices that produce positive or negative performances which are subsequently linked to child outcomes and family functioning. In summary:

Authoritative parents provide support for effective problem-solving methods and allow age appropriate independence in their children (Carr & Pike, 2012). This approach to parenting is thought to increase behavioural competence and self-regulation in children (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Thus, the authoritative parenting style impacts positively on the self-esteem and life-satisfaction of children.

Permissive parents lack clear, consistent rules, structure, and conformability regarding expectations for their children (Milevsky, Schlechter, Klem, & Kehl, 2008). This form of parenting tends to lead to externalising social and behavioural problems (Granic & Patterson, 2006).

Authoritarian parents are controlling and strict, and tend to use harsh and punitive disciplinary practices (Milevsky et al., 2008). This type of parenting is restrictive and places limitations on children's autonomous development.

9.3.2 Parenting practices

Authoritative parenting practices lead children to experience a more positive childhood and later autonomous and self-reliant adulthood outcomes (Roopnarine, Krishnakumar, Metindogan, & Evans, 2006). Conversely, parents who adopt permissive

parenting styles and practices tend to raise children who typically display lower social skills and maturity (Milevsky et al., 2008). Research further indicates that when parents, mothers, and fathers have similar supportive parenting styles, child outcomes lean towards more constructive attitudes and behaviours, and the quality of overall parent-child relations tends to be enhanced (Meteyer & Perry-Jenkins, 2009). Thus, parents have the ability to affect their children's outcomes (Bronfenbrenner & Morris, 2006). For this reason, parents need to be cognisant of their parenting styles and practices which are modelled to future generations and intergenerationally transferred.

Objective 1: *Determine and explore the parenting factors (parenting styles and practices skills, teachings, practices, styles, performs, quality of parent-child relationship, warmth and strict control, parental knowledge) of generations in Genadendal.*

This first objective was achieved in the data analysis, results, and discussions outlined in Chapter 5, as this chapter projects information sources, data used, and the related findings of the exploration of parenting factors. This objective was further contextualised in Chapters 2 and 3 with substantiated literature considerations.

Key findings and conclusions: This objective was achieved through the exploration of the term 'parenting'. The data and discussions relating to parents' understanding of parenting revealed that parenting may be understood through the attitude that parents adopt toward parenting. Various parenting circumstances (conditions and positions) were identified through the research conducted in the context of the community of Genadendal. The attitudes toward parenting that were identified included the absence of a parent (uninvolved parent), the role of the father, the increased responsibility of a single parent, and the impact of a parent working away from home. Furthermore, the following parenting components were identified in respect of what the expectation of a parent was. These encompassed the

parenting factors that came to light as well as the **parenting competencies** required for effective parenting, which included parental tasks, transferring norms and values, protecting, and providing guidance and support. An additional noteworthy factor is the parent-child relationship. Findings indicated that this relationship comprised building relationships, communication, decision making, handling of conflict, and discipline. All these aspects were discussed and supported by literature in Chapter 5 as thematic analyses, discussions, and findings were presented.

In conclusion, positive parenting styles and practices are associated with higher parental monitoring and support, which tends to lead to better outcomes for children across social and behavioural domains (Meteyer & Perry-Jenkins, 2009). Negative parenting practices lead to destructive and damaging child outcomes (Baumrind, 2005). Studies suggest that child developmental outcomes are determined by parental performance be it marital conflict (Schoppe-Sullivan, Schermerhorn, & Cummings, 2007), child-rearing incongruities (Chen & Johnston, 2012), or modifications required in parenting styles (Martin, Ryan, & Brooks-Gunn, 2010).

9.3.3 Intergenerational transference

It was identified that parents may have similar or dissimilar parenting styles and practices, influenced by their own upbringings, experiences, and perceptions of parenting, which is carried over into their own beliefs, methods, and practices of parenting (O' Leary & Vidair, 2005). The misperception of the partners' parental styles and resultant misunderstandings generate marital conflict and poor disjointed parenting (Chen & Johnston, 2012). The parental differences between parents therefore could undesirably lead to marital conflict. If positive conflict-resolution strategies between parents are not adopted, it results in

reduced child well-being (O' Leary & Vidair, 2005). Thus, parenting styles adopted by parents directly relates to child outcome behaviours (Roopnarine et al., 2006).

Objective 2: *Explore the intergenerational transference of parenting factors (parenting styles and practices, skills, teachings, practices, styles, performs, quality of parent-child relationship, warmth and strict control, parental knowledge) in Genadendal.*

This objective was achieved through the comprehensive theoretical framework presented in Chapter 2, which illustrates the life stages of the progressiveness of an individual, and how parenting across these life stages have influenced the transference of parenting. The contextual overview of the nature, scope, and utilisation of parenting within families were outlined in Chapter 3. This objective was further met during the individual interviews conducted with the nine participants outlined in Chapter 4 (the methodology), and while presenting their cases from their experiences and shared views about parenting transference across generations within families in the discussions of Chapter 7.

Key findings and conclusions: Two methods of intergenerational transference of parenting were identified in Chapter 3, namely: i) the influences of behaviours, and/or ii) genetics (inherited) transference. However, the focus of this study allowed for the exploration of the behavioural transferences to be documented across three generations. The findings established two aspects of transference, namely, that there were: 1) continuities, and 2) discontinuities of parenting approaches across the three generations of the participating families. This study generated that these were the predominant aspects which showed continuity and discontinuity of intergenerational transference of parenting across generations. The continuity aspects relating to parenting were caring for the community and caring amongst family members, the norms and values, work ethics and skills, and parenting competencies. The discontinuities indicated by participants revealed that intergenerational

transference was identified through communication, punishment, and the use or abuse of substances, which presented notable differences in parenting.

9.3.4   Intergenerational relationships

Parent-child relationships often include tensions and negative relationship quality (Clarke, Preston, Raksin, & Bengtson, 1999). Negative relationship qualities include the extent to which parents and children annoy, criticise, or burden one another. Research indicates that tensions in the relationship are common (Birditt, Miller, Fingerman, & Lefkowitz, 2009; Clarke et al., 1999), and that reports vary according to generation. Consistent with the intergenerational stake, Aquilino (1999) found that young adult children reported more arguments and tensions with their parents than their parents did. Similarly, Fingerman (2001) found that adult daughters reported more conflict and negative feelings with mothers than did their mothers. This study examined reports of both positive and negative relationship quality across three generations.

Objective 3: *Compare the parenting factors across generations in Genadendal.*

This objective was met through the individual interviews conducted with the participants of the study. The data was analysed and presented in Chapters 5, 6 and 7, which formulates the findings relating to this objective.

Key findings and conclusions: This study presented a number of notable similarities and differences that were identified in the intergenerational parenting styles and practices that were adopted and transferred across generations and within families. This objective was achieved through a comparative analysis of the findings of intergenerational parenting across three generations outlined in Chapter 5, 6 and 7 of the study.

Similarities: This study found that:

- Caring for the community and community members' personal needs strengthens the interactions of the community of Genadendal and has led to the continued existence and transference of communal traditions and practices, as they are upheld.

- Community members also offer resources and provide support to parents.

- Family members support the child-rearing (parenting) practices of the family, as parenting is especially transferred through the involvement of the grandmothers and siblings who offer support to single and working parents.

- Norms and values are comparatively transferred from G1, to G2, through to G3, depending on the social interactions and engagements between family members and extended family, as the relationships develop attachment and association. Furthermore, this association shows and develops connectedness, which strengthens transference and the upkeep of familial and parental norms and values.

- Work ethic and skills were transferred between (across) G1, G2, and G3 through parenting. All the participants of the case study recognised work ethic and skills as fundamental traits that are transferred and will continue to be transferred, thus suggesting further transference to G4.

- Furthermore, this study also revealed that the key findings comparatively transferred from G1, to G2, to G3 were the parental competencies. This study showed similarities in the transference of parental competencies applied in parenting across generations G1, G2, and G3.

Differences: This study found that:

- A significant difference in the parenting style used in parenting across G1 and G2, to be transferred to G3. G1 parents were found to be more authoritarian in their parenting styles and the related practices, compared to G2 parents who were more authoritative in their parenting approach. Hence, depending on the role of the grandparent and the parent-child

relationship, G3 parenting will be influenced and transferred accordingly. In addition, G1 parents showed less emotional affection, and were more demanding and stricter in their responses, such as "omdat ek so sê" ("because I said so") = G1. G2 parents, on the other hand, portrayed more warmth, affection, and used communication to teach, explain expectations, and direct behavioural outcomes.

- This objective also revealed that due to the life-course (Chapter 2) of individuals running concurrently to different life stages of the individual, parenting across generations is received, understood, and precipitated differently.

- One definite change that has occurred is punishment methods within discipline. This is mainly due to legislation which prohibits corporal punishment in all settings (Bower, Hindle, Tan & van den Berg, 2015). Physical punishment is no longer carried out as previously done by G1. Instead, parents have adopted alternative means of punishment to instil discipline. However, the effectiveness of this approach is questioned due to the detrimental effects thereof, such as the lack of respect and discipline occurring amongst the youth at school institutions and within households., respectively. This change is therefore notably being practiced and enforced upon G3. This suggests that within G3, parenting transference of punishment as a means to ensure discipline has changed.

- The parent-child relationship was also found to be comparatively different. G1 parents indicated a more hierarchical parenting approach, characterised by a one-way process from the parent to the child, while G2 and G3 parents show a two-way process, where parent-child and child-parent influence parenting practices.

- The effects of dual earning households showed another comparative difference. This study showed that when both parents are working there tends to be less involvement and influence of parents. Contrary to earlier generations, the mother was predominantly the main caregiver and more involved in the day-to-day parenting to include the well-being

and behaviour of the child, while the father was solely regarded as the provider and working parent.

- Another notable finding was that G1 parents were more traditional and conservative, wanting to ensure the upkeep of family values and norms. Thus, folk married, and less single parenting occurred. However, G3 is presenting more experiences relating to single parenting, uninvolved parenting, and absent parenting, which is resulting in more anti-social or behavioural problems and outcomes in children.

- The social environment of Genadendal has also changed. Previous years within G1 and G2, unemployment, poverty, and work opportunities were the fundamental socio-economic factors influencing parenting. Nowadays, G3 is being significantly influenced by media and other City influences, which have exposed G2 and G3 to other forms of parenting practices, creating parenting differences. Furthermore, the greatest concern in the intergenerational transference of parenting is that many youth leave Genadendal to go to the City, particularly because of the limited employment and tertiary opportunities within the area. This then adds as a break to the generational transference of the socio-cultural existence of Genaalers (community members) within the area as well as to the increased influences of the transference of parenting (outside of the contextual area).

- The formation of families was another aspect identified across families. The study shows that previously family structures were larger, comprising between eight and ten (8-10) children. In such instances, older siblings tended to adopt parental roles and responsibilities in the child-rearing process. Older siblings left school early to find employment to help provide and care for the family. However, in recent years, the family formations are smaller, and parenting is more manageable with less children. The responsibility of children has diminished greatly with the later generations in relation to

sibling care. Thus, when both parents were working, the eldest sibling assumed the responsibility of parenting and household functioning in the parent's absence.

9.3.5   Intergenerational transference in parenting

Numerous studies and practitioners predict that the style of parenting that parents use with their children can in part be deduced from the parenting styles their own parents used (Belsky, 1984; Belsky et al., 2009; Kerr et al., 2009). This study further supports and confirms that parenting practices of previous generations do indeed inform their children's parenting practices and parenting styles, and that parenting practices are intergenerationally transferred, even up until the fourth generation in one family.

Furthermore, this study indicated that family norms and values, beliefs, socio-cultural performs, religious practices, behaviours, and skills are transmitted from one generation to the next and are simultaneously practiced intergenerationally across three generations. Both attachment and social learning theories provide explanations for the processes by which this transmission occurs (Shaffer et al., 2009). Social learning theory emphasises learning by observation, modelling, and the reinforcement of social interaction patterns in the family context (Bandura, 1977). It was strongly postulated in this study that modelling, and parent-child relationships and interactions involves positive parenting and constructive child outcomes.

Studies indicate that parents play a fundamental role in determining their children's development, and that this will subsequently determine their advancement in life (Collins et al., 2002; Grusec, 2002; Patterson & Fisher, 2002). Furthermore, the significant role of parents will influence how their G2 parents will in turn parent their G3 children (Van Ijzendoorn, 1992). Thus, parenting affects both the continuity of parenting practices and child outcomes (Putallaz, Costanzo, Grimes, & Sherman, 1998; Capaldi, Conger, Hops, &

316

Thornberry, 2003). The parenting practices of parents may either be positive or negative, and produce corresponding, positive or destructive outcomes in children. Positive parenting practices are identified as being supportive and conveying emotional affirmation, and includes warmth and affection, whereas negative parenting practices comprise controlling and manipulative approaches. This research found that parents in Genadendal use positive parenting practices, that are inclusive of relationship building, open-communication, parental involvement, providing guidance and support, as well as using proactive ways to deal with conflict. Skills may be viewed as 'the ability to do something well'. Parents taught and modelled the importance of skills development in an array of areas, such as helping others within the community, helping parents in their job-related roles and tasks, developing abilities to perform all tasks – both gender-associated roles – to enhance work performance and develop good work ethics. These aspects of skills are intergenerationally emphasised, and evidently, intergenerationally transferred and continued across generations.

There are apparent parenting practices that have been discontinued across generations G1, G2 and G3. These are evidently documented as punishment, discipline, substance use/abuse, communication, and parenting. Therefore, this study projects both continuities and discontinuities in parenting. Therefore, this study projects that it is essential to recognise changing constructive parenting practices as well as to identify the discontinuities. Thus, the findings of this study highlight the significance of both aspects of similarities and differences of intergenerational parenting transference.

Objective 4: *Explore the contributing factors towards intergenerational transference of parenting factors over time in Genadendal.*

This objective was achieved through the theoretical stance and literature presented in Chapters 2 and 3, as well as the data analysis, data findings, and discussions outlined in

Chapter 6 relating to the environment as a contributing factor to the intergenerational transference of parenting.

Key findings and conclusion: The study's findings show that the contributing factors toward intergenerational transference of parenting factors over time in Genadendal includes the environmental influence on parenting. The latter comprises the support of the community and the family as well as the community lifestyle, such as peer influences; safety and security influences; the lack of opportunities in relation to employment and poverty-related challenges; and the use of substances in the community. Substance use resulted in problem behaviours among children, encompassing aspects originating from the parental and home influence, lack of spiritual guidance, and a lack of discipline.

9.3.6 Development of parenting guidelines for parents and practitioners

There were diverse contributing processes – the literature review in Chapter 2; the theoretical life-course framework in Chapter 3; and the methodology in Chapter 4 – that contributed to understanding parenting and the related factors of parenting that were brought to light, supporting the data findings of Chapters 5, 6 and 7 regarding parental factors and environmental factors influencing parenting and the intergenerational transference of parenting. All these aspects, therefore, informed the design and modification of the preliminary guidelines, which were presented in a workshop that further informed the development of the final guidelines for parents and practitioners.

Objective 5: *Develop parenting guidelines for parents and practitioners.*

This objective was achieved through the development of guidelines steered by Bronfenbrenner's (1979) dynamic model as outlined in Chapter 8. This objective was also

met through the parenting workshop conducted, as well as the group discussions directly linked to the preliminary parenting guidelines designed from the workshop.

Key findings and conclusions: Guidelines were devised to enhance the domain of parenting by providing a parenting framework for parents and practitioners to formulate an understanding of parenting and the related factors, to include parenting competencies and environmental factors required for effective parenting and positive child-rearing outcomes. The findings and subsequent guidelines that were identified and highlighted with/by participants, illustrated the *dominant discourse*. This discourse outlined that practitioners, social workers, and other related field workers are required to understand and equip parents with the appropriate and needed parenting competencies. Additionally, the guidelines outlined that practitioners and parents ought to develop an awareness of environmental factors that impact on parenting in order to produce effective intervention strategies to strengthen parenting, and subsequently support family functioning.

The guidelines outlined the *Formal Professional Base* which focused on the parental factors and environmental factors most relevant to achieve parental care and support within social work and related helping professions.

The *Framework for Practice* identified the relevant parenting competencies required for effective parenting practice with clients, families, and communities inter and intra relatedly.

Practice purpose suggested that practitioners working within the field of preserving families and strengthening parenting have an awareness and ability to apply this framework of parenting as a means to enhance parenting within communities and families.

9.3.7   Conclusions of overall findings

This section provides the conclusions drawn from the overall findings of the study.

9.3.7.1 Conclusion on parenting

Parenting is described as being hard, and at other times easier. It also requires certain attitudes and attributes to effectively parent and rear children. A combination of parenting styles was identified in the study. In G1, fathers mainly adopted an authoritarian parenting style, and mothers an authoritative parenting style, with the mother predominantly assuming the authoritarian role than the father by enforcing structure, roles, rules, and discipline. G2 parents showed more authoritative parenting styles, whereby children were provided with guidance and support, and opportunities to make decisions and develop independence. Across generations, parents indicated that they formulated strong relationships with their children. These relationships developed strong connections that allowed for openness and encouraged children to approach parents and share information.

9.3.7.2 Conclusion on parenting styles and practices

The parenting styles and practices of mothers and fathers were interrelated and connected. The parenting styles and practices are related to child outcomes. The authoritarian and permissive parenting styles were associated with increased internal and external child behaviour and performance problems. Marital conflict was significantly related to child behaviour problems. When maternal and paternal parenting styles and practices differed, this increased marital conflict. The parenting styles and practices of mothers and fathers were intergenerationally transferred to their children. The mother and father roles and parenting factors were modelled and reciprocated by children. G1 parents were more often described as authoritarian with strict attitudes, harsh discipline, rules, and structure, and lacking emotional warmth and affection. G2 parents displayed more authoritative parenting, making allowance

for the development of independence and involvement in decision making, also displaying warmth, affection, and responsiveness to children. Furthermore, developing strong parent-child relations is achieved by using open communication, honesty, and parental knowledge to provide guidance and support, and less harsh forms of discipline.

9.3.7.3 Conclusion on continuities and discontinuities of parenting

9.3.7.3.1 Continuities

The significant continuities in parenting have been identified as the authoritative parenting style. This style places great emphasis on responsiveness and demandingness, and depicts a strong correlation between levels of warm and inductive reasoning, as well as realistic demands for maturity and self-regulation, consistency in setting and conforming to rules, and consultation with the child regarding decisions (Baumrind, 1991c). This parenting style has been associated with the best social, emotional, and educational outcomes in children (Baumrind & Black, 1967). Conversely, destructive parenting increases the risk for the development of adjustment problems in children. There is a strong correlation between the early maladaptive parent-child interactions and the development of externalising problems. Parental involvement, especially positive parental participation in the parent-child relationship, reduces the risks of externalising behaviours of children.

9.3.7.3.2 Discontinuities

Across generations, the following aspects were found to have changed over time:

1. *Not implementing parenting styles of previous generations*. Parents indicated that G1 parents were more authoritarian, implementing harsh forms of discipline, being strict, showing power and control, as well as limiting children's ability to make decisions. However, G2 parents indicated that these were the factors they revisited in their style of parenting by

being less strict and controlling, and rather being responsive and developing autonomous individuals.

   2. Independence of adult children.

   G2 parents felt that their parents were not making allowance for autonomous living, but rather allowing more than one generation (multigenerational) to occupy the household instead of encouraging individuality and independence. G2 parents strongly indicated that they would inform G3 children to take flight and move out of the parental home.

   3. Less responsibilities for older children.

   G2 parents indicated that in previous years older children were given more responsibilities, such as caring for younger siblings, and helping with household tasks and sibling rearing, which resulted in them dropping out of school. However, G2 parents indicated that they encouraged their children (eldest included) to have a good education, to complete their schooling, and to focus on homework and school related activities. This shows a distinct difference in less responsibility placed on older children, and that parents are more education driven.

   4. Reflecting on changes of punishment styles over generations. G1 parents appeared to be stricter and enforced discipline with spanking. However, G2 and G3 parents and participants indicated their form of discipline has changed as they use more communication and less spanking.

9.4 SUMMARY: THE STUDY REPORT

9.4.1   Limitations of the study

   The following limitations of the study warrant attention when interpreting the findings of the study:

- Fathers and grandfathers are underrepresented in this study of parenting. However, there are distinct references made to the influences of mothers and fathers on the subsequent parenting practices of their children.

- Although the impact of absent fathers was clearly identified as a determinant of child outcomes and parenting styles, this research does not provide a systematic investigation of same-gender or cross-gender intergenerational similarities and differences.

- The sample of the study indicates that the majority of the participants were coloured. Thus, other racial groups were underrepresented.

- This study was conducted in a small rural community situated outside of Cape Town, focusing on parents in Genadendal. Therefore, the research information may vary if the study was comparatively conducted in a city-related community. Therefore, these findings cannot be generalised to a larger sample. This suggests that the parenting styles and practices may vary in other parental contexts which differ in culture and background.

9.5 RECOMMENDATIONS

This section presents the recommendations derived from the research, directed towards the following groups: practitioners, practice, education, policy, and future research.

9.5.1 Recommendations for practitioners:

- To develop and refine empowerment-based self-help interventions for fathers, which may increase their involvement (Fagan & Stevenson, 2002).

- To improve family support and build family structure.

- To promote the involvement of all family members (i.e. grandparents) in child-rearing, which may enhance the self-esteem of both parents, especially fathers, in assuming their paternal roles.

- To promote positive intergenerational family relationships to assist parents, educators, policy makers, social workers, counsellors, and other helping professionals to acquire an understanding of the factors that promote higher levels of parental involvement and positively associated parenting practices, and identify the continuities and discontinuities of parenting practices within families and across generations.

- To be upskilled in parenting guidelines (as part of CPD), including these helpful guiding practices as skills development to build and strengthen parenting, families, and communities. (These practitioners include social workers, and other related fields of care, child protection, and community development).

- Including stakeholders, such as the helping professionals, i.e. educators, social workers, and nurses to work interdisciplinary and in collaboration with similar outcome-focused counselling and training professionals to achieve positive parenting outcomes.

- To be trained to equip, empower, and enhance parenting competencies. (These practitioners include stakeholders, such as the helping professionals, i.e. educators, social workers, and nurses).

9.5.2 Recommendations for practice:

- Households that report or suffer from a lack of communication and require intervention due to distorted relations within the parent's (maternal and paternal) relationship and the parent-child relationship should be engaged in training and parental programmes to learn effective communication skills.

- Parenting styles and practices should be in adherence to the preservation of the family.

- Parenting styles and the application of related practices should result in the best outcomes of the child, focusing on achieving well-being.

9.5.3 Recommendations for education:

- To focus programmes, workshops, seminars, and counselling on parenting awareness.

- To promote awareness, acceptance, agreement, and adherence to guidelines in different ways, which include parents, community members, educators, practitioners, policy makers, and other stakeholders.

- To distribute the information at a forum or meeting that employs purposeful strategies that promote educational and social use of these parenting guidelines.

- To design educational programmes to empower, educate, and equip parents in order to strengthen the understanding and practice performs of parenting.

- For parenting programmes to include styles and practices and the related child outcomes attached to using various child-rearing methods.

- To design programmes to address the limitations of parenting styles and practices used within the household to parent.

- For programmes to be inclusive of both parents to create uniformity in parenting approaches, especially among single, separated, or divorced parents.

- To place a great focus on teaching parenting competencies to parents who experience difficulty in child-rearing to strengthen skills development and parent-child relations.

9.5.4 Recommendations for policy:

- To summon uninvolved parents to fulfil their roles and responsibilities in order to lessen the negative experiences of an absent or uninvolved parent in child-rearing and to enhance dual parenting.

- To consider the well-being (safety, security and welfare) of the child in relation to both the internal and external environmental factors to determine the wellness of the individual and subsequent interventions.

- To consider the well-being (safety, security, and welfare) of the parent in relation to both the internal and external environmental factors to determine the wellness of the individual and subsequent interventions.

- To be inclusive of extended role players that also informs parenting. In that the aspect of intergenerational parenting refers to both the grandparents and community members playing a fundamental role in the rearing and best outcomes of the child. Also, that children, parents, and families experiencing parenting problems and requiring intervention approaches should consider the involvement of grandparents and community members as a strategy to strengthen parenting, as it may be in the best interest of the child, in relation to child-rearing, care (to include both internal and external care), protection, relationship building, and decision making.

- To include parenting skills development within child-rearing to reduce hurt, harm, neglect, and other related social work issues and concerns, in an attempt to address the current increase in social, emotional, physical, and psychological abuse occurring within families.

9.5.5   Recommendations for research:

- The discussion of absent fathers serves to open up conversations on fatherhood, to validate the personal responsibility of these individuals to their family and convey the importance of their involvement in family and child-rearing.

- Father-child research related activities should be promoted to produce effective and strengthened father-child relationships, and in turn, produce positive child outcomes.

- Research should be conducted to accentuate parent-child communication, as this field of research formulates the cornerstone of families as it is both implemented within the engagements of the maternal and paternal parent relationship, as well as the influential aspect of parent-child ongoing relations, behaviours, and social responsiveness.

- Environmental factors in relation to the positive and negative effects on parenting and child outcomes should be furthered explored.

9.6 CONCLUSION OF THE THESIS

The aspect of parenting is of paramount importance to the functioning of the family and community. It is important for parents and practitioners to develop an understanding of parenting to include the parenting factors and environmental factors that influence the positive and negative outcomes of children. Thus, to develop parental competencies strengthens parenting, families, and communities. Furthermore, that intergenerational transference of parenting within families and across generations does occur within families between G1, G2, and G3 parents who are living in the same geographical location as Genadendal and sharing the same resources. However, it is important to note that intergenerational transference consists of both parenting continuities and discontinuities, depending on child-rearing experiences, influential factors in the environment, and the parenting competencies developed over time.

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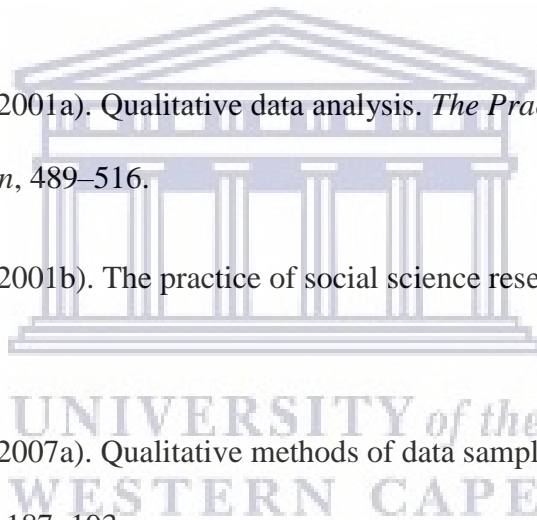
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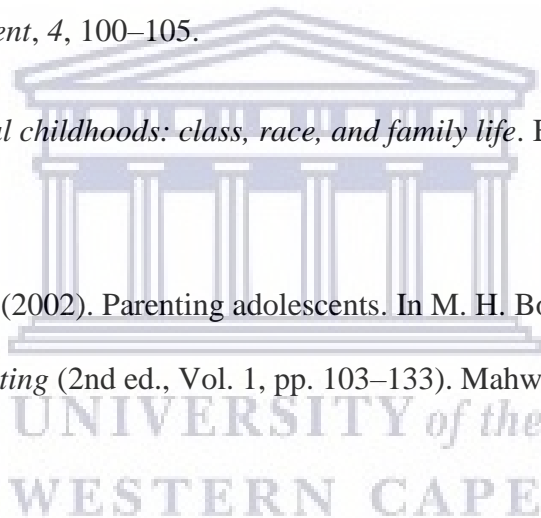
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APPENDICES

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APPENDIX (A): CONSENT FORM

UNIVERSITY OF THE WESTERN CAPE

Private Bag X 17, Bellville 7535, South Africa

Tel: 021-959 2012/ E-mail: cschenck@uwc.ac.za
Tel: 0828776691/ E-mail: nroman@uwc.ac.za

</div>

<u>**CONSENT FORM**</u>

Dear participants,

My name is Anja Human and I am a PHD student in the Social Work Department, situated at the University of the Western Cape. I have a particular interest to conduct a research study concerning intergenerational transference of parenting factors over time and across generations. This study would require parents across 3 generations and across 3 families in the same community, to participate voluntarily in the research process. The purpose of the study is aimed at exploring intergenerational parenting in Genadendal for the purpose of developing guidelines for parents and practitioners.

a. **Consent form for participants:**

I ………………………………………………… hereby provide permission for the researchers responsible for conducting this research to involve me as a participant in completing the research questionnaire that they have compiled and will be administering during the period of the research. I acknowledge that the information generated from this will be used for academic and research purposes.

I acknowledge that whilst participating in this research that I am entitled to the following rights:

1. Not to respond to any questions that may cause me personal harm and suffering.

2. To have the purpose of the research study explained to me prior to the commencement of the study.
3. To withdraw as a participant during the duration of the research and during the publishing of the final research project.
4. To have my identity protected during the duration of the research and during the publishing of the final research report.

I also acknowledge that my participation is completely voluntary and that I was not compelled by the researchers to participate. I also acknowledge that I have not been offered or expect any monetary compensation for participating in this research.

Signature of Acknowledgement: …………………………………………….

Signed at ……………………………………….…… (Place)

on ……………………………………………. (Date)

Researcher's details:

For any further enquiries, the following persons may be contacted in relation to the study:

Supervisors:
- Prof. Catherine Schenck (cschenck@uwc.ac.za), and
- Dr. N. Roman (nroman@uwc.ac.za)
  Contactable at: 021 9593960

Research student:
Ms. A.R Human (anjababy.human46@gmail.com)

Thank you for your participation!

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INFORMATION SHEET

Project Title: Intergenerational transmission of parenting

What is the study about?

This is a research study conducted by student, Anja Human from the University of the
Western Cape. You are invited to voluntarily participate in this research project because we
would like to understand the intergenerational parenting factors as experienced across
generations, through their narratives. The purpose of this research is to document the
narratives and questionnaire data of the parenting practices as well as against the socio-
economic, political and religious historical factors in Genadendal.

What will I be asked to do if I agree to participate?

You will be asked to participate in a qualitative study and be asked to share narratives of
personal experiences during an interview process. Semi-structured questions will structure
the interview process and questions asked in either English or Afrikaans. The questions will
probe; parenting practices, styles and parenting factors. Interviews will be administered in the
home at a time convenient for you. The interview will take approximately between 1-2hours

depending on the extent of the narratives being shared. Along with a questionnaire consistent of various parenting scales will be administered.

Would my participation in this study be kept confidential?

We will do your our best to keep your personal information confidential. To help protect you confidentiality, the information you provide will be totally private; no names will be used so there is no way that you can be identified as a participant in this study. The information will be treated with anonymity and confidentiality. Your name will not be reflected on the transcribing or analyses of the data. The information obtained from the survey will be collated with the information from other completed interviews. Therefore there will be no way to connect you to the study.

What are the risks of the study?

There are no known risks in participating in the study.

What are the benefits of this research?

Information about parenting styles, practices and factors of parents in Genadendal will help identify the growing strengths of the community, as well as changes occurring. The research will provide light and insight within the community on the continuities and discontinuities of parenting. Allow the narratives of parenting in Genadendal to be documented.

Describe the anticipated benefits to science or society expected from the research, if any?

The research findings will contribute to the broader information and understanding on intergenerational transference of parenting within Genadendal. It will raise awareness on the influence and changes occurring. It is anticipated that the research documented will serve to

develop, enhance and give insight within the community in terms of documenting the parenting factors transmitted and broad forth across generations as experienced by parents in the community.

Do I have to be in this research and may I stop participating at any time?

Your participation in this research is completely voluntary. You may choose not to partake in the study. If you decide to participate in the study, and at any time during the interview process change your mind, and decide to e end the interview you will not be penalized in any way.

Is any assistance available if I am negatively affected by participating in this study?

Every effort has been taken to protect you from any harm in this study. If however you may feel affected you can be referred to your nearest community resource for assistance.

What if I have questions?

Should you have any questions regarding this study or wish to report any problems you have experienced related to this study, please contact study co-ordinator:

- For any queries:
- Professor C. Schenck
  Email: cschenck@uwc.ac.za Telephone: 021-959 2012
  Dr. N. Roman
  Email: nroman@uwc.ac.za

  Thank you for your participation!

UNIVERSITY OF THE WESTERN CAPE

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Semi-structured interview questions

A) Intergenerational Parenting

1. What is your stance/idea on parenting? How do you understand parenting?

2. Does parenting impact on the functioning, well-being and development of a child and future adult/parent? How? What are the factors that play a role in parenting?

3. In your view, how were you parented?

4. Share about your parents (styles of discipline? Family rules? Parenting styles? Parenting practices?) and how you experienced this growing up as a child?

5. How has their parenting impacted on you as an individual? As a parent?

6. What were your parenting styles, practices, teachings, believes are they different to that of your own parents? Any reasons why?

7. Who has impacted the most /influenced on the style of parenting/ parenting practices you have adopted?

8. What parenting practices have your children adopted? Is this different from your manner of parenting?

9. How do you view parenting in Genadendal? What is unique about it? What are the good parenting practices? What are the negative parenting factors?

10. Are these factors intergenerationally transferred across generations?

11. Are next generation parents remaining in Genadendal to rear their children or moving to the city to rear their children?

12. What has your role become as a grandparent to your children and grandchildren?

13. Does this different from your experiences of growing up?

14. How would you describe the family you grew up in? Tell us about your family composition.

15. How did the children in your family relate to parents/caregivers?

16. How was discipline imposed?

17. What strong recollections do you have about your own childhood and growing up?

18. What contributions did you/children in your family make?

19. When you were growing up, did children have a say in society?

20. What do you think children's experiences of childhood in South Africa, are today? Does this differ from your experiences of growing up?

21. What do you think about discipline in the homes these days?

22. Do you think parent's role(s) in the family is different today?

23. What about parenting affects general well –being of children today? In what way do these affect child well-being?

24. How would you explain the behaviour of parents today? In which way do these effects affect child well-being?

25. In which ways do you think, this kind of behaviour in parenting contributes to the child's development into adulthood, consequently parenthood?

26. Is there something else that you want to say about parenting, today?

27. What has changed?

28. What do you still value today? How is it different today?

29. Highlight the events of your life experiences regarding parenting?

30. The aspects of parenting that stand out for you? And you have transferred to your children?

31. What were the difficulties/challenged experienced, then? Now?

32. How did you manage to survive/overcome the life experiences? What have you learnt from them (your parents) to share with future generations?

33. What are your concerns? About/for yourself? The elderly? The community? Younger generations?

34. What are your suggestions for improvement? Or today and future generations as to ensure the functioning, well-being and survival of good parenting?

35. What do you look forward to within the community (envision for the community) in terms of parenting?

36. Your opinion, will things change or remain the same?

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Questionnaire

REMEMBER: Make two ratings for each item; (1) rate how often your mother **[M]** exhibited this behavior with you when you were a child and (2) how often your father **[F]** exhibited this behavior with you when you were a child.

MY MOTHER EXHIBITED THIS BEHAVIOR: MY FATHER EXHIBITED THIS BEHAVIOR:

1 = Never   1 = Never

2 = Once In Awhile   2 = Once In Awhile

3 = About Half of the Time   3 = About Half of the Time

4 = Very Often   4 = Very Often

5 = Always   5 = Always

[M]   [F]

_____ _____ 1.   My parent was responsive to my feelings and needs.

_____ _____ 2.   My parent used physical punishment as a way of disciplining me.

_____ _____ 3.   My parent took my desires into account before asking me to do something.

_____ _____ 4.   When I asked why I had to conform, [she stated] [he stated]: because I said so, or I am your parent and I want you to.

_____ _____ 5.   My parent explained to me how she/he felt about my good and bad behavior.

_____ _____ 6.   My parent spanked me when I was disobedient.

_____ _____ 7.   My parent encouraged me to talk about my troubles.

_____ _____ 8.   My parent found it difficult to discipline me.

_____ _____ 9.   My parent encouraged me to freely express myself even when I disagreed   with them.

_____ _____ 10. My parent punished me by taking privileges away from me with little if any explanations.

_____ _____ 11. My parent emphasized the reasons for rules.

_____ _____ 12. My parent gave comfort and understanding when I was upset.

_____ _____ 13. My parent yelled or shouted when I misbehaved.

_____ _____ 14. My parent praised me when I was good.

_____ _____ 15. My parent gave into me when I caused a commotion about something.

_____ _____ 16. My parent exploded in anger towards me.

_____ _____ 17. My parent threatened me with punishment more often than actually giving it.

_____ _____ 18. My parent took into account my preferences in making plans for the family.

_____ _____ 19. My parent grabbed me when I was being disobedient.

_____ _____ 20. My parent stated punishments to me and did not actually do them.

_____ _____ 21. My parent showed respect for my opinions by encouraging me to express them.

_____ _____ 22. My parent allowed me to give input into family rules.

_____ _____ 23. My parent scolded or criticized me to make me improve.

_____ _____ 24. My parent spoiled me.

_____ _____ 25. My parent gave me reasons why rules should be obeyed.

_____ _____ 26. My parent used threats as punishment with little or no justification.

[M]   [F]

_____ _____ 27. My parent had warm and intimate times with me.

_____ _____ 28. My parent punished by putting me off somewhere alone with little if any explanations.

_____ _____ 29. My parent helped me to understand the impact of my behavior by encouraging me to talk about the consequences of my own actions.

_____ _____ 30. My parent scolded or criticized me when my behavior didn't meet their expectations.

_____ _____ 31. My parent explained the consequences of my behavior.

_____ _____ 32. My parent slapped me when I misbehaved.

PLEASE COMPLETE THE FOLLOWING STATEMENTS BY TICKING YOUR RESPONSE				
GENDER		MALE	FEMALE	
Are you attending school?		YES	NO	
AGE				
GRADE				
RACE	COLOURED	BLACK AFRICAN	WHITE	INDIAN/ASIAN
I live with	Both my parents	Only mother	Only father	Other:
Home Language	English	Afrikaans	IsiXhosa	Other
Marital Status	Single	Married	Separated	Partner
Is this your first pregnancy?	YES	NO	Number of children:	
Who is your main source of financial support?	Own Job	Spouse/partner	Parent	Public assistance/grant	Other relatives

FAMILY BACKGROUND
The following contains a number of statements about families. Read each statement carefully, and decide how well it describes your own family. You should answer according to how you see your family.

Statements	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Planning family activities is difficult because we misunderstand each other.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
We resolve most everyday problems around the house.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
When someone is upset the others know why.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
When you ask someone to do something, you have to check that they did it.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
If someone is in trouble, the others become too involved.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
In times of crisis we can turn to each other for support.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
We don't know what to do when an emergency comes up.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
We sometimes run out of things that we need.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
We are reluctant to show our affection for each other.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
We make sure members meet their family responsibilities.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
We cannot talk to each other about the sadness we feel.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
We usually act on our decisions regarding problems.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
You only get the interest of others when something is important to them.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
You can't tell how a person is feeling from what they are saying.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Family tasks don't get spread around enough.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

421

Individuals are accepted for what they are.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
You can easily get away with breaking the rules.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
People come right out and say things instead of hinting at them.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Some of us just don't respond emotionally.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
We know what to do in an emergency.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
We avoid discussing our fears and concerns.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
It is difficult to talk to each other about tender feelings.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
We have trouble meeting our financial obligations.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
After our family tries to solve a problem, we usually discuss whether it worked or not.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
We are too self-centred.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
We can express feelings to each other.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
We have no clear expectations about toilet habits.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
We do not show our love for each other.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
We talk to people directly rather than through go-betweens.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Each of us has particular duties and responsibilities.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
There are lots of bad feelings in the family.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
We have rules about hitting people.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
We get involved with each other only when something interests us.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
There is little time to explore personal interests.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
We often don't say what we mean.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
We feel accepted for what we are.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
We show interest in each other when we can get something out of it personally.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
We resolve most emotional upsets that come up.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Tenderness takes second place to other things in our family.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
We discuss who are responsible for household jobs.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Making decisions is a problem for our family.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Our family shows interest in each other only when they can get something out of it.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
We are frank(direct, straightforward) with each other.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
We don't hold to any rules or standards.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

If people are asked to do something, they need reminding.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
We are able to make decisions about how to solve problems.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
If the rules are broken, we don't know what to expect.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

CHILD DEVELOPMENT KNOWLEDGE
The next questions ask about normal infant development. Each item describes what might be the typical behaviour of a typical infant or what could affect an infant's growth and behaviour. Please answer each question based on your knowledge of infants in general, not how your baby behaved at a certain age. Please tell me if you agree or disagree with each statement or if you are not sure of the answer. PLEASE READ STATEMENTS

	Statements	AGREE	DISAGREE	NOT SURE
a.	Talking to the baby about things he or she is doing helps the baby's development and later competence…………	Agree	Disagree	Not sure
b.	Babies do some things just to make trouble for their parents, like crying or soiling their diapers……………..	Agree	Disagree	Not sure
c.	The baby should not be held when he or she is fed because this will make the baby want to be held all the time…….	Agree	Disagree	Not sure
d.	In general, babies cannot see and hear at birth…………	Agree	Disagree	Not sure
e.	Some days you need to discipline your baby; other days you can ignore the same thing. It all depends on the mood you're in that day………………………………………	Agree	Disagree	Not sure
f.	The newborn can see a face six feet away as well as an adult can………………………………………………	Agree	Disagree	Not sure
g.	A young brother or sister may start wetting the bed or thumb sucking when a newborn arrives in the family……	Agree	Disagree	Not sure
h.	A two year old's sense of time is different to an adult's….	Agree	Disagree	Not sure
i.	Some mothers do not get really involved with their infants until the baby starts to smile and look at them……………..	Agree	Disagree	Not sure
j.	An infant may stop paying attention to what is going on around him or her if there is too much noise or too many things to look at……………………………………..	Agree	Disagree	Not sure
k.	Some normal babies do not enjoy being cuddled…………	Agree	Disagree	Not sure
l.	The more you comfort your crying baby by holding and talking to him or her, the more you spoil him or her……..	Agree	Disagree	Not sure
m.	A good way to teacher your child not to hit is to hit back…	Agree	Disagree	Not sure

Each of the following statements asks about the age at which infants can do something. If you think the age is about right, then "Agree" with the statement. If you don't agree, then decide whether a Younger or Older infant could do it. If you aren't sure of the age, answer "Not Sure". PLEASE READ STATEMENTS, IF DISAGREE, PROBE FOR YOUNGER OR OLDER.

			DISAGREE		
		AGREE	YOUNGER	OLDER	NOT SURE
a.	Most babies can sit on the floor without falling over by seven months……………………				

		AGREE	DISAGREE		NOT SURE
			YOUNGER	**OLDER**	
b.	Most two-year-olds can tell the difference between a make-believe story on TV and a true one……………………………………….				
c.	Infants usually are walking by about 12 months of age………………………………………….				
d.	An eight-month-old acts differently with a familiar person than with someone not seen before………………………………………..				
e.	A baby is about seven months old before he or she can reach for and grab for things…………				
f.	A two-year-old is able to reason logically, much as an adult would……………………………...				
g.	A one-year-old knows right from wrong……...				
			DISAGREE		
		AGREE	**YOUNGER**	**OLDER**	**NOT SURE**
h.	An infant of three months often will smile when he or she sees an adult face…………………….				
i.	Most infants are ready to be toilet trained by one year of age………………………………………...				
j.	An infant will begin to respond to his or her name at ten months…………………………….				
k.	Babies begin to laugh at things around four months of age…………………………………………				
l.	Five-month-olds know what 'no' means………				
m.	A four-month-old lying on his or her stomach can life his or her head…………………………				
n.	Babbling, 'a-bah-bah' or 'bup-bup' begins around five months………………………………				
o.	One-year-olds often cooperate and share when they play together……………………………..				
p.	An infant of 12 months can remember toys he or she has watched being hidden……………….				
q.	A baby usually says his or her first real world at six months……………………………………				

STRESS AND ANXIETY

Stress is a normal physical response to events that make you feel threatened or upset your balance in some way. People who feel anxiety experience muscle tension, restlessness, panic, or a sense of forthcoming trouble. They often also have anxious thoughts, such as fears of dying of a heart attack, fears of embarrassment or humiliation, or fears of something terrible happening. In addition, they often have uncomfortable physical sensations, including heart palpitations, sweating, dizziness, or shortness of breath

Please read each statement and circle a number 0, 1, 2 or 3 which indicates how much the statement applied to you *over the past week*. There are no right or wrong answers. Do not spend too much time on any statement.

The rating scale is as follows:
0 Did not apply to me at all
1 Applied to me to some degree, or some of the time
2 Applied to me to a considerable degree, or a good part of time
3 Applied to me very much, or most of the time

		Does not apply to me	Applies Some degree	Applies to me often	Applies to me most of the time
1	I found it hard to wind down	0	1	2	3
2	I was aware of dryness of my mouth	0	1	2	3
3	I couldn't seem to experience any positive feeling at all	0	1	2	3
4	I experienced breathing difficulty (eg, excessively rapid breathing, breathlessness in the absence of physical exertion)	0	1	2	3
5	I found it difficult to work up the initiative to do things	0	1	2	3
6	I tended to over-react to situations	0	1	2	3
7	I experienced trembling (eg, in the hands)	0	1	2	3
8	I felt that I was using a lot of nervous energy	0	1	2	3
9	I was worried about situations in which I might panic and make a fool of myself	0	1	2	3
10	I felt that I had nothing to look forward to	0	1	2	3
11	I found myself getting agitated	0	1	2	3
12	I found it difficult to relax	0	1	2	3
13	I felt down-hearted and blue	0	1	2	3
14	I was intolerant of anything that kept me from getting on with what I was doing	0	1	2	3
15	I felt I was close to panic	0	1	2	3
16	I was unable to become enthusiastic about anything	0	1	2	3
17	I felt I wasn't worth much as a person	0	1	2	3
18	I felt that I was rather touchy	0	1	2	3
19	I was aware of the action of my heart in the absence of physical exertion (eg, sense of heart rate increase, heart missing a beat)	0	1	2	3
20	I felt scared without any good reason	0	1	2	3
21	I felt that life was meaningless	0	1	2	3

PARENTING STYLES
Make a rating for each item according to how often you exhibit this behavior with your child.

I EXHIBIT THIS BEHAVIOR:
     1 = Never
     2 = Once In A while
     3 = About Half of the Time
     4 = Very Often
     5 = Always

		NEVER	ONCE IN A WHILE	HALF THE TIME	VERY OFTEN	ALWAYS
1	I am responsive to MY child's feelings and needs	1	2	3	4	5
2	I use physical punishment as a way of disciplining my child	1	2	3	4	5
3	I take my child's desires into account before asking the child to do something	1	2	3	4	5
4	When my child asks why he/she has to conform, I state: because I said so, or I am your parent and I want you to.	1	2	3	4	5
5	I explain to my child how we feel about the child's good and bad behavior	1	2	3	4	5
4	I spank when my child is disobedient.	1	2	3	4	5
7	I encourage my child to talk about his/her troubles.	1	2	3	4	5
8	I find it difficult to discipline my child	1	2	3	4	5
9	I encourage my child to freely express himself/herself even when disagreeing with parents.	1	2	3	4	5
10	I punish by taking privileges away from my child with little if any explanations.	1	2	3	4	5
11	I emphasize the reasons for rules	1	2	3	4	5
12	I give comfort and understanding when my child is upset	1	2	3	4	5
13	I yell or shout when my child misbehaves.	1	2	3	4	5
14	I give praise]when my child is good.	1	2	3	4	5
15	I give into my child when the child causes a commotion about something.	1	2	3	4	5
16	I explode in anger towards my child	1	2	3	4	5
17	I threaten my child with punishment more often than actually giving it.	1	2	3	4	5
18	I take into account my child's preferences in making plans for the family.	1	2	3	4	5
19	I grab my child when being disobedient.	1	2	3	4	5
20	I state punishments to my child and does not actually do them.	1	2	3	4	5
21	I show respect for my child's opinions by encouraging my child to express them.	1	2	3	4	5
22	I allow my child to give input into family rules	1	2	3	4	5
23	I scold and criticize to make my child improve.	1	2	3	4	5
24	I spoil my child	1	2	3	4	5
25	I give my child reasons why rules should be obeyed.	1	2	3	4	5

		NEVER	ONCE IN A WHILE	HALF THE TIME	VERY OFTEN	ALWAYS
26	I use] threats as punishment with little or no justification.	1	2	3	4	5
27	I have warm and intimate times together with my child.	1	2	3	4	5
28	I punish by putting my child off somewhere alone with little if any explanations.	1	2	3	4	5
29	I help my child to understand the impact of behavior by encouraging my child to talk about the consequences of his/her own actions.	1	2	3	4	5
30	I scold or criticize when my child's behavior doesn't meet our expectations.	1	2	3	4	5
31	I explain the consequences of the child's behavior.	1	2	3	4	5
32	I slap my child when the child misbehaves.	1	2	3	4	5

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Section 1: Family Demographic Questionnaire
Please complete the following by circling ◯ the correct response.

Gender	Male			Female		
Age						
Highest grade completed						
Race	Coloured		Black / African	White		Indian / Asian
Home language	Afrikaans	English		isiXhosa		Other
Who do you live with	Both Parents	Mother Only Father Only		Partner	Caregiver / Guardian	Alone
Marital Status	Married	Living together, not married		Single, do not live together and are not married		
Are you employed	Yes			No		

1. How many children live in your home? _____

2. What are their ages? _____

3. What is your relationship to the child(ren) aged 0-5 years?
a) Mother _____
b) Stepmother _____
c) Guardian (please specify) _____
d) Other (please specify) _____

4. What was your age at the time of your first child's birth? _____

5. How many adults (18 years or older) live in your home? _____

6. How do you describe the family living in your home?
a) Single parent family _____
b) Two parent family _____
c) Extended family _____
d) Blended family _____
e) Other (please specify) _____

7. Please tell us the main language and any additional languages spoken in your home:
Main Language: _____
Additional Language(s): _____

8. Please tell us about the education of the adults in your home. What is the highest level each adult has attained:
Adult #1 #2 #3 #4
a) No schooling ___ ___ ___ ___
b) Primary school ___ ___ ___ ___
c) Some high school ___ ___ ___ ___
d) Matriculated ___ ___ ___ ___
e) Diploma/Certificate ___ ___ ___ ___
f) Bachelor degree ___ ___ ___ ___
g) Postgraduate degree ___ ___ ___ ___

9. How many adults living in the home are:
a) Employed full-time _____
b) Employed part-time _____
c) Stay at home parent _____
d) Student _____
f) Not employed _____
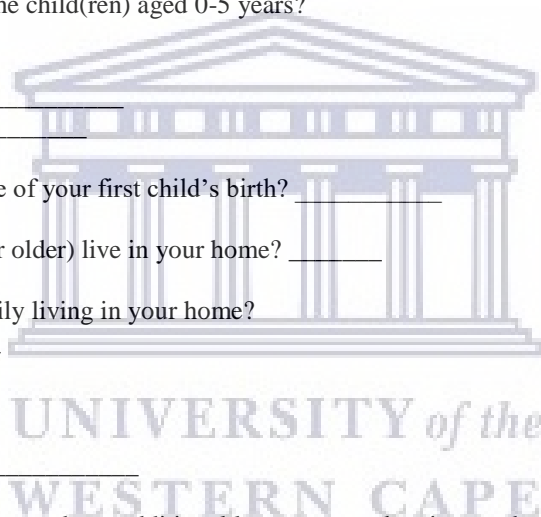
10. Please describe the childcare situation in your home
a. I take care of the children full time: Yes or No
b. If no, The children are in care:
 - Fewer than 20 hours per week _____
 - 20 hours per week or more _____

11. When the children are in care they are:
 - Cared for by another adult in our home Yes or No

12. If yes, who cares for them? _____

13. What best describes your annual household income?
a) Less than 14,999 _____
b) 15,000-19,999 _____
c) 20,000-29,999 _____
d) 30,000-39,999 _____
e) 40,000-49,999 _____
f) 50,000-or more _____
h) Prefer not to answer _____

Section 2: *Social Support*.

The Social Provisions Scale (SPS)

INSTRUCTIONS: In answering the next set of questions I am going to ask you, I want you to think about your current relationship with family members. Please tell me to what extent you agree that each statement describes your current relationships with other people. Use the following scale to give me your opinion. So, for example, if you feel a statement is very true of your current relationships, you would tell me "strongly agree". If you feel a statement clearly does not describe your relationships, you would respond "strongly disagree".

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4

1. There are people I can depend on to help me if I really need it.	
2. I feel that I do not have close personal relationships with other people.	
3. There is no one I can turn to for guidance in times of stress.	
4. There are people who depend on me for help.	
5. There are people who enjoy the same social activities I do.	
6. Other people do not view me as competent.	
7. I feel personally responsible for the well-being of another person.	
8. I feel part of a group of people who share my attitudes and beliefs.	
9. I do not think other people respect my skills and abilities.	
10. If something went wrong, no one would come to my assistance.	
11. I have close relationships that provide me with a sense of emotional security and well-being.	

12. There is someone I could talk to about important decisions in my life.	
13. I have relationships where my competence and skills are recognized.	
14. There is no one who shares my interests and concerns.	
15. There is no one who really relies on me for their well-being.	
16. There is a trustworthy person I could turn to for advice if I were having problems.	
17. I feel a strong emotional bond with at least one other person.	
18. There is no one I can depend on for aid if I really need it.	
19. There is no one I feel comfortable talking about problems with.	
20. There are people who admire my talents and abilities.	
21. I lack a feeling of intimacy with another person.	
22. There is no one who likes to do the things I do.	
23. There are people I can count on in an emergency.	
24. No one needs me to care for them.	

Section 3: *Parental self-efficacy.* The Parenting Ladder (Richards, 1998)
Parenting Ladder

INSTRUCTIONS: For the following questions, think about parenting as a ladder that you climb from the lowest rung to the highest rung. This ladder has 7 levels from 0 = Low to 6 = High. For each question, circle the number that best describes where you see yourself on the ladder.
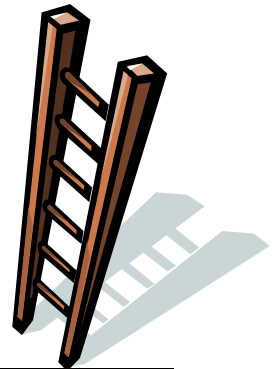
First, for each item, where are you on the ladder NOW?	NOW? low high
1. Your knowledge of how children grow and develop	0 1 2 3 4 5 6
2. Your confidence that you know what is right for your child	0 1 2 3 4 5 6
3. Your confidence in your ability to handle the day-to-day challenges of raising your child	0 1 2 3 4 5 6
4. Your ability to help your child learn	0 1 2 3 4 5 6
5. Your ability to cope with the stress in your life (self-care/stress management)	0 1 2 3 4 5 6

6. The amount of positive or helpful interactions you have with other parents	0 1 2 3 4 5 6
7. Your awareness of community information and resources for parents	0 1 2 3 4 5 6
8. The amount of helpful parenting information and support you get from others	0 1 2 3 4 5 6
9. The amount of communication and problem solving with your partner about issues related to your child (*leave blank if you do not have a partner*)	0 1 2 3 4 5 6
10. Your satisfaction with your experience as a parent	0 1 2 3 4 5 6
11. *Please answer only if your child is at least one year old:* Your confidence in using positive discipline (discipline as teaching and learning) with your child	0 1 2 3 4 5 6

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MOTHER FORM

This questionnaire lists various attitudes and behaviours of parents. As you remember your MOTHER in your first 16 years would you place a tick in the most appropriate box next to each question.

	Very Like	Moderately Like	Moderately unlike	Very Unlike
1. Spoke to me in a warm and friendly voice	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. Did not help me as much as I needed	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. Let me do those things I liked doing	☐	☐	☐	☐
4. Seemed emotionally cold to me	☐	☐	☐	☐
5. Appeared to understand my problems and worries	☐	☐	☐	☐
6. Was affectionate to me	☐	☐	☐	☐
7. Liked me to make my own decisions	☐	☐	☐	☐
8. Did not want me to grow up	☐	☐	☐	☐
9. Tried to control everything I did	☐	☐	☐	☐
10. Invaded my privacy	☐	☐	☐	☐
11. Enjoyed talking things over with me	☐	☐	☐	☐
12. Frequently smiled at me	☐	☐	☐	☐
13. Tended to baby me	☐	☐	☐	☐
14. Did not seem to understand what I needed or wanted	☐	☐	☐	☐
15. Let me decide things for myself	☐	☐	☐	☐
16. Made me feel I wasn't wanted	☐	☐	☐	☐
17. Could make me feel better when I was upset	☐	☐	☐	☐
18. Did not talk with me very much	☐	☐	☐	☐
19. Tried to make me feel dependent on her/him	☐	☐	☐	☐
20. Felt I could not look after myself unless she/he was around	☐	☐	☐	☐
21. Gave me as much freedom as I wanted	☐	☐	☐	☐
22. Let me go out as often as I wanted	☐	☐	☐	☐
23. Was overprotective of me	☐	☐	☐	☐
24. Did not praise me	☐	☐	☐	☐
25. Let me dress in any way I pleased	☐	☐	☐	☐

FATHER FORM

This questionnaire lists various attitudes and behaviours of parents. As you remember your FATHER in your first 16 years would you place a tick in the most appropriate box next to each question.

	Very like	Moderately like	Moderately unlike	Very unlike
1. Spoke to me in a warm and friendly voice	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. Did not help me as much as I needed	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. Let me do those things I liked doing	☐	☐	☐	☐
4. Seemed emotionally cold to me	☐	☐	☐	☐
5. Appeared to understand my problems and worries	☐	☐	☐	☐
6. Was affectionate to me	☐	☐	☐	☐
7. Liked me to make my own decisions	☐	☐	☐	☐
8. Did not want me to grow up	☐	☐	☐	☐
9. Tried to control everything I did	☐	☐	☐	☐
10. Invaded my privacy	☐	☐	☐	☐
11. Enjoyed talking things over with me	☐	☐	☐	☐
12. Frequently smiled at me	☐	☐	☐	☐
13. Tended to baby me	☐	☐	☐	☐
14. Did not seem to understand what I needed or wanted	☐	☐	☐	☐
15. Let me decide things for myself	☐	☐	☐	☐
16. Made me feel I wasn't wanted	☐	☐	☐	☐
17. Could make me feel better when I was upset	☐	☐	☐	☐
18. Did not talk with me very much	☐	☐	☐	☐
19. Tried to make me feel dependent of her/him	☐	☐	☐	☐
20. Felt I could not look after myself unless she/he was around	☐	☐	☐	☐
21. Gave me as much freedom as I wanted	☐	☐	☐	☐
22. Let me go out as often as I wanted	☐	☐	☐	☐
23. Was overprotective of me	☐	☐	☐	☐
24.Did not praise me	☐	☐	☐	☐
25. Let me dress in any way I pleased	☐	☐	☐	☐

APPENDIX A
PARENTS AS SOCIAL CONTEXT QUESTIONNAIRE
(PARENT-REPORT)

Warmth

W1. I know a lot about what goes on for my child.
W2. I really know how my child feels about things.
W3. I do special things with my child.
W4. I set aside time to talk to my child about what is important to him/her.
W5. I can always find time for my child.
*W6. I feel good about the relationship I have with my child.
W7. I let my child know I love him/her.

Rejection

R1. I don't understand my child very well.
R2. Sometimes my child is hard to like.
R3. At times, the demands that my child makes feel like a burden.

R4. My child needs more than I have time to give him/her.

R5. Sometimes I feel like I can't be there for my child when he/she needs me.

Structure

S1. I make it clear what will happen if my child does not follow our rules.

S2. I make it clear to my child what I expect from him/her.

*S3. When I punish my child, I always explain why.

S4. When I tell my child I'll do something, I do it.

S5. If my child has a problem, I help him/her figure out what to do about it.

S6. I expect my child to follow our family rules.

Chaos

Ch1. I let my child get away with things I really shouldn't allow.

Ch2. When my child gets in trouble, my reaction is not very predictable.

Ch3. My child doesn't seem to know what I expect from him/her.

Ch4. I change the rules a lot at home.

Ch5. I can get mad at my child with no warning.

Autonomy Support

A1. I encourage my child to express his/her feelings even when they're hard to hear.

A2. I encourage my child to express his/her opinions even when I don't agree with them.

A3. I trust my child.

A4. I encourage my child to be true to her/himself.

A5. I expect my child to say what he/she really thinks.

Coercion

Co1. My child fights me at every turn.

Co2. To get my child to do something, I have to yell at him/her.

Co3. I can't afford to let my child decide too many things on his or her own.

Co4. I sometimes feel that I have to push my child to do things.

Co5. I find myself getting into power struggles with my child.

Note. Adapted from an earlier version of Parents as Social Context Questionnaire (Skinner, Regan,&Wellborn, 1986). Responses ranged from1 (not at all true) to 4 (very true).

*Indicates that these items were dropped from the final version. Unnumbered items were added to subsequent versions to increase reliability.
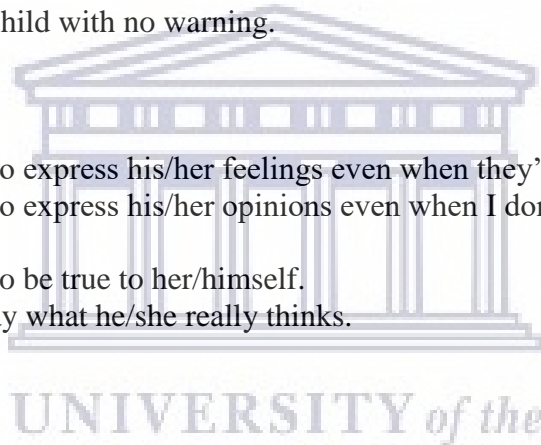
APPENDIX B
PARENTS AS SOCIAL CONTEXT QUESTIONNAIRE
(ADOLESCENT REPORT)

Warmth

W1. My parents let me know they love me.
W2. My parents enjoy being with me.
W3. My parents are always glad to see me.
W4. My parents think I'm special.
*W5. My parents can tell how I'm feeling without asking.
**W6. My parents are happy with me just the way I am.
**W7. My parents understand me very well.
**W8. My parents are glad I am their child.

Rejection

R1. Sometimes I wonder if my parents like me.
R2. My parents think I'm always in the way.
R3. My parents make me feel like I'm not wanted.
R4. Nothing I do is good enough for my parents.
*R5. When I am upset, my parents don't care.
*R6. My parents don't say much about the good things I do, but they are always talking about the bad.
**R7. My parents do not really love me.
**R8. My parents pick on me for every little thing.

Structure

S1. When I want to do something, my parents show me how.
S2. When I want to understand how something works, my parents explain it to me.
S3. If I ever have a problem, my parents help me to figure out what to do about it.
S4. My parents explain the reasons for our family rules.
*S5. My parents expect me to follow our family rules.
**S6. My parents show me how to do things for myself.
**S7. My parents keep their promises.
**S8. When my parents tell me they'll do something, I know they will do it.

Chaos

Ch1. When my parents make a promise, I don't know if they will keep it.
Ch2. When my parents say they will do something, sometimes they don't really do it.
Ch3. My parents keep changing the rules on me.
Ch4. My parents get mad at me with no warning.
*Ch5. When I do something wrong, I never know how my parents will react.
**Ch6. My parents punish me for no reason.
*Ch7. A lot of times, I don't know where my parents are.
*Ch8. I never know what my parents will do next.

Autonomy Support

A1. My parents trust me.
A2. My parents accept me for myself.
A3. My parents let me do the things I think are important.
A4. My parents try to understand my point of view.
*A5. When my parents ask me to do something, they explain why.
**A6. My parents encourage me to be true to myself.
**A7. My parents expect me to say what I think.
**A8. My parents want to know what I think about how we should do things.

Coercion

Co1. My parents are always telling me what to do.
Co2. My parents boss me.
Co3. My parents think there is only one right way to do things—their way.
Co4. My parents say "no" to everything.
*Co5. The only reason my parents give is "Because I said so."
*Co6. I'm not allowed to disagree with my parents.
**Co7. My parents try to control everything I do.
**Co8. My parents think that they know best about everything.

Note. Adapted from an earlier version of Parents as Social Context Questionnaire (Skinner, Regan, &Wellborn, 1986). Responses ranged from Not at all true (1) to Very true (4). An asterisk indicates items that were dropped from the final version due to low factor loadings. A double asterisk indicates items that were dropped due to maximize among positive or among negative factors.

MY FATHER/MOTHER AND ME

The following statements deal with the way in which your father behaves towards you. Indicate to which degree you agree with these statements by encircling one of the numbers.

		disagree				agree
		1	2	3	4	5

CPSF01	My father makes me feel better after talking over my worries with him	1	2	3	4	5
CPSF02	My father has clear expectations for how I should behave in and outside the home	1	2	3	4	5
CPSF03	My father asks me questions about how I am behaving outside the home	1	2	3	4	5
CPSF04	My father is always trying to change how I feel or think about things	1	2	3	4	5
CPSF05	My father listens to my opinion or perspective when I've got a problem	1	2	3	4	5
CPSF06	My father smiles at me very often	1	2	3	4	5
CPSF07	My father requires that I behave in certain ways	1	2	3	4	5
CPSF08	My father reminds me of the rules he has set for me	1	2	3	4	5
CPSF09	My father changes the subject whenever I have something to say	1	2	3	4	5
CPSF10	My father is usually willing to consider things from my point of view	1	2	3	4	5
CPSF11	My father is able to make me feel better when I am upset	1	2	3	4	5
CPSF12	My father believes that children should not be able to do anything they want	1	2	3	4	5
CPSF13	My father watches to make sure I behave appropriately	1	2	3	4	5
CPSF14	My father often interrupts me	1	2	3	4	5
CPSF15	Whenever possible, my father allows me to choose what to do	1	2	3	4	5
CPSF16	My father cheers me up when I am sad	1	2	3	4	5
CPSF17	My father wants me to learn to follow rules and regulations in and outside of the home	1	2	3	4	5
CPSF18	My father talks to neighbors, parents of my friends, or my teachers about my behavior	1	2	3	4	5
CPSF19	My father blames me for other family members' problems	1	2	3	4	5
CPSF20	My father allows me to decide things for myself	1	2	3	4	5
CPSF21	My father gives me a lot of care and attention	1	2	3	4	5
CPSF22	My father believes parents have the right to set rules and regulations for how children should behave	1	2	3	4	5
CPSF23	My father makes efforts to know who my friends are and where I spend my time	1	2	3	4	5
CPSF24	My father brings up past mistakes when he criticizes me	1	2	3	4	5
CPSF25	My father insists upon doing things his way	1	2	3	4	5
CPSF26	My father believes in showing his love for me	1	2	3	4	5
CPSF27	My father lets me do anything I want	1	2	3	4	5
CPSF28	My father doesn't seem to care whether or not I behave like he wants me to do	1	2	3	4	5
CPSF29	My father is less friendly with me if I do not see things his way	1	2	3	4	5
CPSF30	My father isn't sensitive to many of my needs	1	2	3	4	5
CPSF31	My father enjoys doing things with me	1	2	3	4	5
CPSF32	My father has reasonable expectations for my behavior	1	2	3	4	5
CPSF33	My father is unaware of how I am behaving in or outside the home	1	2	3	4	5
CPSF34	My father will avoid looking at me when I have disappointed him	1	2	3	4	5
CPSF35	My father helps me to choose my own direction in life	1	2	3	4	5
CPSF36	My father is very unclear as to what he expects of me	1	2	3	4	5
CPSF37	My father checks on me in reasonable ways to see if I am behaving like he wants me to	1	2	3	4	5
CPSF38	If I have hurt his feelings, my father stops talking to me until I please him again	1	2	3	4	5

MY MOTHER AND ME

The following statements deal with the way in which your mother behaves towards you. Indicate to which degree you agree with these statements by encircling one of the numbers.

	disagree				agree
	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**

CPSM01	My mother makes me feel better after talking over my worries with her	1	2	3	4	5
CPSM02	My mother has clear expectations for how I should behave in and outside the home	1	2	3	4	5
CPSM03	My mother asks me questions about how I am behaving outside the home	1	2	3	4	5
CPSM04	My mother is always trying to change how I feel or think about things	1	2	3	4	5
CPSM05	My mother listens to my opinion or perspective when I've got a problem	1	2	3	4	5
CPSM06	My mother smiles at me very often	1	2	3	4	5
CPSM07	My mother requires that I behave in certain ways	1	2	3	4	5
CPSM08	My mother reminds me of the rules she has set for me	1	2	3	4	5
CPSM09	My mother changes the subject whenever I have something to say	1	2	3	4	5
CPSM10	My mother is usually willing to consider things from my point of view	1	2	3	4	5
CPSM11	My mother is able to make me feel better when I am upset	1	2	3	4	5
CPSM12	My mother believes that children should not be able to do anything they want	1	2	3	4	5
CPSM13	My mother watches to make sure I behave appropriately	1	2	3	4	5
CPSM14	My mother often interrupts me	1	2	3	4	5
CPSM15	Whenever possible, my mother allows me to choose what to do	1	2	3	4	5
CPSM16	My mother cheers me up when I am sad	1	2	3	4	5
CPSM17	My mother wants me to learn to follow rules and regulations in and outside of the home	1	2	3	4	5
CPSM18	My mother talks to neighbors, parents of my friends, or my teachers about my behavior	1	2	3	4	5
CPSM19	My mother blames me for other family members' problems	1	2	3	4	5
CPSM20	My mother allows me to decide things for myself	1	2	3	4	5
CPSM21	My mother gives me a lot of care and attention	1	2	3	4	5
CPSM22	My mother believes parents have the right to set rules and regulations for how children should behave	1	2	3	4	5
CPSM23	My mother makes efforts to know who my friends are and where I spend my time	1	2	3	4	5
CPSM24	My mother brings up past mistakes when she criticizes me	1	2	3	4	5
CPSM25	My mother insists upon doing things her way	1	2	3	4	5
CPSM26	My mother believes in showing her love for me	1	2	3	4	5
CPSM27	My mother lets me do anything I want	1	2	3	4	5
CPSM28	My mother doesn't seem to care whether or not I behave like she wants me to do	1	2	3	4	5
CPSM29	My mother is less friendly with me if I do not see things her way	1	2	3	4	5
CPSM30	My mother isn't sensitive to many of my needs	1	2	3	4	5
CPSM31	My mother enjoys doing things with me	1	2	3	4	5
CPSM32	My mother has reasonable expectations for my behavior	1	2	3	4	5
CPSM33	My mother is unaware of how I am behaving in or outside the home	1	2	3	4	5
CPSM34	My mother will avoid looking at me when I have disappointed her	1	2	3	4	5
CPSM35	My mother helps me to choose my own direction in life	1	2	3	4	5
CPSM36	My mother is very unclear as to what she expects of me	1	2	3	4	5
CPSM37	My mother checks on me in reasonable ways to see if I am behaving like she wants me to	1	2	3	4	5
CPSM38	If I have hurt her feelings, my mother stops talking to me until I please her again	1	2	3	4	5

MY SON/DAUGHTER AND ME

	disagree				agree
	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**

CPSF01	I make my son or daughter feel better after talking over his or her worries with me	1	2	3	4	5
CPSF02	I have clear expectations for how my son or daughter should behave in and out of the home	1	2	3	4	5
CPSF03	I ask my son or daughter questions about how he or she is behaving outside the home	1	2	3	4	5
CPSF04	I am always trying to change how my son or daughter feels or thinks about things	1	2	3	4	5
CPSF05	I listen to my son or daughter's opinion or perspective when he or she's got a problem	1	2	3	4	5
CPSF06	I smile at my son or daughter often	1	2	3	4	5
CPSF07	I require that my son/daughter behaves in certain ways	1	2	3	4	5
CPSF08	I remind my son/daughter of the rules I have set for him or her	1	2	3	4	5
CPSF09	I sometimes change the subject when my son or daughter has something to say	1	2	3	4	5
CPSF10	I am usually willing to consider things from my son or daughter's point of view	1	2	3	4	5
CPSF11	I am able to make my son or daughter feel better when he or she is upset	1	2	3	4	5
CPSF12	I believe that children should <u>not</u> be able to do anything they want	1	2	3	4	5
CPSF13	I watch to make sure my son or daughter behaves appropriately	1	2	3	4	5
CPSF14	I often interrupt my son or daughter	1	2	3	4	5
CPSF15	Whenever possible, I allow my son or daughter to choose what to do	1	2	3	4	5
CPSF16	I cheer my son or daughter up when he or she is sad	1	2	3	4	5
CPSF17	I want my son or daughter to learn to follow rules and regulations in and out of the home	1	2	3	4	5
CPSF18	I talk to neighbors, parents of friends, or teachers about my son or daughter's behavior	1	2	3	4	5
CPSF19	I sometimes blame my son or daughter for other family members' problems	1	2	3	4	5
CPSF20	I allow my son or daughter to decide things for him or herself	1	2	3	4	5
CPSF21	I give my son or daughter a lot of care and attention	1	2	3	4	5
CPSF22	I believe parents have the right to set rules and regulations for how their children should behave	1	2	3	4	5
CPSF23	I make efforts to know who my son or daughter's friends are and where he or she spends time	1	2	3	4	5
CPSF24	I sometimes bring up past mistakes when I criticize my son or daughter	1	2	3	4	5
CPSF25	I insist upon doing things my way	1	2	3	4	5
CPSF26	I believe in showing my love for my son or daughter	1	2	3	4	5
CPSF27	I let my son or daughter do anything he or she wants	1	2	3	4	5
CPSF28	I do not care whether or not my son or daughter behaves like I want him or her to	1	2	3	4	5
CPSF29	I am less friendly with my son or daughter if he or she does not see things my way	1	2	3	4	5
CPSF30	I am not very sensitive to many of my son or daughter's needs	1	2	3	4	5
CPSF31	I enjoy doing things with my son or daughter	1	2	3	4	5
CPSF32	I have reasonable expectations for my son or daughter's behavior	1	2	3	4	5
CPSF33	I am unaware of how my son or daughter is behaving in or out of the home	1	2	3	4	5
CPSF34	I avoid looking at my son or daughter when he or she has disappointed me	1	2	3	4	5
CPSF35	I help my son or daughter choose his or her own direction in life	1	2	3	4	5
CPSF36	I am unclear as to what I expect of my son or daughter	1	2	3	4	5
CPSF37	I check on my son or daughter in reasonable ways to see if he or she is behaving like I want him or her to	1	2	3	4	5
CPSF38	If my son or daughter has hurt my feelings, I stop talking to him or her until he or she pleases me again	1	2	3	4	5

SCORING INSTRUCTIONS FATHER FORM

Reverse scoring: cpsf25, cpsf27, cpsf28, cpsf30, cpsf33, and cpsf36

Responsiveness / Support = mean of (cpsf01, cpsf06, cpsf11, cpsf16, cpsf21, cpsf26, cpsf31)
Expectations for Behavior = mean of (cpsf02, cpsf07, cpsf12, cpsf17, cpsf22, cpsf27r, cpsf32, cpsf36r)
Monitoring of Behavior = mean of (cpsf03, cpsf08, cpsf13, cpsf18, cpsf23, cpsf28r, cpsf33r, cpsf37)
Psychological Control = mean of (cpsf04, cpsf09, cpsf14, cpsf19, cpsf24, cpsf29, cpsf34, cpsf38)
Autonomy Support = mean of (cpsf05, cpsf10, cpsf15, cpsf20, cpsf25r, cpsf30r, cpsf35)

To obtain a general score for Behavioral Control, calculate the mean of the items for Expectations for Behavior and Monitoring of Behavior. This approach has been used in Soenens, Vansteenkiste, Luyckx, and Goossens (2006)

SCORING INSTRUCTIONS MOTHER FORM

Reverse scoring: cpsm25, cpsm27, cpsm28, cpsm30, cpsm33, and cpsm36

Responsiveness / Support = mean of (cpsm01, cpsm06, cpsm11, cpsm16, cpsm21, cpsm26, cpsm31)
Expectations for Behavior = mean of (cpsm02, cpsm07, cpsm12, cpsm17, cpsm22, cpsm27r, cpsm32, cpsm36r)
Monitoring of Behavior = mean of (cpsm03, cpsm08, cpsm13, cpsm18, cpsm23, cpsm28r, cpsm33r, cpsm37)
Psychological Control = mean of (cpsm04, cpsm09, cpsm14, cpsm19, cpsm24, cpsm29, cpsm34, cpsm38)
Autonomy Support = mean of (cpsm05, cpsm10, cpsm15, cpsm20, cpsm25r, cpsm30r, cpsm35)

To obtain a general score for Behavioral Control, calculate the mean of the items for Expectations for Behavior and Monitoring of Behavior. This approach has been used in Soenens, Vansteenkiste, Luyckx, and Goossens (2006)

[Soenens, B., Vansteenkiste, M., Luyckx, K., & Goossens, L. (2006). Parenting and adolescent problem behaviors: An integrated model with adolescent self-disclosure and perceived parental knowledge as intervening variables. *Developmental Psychology, 42, 305-318*.]

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TOESTEMMINGSVORM

Geagte deelnemers,

My naam is Anja Human-Hendricks en ek is 'n PhD-student in die Departement Maatskaplike Werk, by die Universiteit van die Wes-Kaap. Ek het 'n besondere belangstelling in die navorsingstudie oor intergenerasie oordrag van ouerskap faktore oor die verloop van tyd, as ook oor geslagte, te voer. Hierdie studie sal vereis dat ouers vrywillig deel te kan neem in die navorsingsproses. Die doel van die studie is daarop gerig om intergenerasie ouerskap in Genadendal vir die doel van die ontwikkeling van riglyne vir ouers en praktisyns.

b. Toestemmingsvorm vir die deelnemers:
Ek .... verskaf hiermee toestemming vir die navorsers wat verantwoordelik is vir die uitvoering van hierdie navorsing om my te betrek as 'n deelnemer in die voltooiing van die navorsing vraelys wat hulle saamgestel en sal administreer word gedurende die tydperk van die navorsing. Ek erken dat die inligting verkry sal gebruik word vir akademiese en navorsingsdoeleindes.

Ek erken dat tydens deelname aan hierdie navorsing dat ek geregtig is op die volgende regte:

1. Nie te reageer op enige vrae wat my persoonlike leed en lyding veroorsaak nie.

2. Om die doel van die navorsingstudie aan my te verduidelik voor die aanvangs van die studie.

3. Om te onttrek as 'n deelnemer tydens die duur van die navorsing en tydens die publikasie van die finale navorsingsprojek.

4. Om my identiteit te beskerm tydens die duur van die navorsing en tydens die publikasie van die finale navorsingsverslag. Ek erken ook dat my deelname heeltemal vrywillig is en dat ek nie deur die navorsers geforseer was om deel te neem nie. Ek erken ook dat ek nie aangebied of verwag dat enige geldelike vergoeding vir deelname aan hierdie navorsing.

Handtekening van Erkenning: ....

Geteken te ....(Plek) op ....(Datum)..................

Navorser se besonderhede:

Vir enige verdere navrae, kan die volgende persone in verband gekontak word oor die

studie:

Toesighouers:

• Prof Catherine Schenck (cschenck@uwc.ac.za), en

• Prof. N. Roman (nroman@uwc.ac.za)

Bereikbaar by: 021 - 9593960

Navorsing student:

Mev. A.R Human (anjababy.human46@gmail.com)

Dankie vir U deelname!

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INLIGTINGSBLAD

Projek titel: Intergenerasie oordrag van ouerskap

Wat is die studie oor?

Jy word uitgenooi om vrywillig deel te neem in hierdie navorsingsprojek, want ons wil graag die intergenerasie ouerskap faktore verstaan soos ervaar oor geslagte, deur middel van hul verhale. Die doel van hierdie navorsing is om die verhale en vraelys data van die ouerskap praktyke te dokumenteer asook teen die sosio-ekonomiese, politieke en godsdienstige historiese faktore in Genadendal.

Wat sal ek gevra word om te doen as ek saamstem om deel te neem?

Jy sal gevra word om deel te neem in 'n kwalitatiewe studie en word gevra vertellings van persoonlike ervarings tydens 'n onderhoud te deel. Semi-gestruktureerde vrae sal die onderhoud proses en vrae wat in Engels of Afrikaans struktureer. Die vrae sal ondersoek; ouerskap-praktyke, style en ouerskap faktore. Onderhoude sal in die huis geadministreer word op 'n tyd gerieflik vir U. Die onderhoud sal ongeveer neem tussen 1-2hours afhangende van die omvang van die verhale gedeel. Saam met 'n vraelys konsekwent van verskeie ouerskap skale sal geadministreer word.

Sou my deelname in hierdie studie vertroulik hanteer word?

Ons sal ons bes doen om U persoonlike inligting vertroulik te hou. Om U vertroulikheid te beskerm, sal die inligting wat U verskaf heeltemal privaat wees; geen name sal gebruik word, so daar is geen manier wat jy kan geïdentifiseer word as 'n deelnemer in die studie. Die inligting sal met vertroulikheid hanteer word. U naam sal nie vertoon op die transkribering of ontleding van die data. Die inligting wat verkry is van die opname sal vergelyk word met die inligting uit ander voltooide onderhoude. Daarom sal daar geen manier wees om U te verbind tot die studie.

Wat is die risiko's van die studie?

Daar is geen bekende risiko's in deelname aan die studie.

Wat is die voordele van hierdie navorsing?

Inligting oor ouerskap style, praktyke en faktore van ouers in Genadendal sal help om te identifiseer die groeiende krag van die gemeenskap, sowel as veranderinge wat plaasvind. Die navorsing sal lig en insig in die gemeenskap op die kontinuïteit en diskontinuïteite van ouerskap. Toe laat dat die verhale van ouerskap in Genadendal gedokumenteer word.

Beskryf die verwagte voordele vir die wetenskap of die samelewing verwag van die navorsing, indien enige?

Die navorsing sal bydra tot die breër inligting en begrip oor intergenerasie oordrag van ouerskap binne Genadendal. Dit sal bewustheid te verhoog van die invloed en veranderinge wat plaasvind. Daar word verwag dat die navorsing gedokumenteer sal dien om te ontwikkel, te verbeter en insig te gee in die gemeenskap in terme van die dokumentasie van die ouerskap faktore oorgedra en breë weer oor geslagte soos ervaar deur die ouers in die gemeenskap.

Moet ek in hierdie navorsing deelneem en kan ek ophou deelneem op enige tyd?

U deelname aan hierdie navorsing is heeltemal vrywillig. U kan kies om nie deel te neem aan die studie nie. As U besluit om deel te neem in die studie, en op enige tyd tydens die onderhoud proses van gedagte verander en besluit om 'n e die einde van die onderhoud sal U nie in enige manier gestraf word.

Enige hulp beskikbaar as ek negatief geraak deur die deelname aan hierdie studie?

Elke poging is geneem om U te beskerm teen enige skade in hierdie studie. As U egter beïnvloed voel kan U die naaste gemeenskap hulpbron vir hulp verwys word.

Wat as ek vrae het?

Indien U enige vrae oor die studie of wil enige probleme wat U ervaar het wat verband hou met hierdie studie aan te meld, kontak studie-koördineerder:

- Professor C. Schenck E-pos: cschenck@uwc.ac.za Telefoon: 021-959 2012
- Professor. N. Romeinse E-pos: nroman@uwc.ac.za

Dankie vir U deelname!

Bylae (C)

DEMOGRAFIESE INLIGTING

Voltooi asseblief die volgende deur die nasien van die korrekte antwoord.

Geslag	Manlik		Vroulik				
Ouderdom							
Hoogste opvoedingsvlak voltooi							
Naskoolse kwalifikasies voltooid							
Ras	Kleurling	Swart Afrikaner		Wit	Indiër / Asiër		Ander
Huis / moedertaal	Afrikaans		Engels	isiXhosa	Ander		
Wie is die hoof van jou huis?	Moeder	Vader	Grootouers	Oom/Tante	Broer/Sister		Kind
Wat is die struktuur van jou familie?	Gedtroud						
	Getroud, maar afgesonder						
	Leef saam maar nie getroud nie						
	Enkele, leef nie saam nir en is nie getroud is nie						
	Enkele omdat hy / sy is 'n weduwee						
	Enkele omdat hy / sy is geskei						
	Uitgebreide familie						
	Slegs broers en susters						
	Ander (dui asb):						
Is daar 'n biologiese pa teenwoordig in jou huis?					Ja		Nee
Is daar 'n stiefpa wat in jou huis bly?					Ja		Nee
Is daar 'n oupa wat in jou huis bly?					Ja		Nee
As daar 'n pa teenwoordig is, is hy:	Teenwoordig maar niks interaksie met die kinders	Hede en interaksie met die kinders		Afwesig maar interaksie met die kinders	Afwesig, geen interaksie met die kinders		
Wat is jou beroep?							
Omkring asseblief slegs die totale huishoudelike inkomste per maand	R0-R1000		1000-5000		6000-10000		
	11000- 15000		16000-20000		21000-25000		
	26000- 30000		31000-35000		35000+		
Is daar 'n volwassene met 'n gestremdheid wat in jou huis bly?					Ja		Nee
Is daar 'n kind met 'n gestremdheid wat in jou huis bly?					Ja		Nee

Dui asseblief die hoeveelheid van die persoon (e) teenwoordig in jou huis.	*Persoon*	*Nommer*
	Oupa	
	Ouma	
	Moeder	
	Vader	
	Oom	
	Tante	
	Kinders (0-5)	
	Kinders (6-12)	
	Tieners (13-17)	
	Jong volwassenes (older than 18)	

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Afdeling 1:

Ouerskap Style en Praktyke

Ouerskapstyle
    Maak 'n telling vir elke item op grond van hoe dikwels jy hierdie gedrag met jou kind toon.

Ek exposeren hierdie gedrag:
    1 = Nooit
    2 = Soms
    3 = Dikwels
    4 = Altyd

		NOOIT	SOMS	DIKWELS	ALTYD
1	Ek reageer op MY kind se gevoelens en behoeftes	1	2	3	4
2	Ek gebruik fisiese straf as 'n manier om my kind te dissiplineer	1	2	3	4
3	Ek haal my kind se begeertes in ag voordat ekdie kind vra om iets te doen	1	2	3	4
4	Wanneer my kind vra waarom hy / sy moet voldoen, stel ek: want ek het so gesê, of Ek is jou ouer en ek wil hê jy moet.	1	2	3	4
5	Ek verduidelik aan my kind hoe ons oor die kind se goeie en slegte gedrag voel	1	2	3	4

6	Ek tugtig/geepak wanneer my kind ongehoorsaam is.	1	2	3	4
7	Ek moedig my kind aan om te praat oor hom/haar probleme.	1	2	3	4
8	Ek vind dit moeilik om my kind te dissiplineer	1	2	3	4
9	Ek moedig my kind aan om uiting te gee en vrylik hul menings te deel, selfs wanneer ons as ouers nie saamstem met die mening nie.	1	2	3	4
10	Ek straf deur voorregte weg van my kind met min, indien enige verduidelikings.	1	2	3	4
11	Ek beklemtoon die redes vir reëls	1	2	3	4
12	Ek troos en begruip wanneer my kind ontsteld is	1	2	3	4
13	Ek gil of skreeu wanneer my kind hom/haar wangedra.	1	2	3	4
14	Ek dank] wanneer my kind goed is.	1	2	3	4
15	Ek gee in wanneer my kind 'n opskudding veroorsaak oor iets.	1	2	3	4
16	Ek ontplof in woede teenoor my kind	1	2	3	4
17	Ek dreig my kind met straf meer dikwels as eintlik gee dit.	1	2	3	4
18	Ek neem in ag my kind se voorkeure in die maak van planne vir die familie.	1	2	3	4
19	Ek gryp my kind wanneer hy/sy ongehoorsaam is.	1	2	3	4
20	Ek stel strawwe aan my kind wat ek nie eintlik doen nie.	1	2	3	4
21	Ek wys respek vir my kind se menings deur my kind aan te moedig om hulle uit te spreek.	1	2	3	4
22	Ek laat my kind insette in familie reëls gee.	1	2	3	4
23	Ek raas en kritiseer om my kind te verbeter.	1	2	3	4
24	Ek bederf my kind	1	2	3	4

448

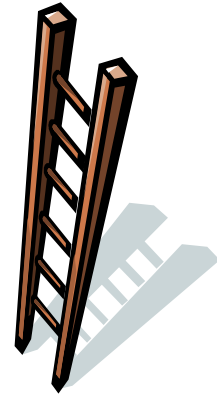| 25	Ek gee my kind redes waarom reëls moet gehoorsaam word.	1	2	3	4
26	Ek gebruik] bedreigings as straf met min of geen regverdiging.	1	2	3	
27	Ek het warm en intieme tye saam met my kind.	1	2	3	4
28	Ek straf deur 'my kind iewers alleen te neem/te los met min of indien enige verduidelikings.	1	2	3	4
29	Ek help my kind om die impak van gedrag te verstaan deur my kind aan te moedig om te praat oor die gevolge van hom / haar eie optrede	1	2	3	4
30	Ek raas of kritiseer wanneer my kind se gedrag nie aan ons verwagtinge voldoen nie.	1	2	3	4
31	Ek verduidelik die gevolge van my kind se gedrag.	1	2	3	4
32	Ek klap my kind wanneer ek probleme ondervind.	1	2	3	4

Section 2: Parental self-efficacy

The Parenting Ladder (Richards, 1998)

Parenting Ladder

INSTRUCTIONS: For the following questions, think about
parenting as a ladder that you climb from the lowest step to the highest step.
This ladder has 7 levels from 0 = Low to 6 = High. For each question,
circle the number that best describes where you see yourself on the ladder.

0	1	2	3	4	5	6
No knowledge		Moderate knowledge			Complete knowledge	

Circle a number rating between 0=low (no knowledge) and 6=high (complete knowledge) which best answers the questions posed.	low high
1. Your knowledge of how children grow and develop	0 1 2 3 4 5 6
2. Your confidence that you know what is right for your child	0 1 2 3 4 5 6
3. Your confidence in your ability to handle the day-to-day challenges of raising your child	0 1 2 3 4 5 6
4. Your ability to help your child learn	0 1 2 3 4 5 6
5. Your ability to cope with the stress in your life (self-care/stress management)	0 1 2 3 4 5 6
6. The amount of positive or helpful interactions you have with other parents	0 1 2 3 4 5 6
7. Your awareness of community information and resources for parents	0 1 2 3 4 5 6
8. The amount of helpful parenting information and support you get from others	0 1 2 3 4 5 6
9. The amount of communication and problem solving with your partner about issues related to your child (*leave blank if you do not have a partner*)	0 1 2 3 4 5 6
10. Your satisfaction with your experience as a parent	0 1 2 3 4 5 6
11. *Please answer only if your child is at least one year old:* Your confidence in using positive discipline (discipline as teaching and learning) with your child	0 1 2 3 4 5 6

This survey adapted by Metzler & Jones (2007), from Pratt, McGuigan, & Katzev
(2000) and Katzev (2000). Reprinted with Permission.

TOPSE : Self –Efficacy

The following section is about emotion and affection.
Using the scale below, please enter in the boxes how much you agree with each statement.
The scale ranges from 0 (completely disagree) to 10 (completely agree).
You may use any number between 0 and 10. Please answer all statements.

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
	Completely disagree				Moderately agree				Completely agree	

1. I am able to show affection towards my child. ☐
2. I can recognise when my child is happy or sad. ☐
3. I am confident my child can come to me if they're unhappy. ☐
4. When my child is sad I understand why. ☐
5. I have a good relationship with my child. ☐
6. I find it hard to cuddle my child. ☐

The following section is about play and enjoyment.
Using the scale below, please enter in the boxes how much you agree with each statement.
The scale ranges from 0 (completely disagree) to 10 (completely agree).
You may use any number between 0 and 10. Please answer all statements.

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
	Completely disagree				Moderately agree				Completely agree	

1. I am able to have fun with my child. ☐
2. I am able to enjoy each stage of my child's development. ☐
3. I am able to have nice days with my child. ☐
4. I can plan activities that my child will enjoy. ☐
5. Playing with my child comes easily to me. ☐
6. I am able to help my child reach their full potential. ☐

The following section is about empathy and understanding.
Using the scale below, please enter in the boxes how much you agree with each statement.
The scale ranges from 0 (completely disagree) to 10 (completely agree).
You may use any number between 0 and 10. Please answer all statements.

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Completely disagree				Moderately agree				Completely agree		

1. I am able to explain things patiently to my child. ☐
2. I can get my child to listen to me. ☐
3. I am able to comfort my child. ☐
4. I am able to listen to my child. ☐
5. I am able to put myself in my child's shoes. ☐
6. I understand my child's needs. ☐

The following section is about control.
Using the scale below, please enter in the boxes how much you agree with each statement.
The scale ranges from 0 (completely disagree) to 10 (completely agree).
You may use any number between 0 and 10. Please answer all statements.

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Completely disagree					Moderately agree				Completely agree	

1.   As a parent I feel I am in control.

2.   My child will respond to the boundaries I put in place.

3.   I can get my child to behave well without a battle.

4.   I can remain calm when facing difficulties.

5.   I can't stop my child behaving badly.

6.   I am able to stay calm when my child is behaving badly.

The following section is about discipline and setting boundaries.
Using the scale below, please enter in the boxes how much you agree with each statement.
The scale ranges from 0 (completely disagree) to 10 (completely agree).
You may use any number between 0 and 10. Please answer all statements.

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Completely disagree					Moderately agree				Completely agree	

1.   Setting limits and boundaries is easy for me.

2.   I am able to stick to the rules I set for my child.

3.   I am able to reason with my child.

4.   I can find ways to avoid conflict.

5.   I am consistent in the way I use discipline.

6.   I am able to discipline my child without feeling guilty.

The following section is about pressures.
Using the scale below, please enter in the boxes how much you agree with each statement.
The scale ranges from 0 (completely disagree) to 10 (completely agree).
You may use any number between 0 and 10. Please answer all statements.

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Completely disagree					Moderately agree				Completely agree	

1.   It is difficult to cope with other people's expectations of me as a parent.

2.   I am not able to assert myself when other people tell me what to do with my child.

3.   Listening to other people's advice makes it hard for me to decide what to do.

4.   I can say 'no' to other people if I don't agree with them.

5.   I can ignore pressure from other people to do things their way.

6.   I do not feel a need to compare myself to other parents.

The following section is about self-acceptance.
Using the scale below, please enter in the boxes how much you agree with each statement.
The scale ranges from 0 (completely disagree) to 10 (completely agree).
You may use any number between 0 and 10. Please answer all statements.

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Completely disagree					Moderately agree			Completely agree		

1. I know I am a good enough parent.
2. I manage the pressures of parenting as well as other parents do.
3. I am not doing that well as a parent.
4. As a parent I can take most things in my stride.
5. I can be strong for my child.
6. My child feels safe around me.

The following section is about learning and knowledge.
Using the scale below, please enter in the boxes how much you agree with each statement.
The scale ranges from 0 (completely disagree) to 10 (completely agree).
You may use any number between 0 and 10. Please answer all statements.

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Completely disagree					Moderately agree			Completely agree		

1. I am able to recognise developmental changes in my child.
2. I can share ideas with other parents.
3. I am able to learn and use new ways of dealing with my child.
4. I am able to make the changes needed to improve my child's behaviour.
5. I can overcome most problems with a bit of advice.
6. Knowing that other people have similar difficulties with their children makes it easier for me.

Note: Adapted from the TOPSE Questionnaire.

PARENTS AS SOCIAL CONTEXT QUESTIONNAIRE
(PARENT-REPORT)

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Completely disagree					Moderately agree			Completely agree		

Rejection

R1. I don't understand my child very well.

R2. Sometimes my child is hard to like.

R3. At times, the demands that my child makes feel like a burden.

R4. My child needs more than I have time to give him/her.

R5. Sometimes I feel like I can't be there for my child when he/she needs me.

Structure

S1. I make it clear what will happen if my child does not follow our rules.

S2. I make it clear to my child what I expect from him/her.

S3. When I punish my child, I always explain why.

S4. When I tell my child I'll do something, I do it.

S5. If my child has a problem, I help him/her figure out what to do about it.

S6. I expect my child to follow our family rules.

Chaos

CH1. I let my child get away with things I really shouldn't allow.

CH2 .When my child gets in trouble, my reaction is not very predictable.

CH3. My child doesn't seem to know what I expect from him/her.

CH4. I change the rules a lot at home.

CH5. I can get mad at my child with no warning.

Note. Adapted from an earlier version of Parents as Social Context Questionnaire (Skinner, Regan,&Wellborn, 1986). Responses ranged from1 (not at all true) to 4 (very true). *Indicates that these items were dropped from the final version. Unnumbered items were added to subsequent versions to increase reliability.

Parent-Child Communication Questionnaire

*Please complete question 1 in the spaces provided. _____

*Please complete question 2 onwards by circling the most applicable answer.

As follows:

If a question occurred always or most of the time, check **VERY OFTEN.**

If it happened sometimes, check **SOMETIMES.**

If a question occurred rarely, check **RARELY.**

If you feel a question never occurred, check **NEVER.**

SOMETIMES

Example:

VERY OFTEN	SOMETIMES	RARELY	NEVER

QUESTIONS:

1. How many children do you have? _____

1. a. How many male children are you a parent of? _____

1. b. How many female children are you a parent of? _____

1. c. How old are your children? _____

2. How often would you confide in your child(ren) about events going on in your life?	VERY OFTEN	SOMETIMES	RARELY	NEVER
3. How often would you tell your child(ren)when you were having problems with friends or colleagues?	VERY OFTEN	SOMETIMES	RARELY	NEVER
4. How often would you and your partner tell your child(ren) when you were fighting or having problems?	VERY OFTEN	SOMETIMES	RARELY	NEVER
5. How often would you and your partner tell your child(ren) when you were fighting or having problems?	VERY OFTEN	SOMETIMES	RARELY	NEVER
6. How often would you share past schooling experiences with your child(ren)?	VERY OFTEN	SOMETIMES	RARELY	NEVER
7. How often would you share past relationship experiences (friends, family, boyfriend/girlfriend) with your child(ren)?	VERY OFTEN	SOMETIMES	RARELY	NEVER

8. How often would you feel comfortable sharing personal information about yourself with your child (ren)?	VERY OFTEN	SOMETIMES	RARELY	NEVER
9. How often would you encourage your child(ren) to share information about what he or she did in their free time?	VERY OFTEN	SOMETIMES	RARELY	NEVER
10. How often would you tell your child(ren) when you felt hurt by his or her actions in relevant situations (e.g. if child has said something hurtful)?	VERY OFTEN	SOMETIMES	RARELY	NEVER
11. How often would you express to your child(ren) when you were proud of something he or she had done?	VERY OFTEN	SOMETIMES	RARELY	NEVER
12. How often would you tell your child(ren) that he or she could confide in you at any time, no matter the situation?	VERY OFTEN	SOMETIMES	RARELY	NEVER
13. How often did you feel your child(ren) viewed you as a trustworthy confidante?	VERY OFTEN	SOMETIMES	RARELY	NEVER
14. How often did you feel you could/would accept whatever decision your child(ren) made in the future as they grew up?	VERY OFTEN	SOMETIMES	RARELY	NEVER

Rosenberg Self Esteem Scale

Instructions: For each of the following statements, circle the number of the 5-point scale (1 = strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree) that best describes how that statement applies to you and your parent /guardian.

1 = Strongly disagree 2 = Disagree 3 = Neither agree nor disagree 4 = Agree 5 = Strongly Agree

1.	While I was growing up my parent/ guardian felt that in a well-run home the children should have their way in the family as often as the parents do.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	Even if her children didn't agree with her, my parent/guardian felt that it was for our own good if we were forced to conform to what they thought was right.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	Whenever my parent/guardian told me to do something as I was growing up, they expected me to do it immediately without asking any questions.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	As I was growing up, once family policy had been established, my parent/guardian discussed the reasoning behind the policy with the children in the family.	1	2	3	4	5
5.	My parent/guardian has always encouraged verbal give-and-take whenever I have felt that family rules and restrictions were unreasonable.	1	2	3	4	5
6.	My parent/guardian has always felt that what children need is to be free to make up their own minds and to do what they want to do, even if this does not agree with what their parents might want.	1	2	3	4	5
7.	As I was growing up my parent/guardian did not allow me to question any decision they had made.	1	2	3	4	5

8.	As I was growing up my parent/guardian directed the activities and decisions of the children in the family through reasoning and discipline.	1	2	3	4	5
9.	My parent/guardian has always felt that more force should be used by parents in order to get their children to behave the way they are supposed to.	1	2	3	4	5
10.	As I was growing up my parent/guardian did *not* feel that I needed to obey rules and regulations of behaviour simply because someone in authority had established them.	1	2	3	4	5
11.	As I was growing up I knew what my parent/guardian expected of me in my family, but I also felt free to discuss those expectations with my parent/guardian when I felt that they were unreasonable.	1	2	3	4	5
12.	My parent/guardian felt that wise parents should teach their children early just who is boss in the family.	1	2	3	4	5
13.	As I was growing up, my parent/guardian seldom gave me expectations and guidelines for my behaviour.	1	2	3	4	5
14.	Most of the time as I was growing up my parent/guardian did what the children in the family wanted when making family decisions.	1	2	3	4	5
15.	As the children in my family were growing up, my parent/guardian consistently gave us direction and guidance in rational and objective ways.	1	2	3	4	5
16.	As I was growing up my parent/guardian would get very upset if I tried to disagree with them.	1	2	3	4	5
17.	My parent/guardian feels that most problems in society would be solved if parents would *not* restrict their children's activities, decisions, and desires as they are growing up.	1	2	3	4	5
18.	As I was growing up my parent/guardian let me know what behaviour they expected of me, and if I didn't meet those expectations, they punished me.	1	2	3	4	5
19.	As I was growing up my parent/guardian allowed me to decide most things for myself without a lot of direction from them.	1	2	3	4	5
20.	As I was growing up my parent/guardian took the children's opinions into consideration when making family decisions, but they would not decide for something simply because the children wanted it.	1	2	3	4	5
21.	My parent/guardian did not view themselves as responsible for directing and guiding my behaviour as I was growing up.	1	2	3	4	5
22.	My parent/guardian had clear standards of behaviour for the children in our home as I was growing up, but was willing to adjust those standards to the needs of each of the individual children in the family.	1	2	3	4	5
23.	My parent/guardian gave me direction for my behaviour and activities as I was growing up and expected me to follow their direction, but was always willing to listen to my concerns and to discuss that direction with me.	1	2	3	4	5
24.	My ouer / voog het altyd gevoel dat die meeste probleme in die samelewing sal opgelos word as ons ouers kon krye om streng en geweldig opdringerig optetree met hul kinders wanneer hulle nie doen wat hulle veronderstel is om te doen terwyl hulle grootword.	1	2	3	4	5
25.	My parent/guardian has always felt that most problems in society would be solved if we could get parents, to strictly and forcibly deal with their children when they don't do what they are supposed to as they are growing up.	1	2	3	4	5

26.	Soos ek grootgeword het my ouer / voog dikwels vir my gesê presies wat hulle wil hê ek moet doen en hoe hulle my verwag om dit te doen.	1	2	3	4	5
27.	Soos ek grootgeword het, het my ouer / voog my duidelike rigting vir my gedrag en aktiwiteite gegee, maar ook verstaan as ek nie saamgestem het daarrmee nie.	1	2	3	4	5
28.	Soos ek grootgeword het my ouer / voog nie die gedrag, aktiwiteite en begeertes van die kinders in die gesin gelei nie.	1	2	3	4	5
29.	Soos ek grootgeword het ek geweet wat my ouer / voog verwag van my in die gesin en hulle het daarop aangedring dat ek voldoen aan die verwagtinge eenvoudig uit respek vir hul gesag.	1	2	3	4	5
30.	Soos ek grootgeword het, as my ouer / voog 'n besluit geneem het in die familie wat my seergemaak het, was hulle bereid om daardie besluit met my te bespreek en om dit te erken as hul 'n fout gemaak het.	1	2	3	4	5
31.	Op die geheel, is ek tevrede met myself.	1	2	3	4	5
32.	Som tye, dink ek dat ek nie goed genoeg is nie.	1	2	3	4	5
33.	Ek voel dat ek 'n aantal goeie eienskappe bewat.	1	2	3	4	5
34.	Ek kan dinge sowel as wat die meeste ander mense doen.	1	2	3	4	5
35.	Ek voel dat ek nie baie het om op trots op te wees nie.	1	2	3	4	5
36.	Ek het beslis voel nutteloos by tye.	1	2	3	4	5
37.	Ek voel beslis nutteloos op tye.	1	2	3	4	5
38.	Ek voel dat ek 'n persoon van waarde is, ten minste op 'n gelyke vlak met ander. Ek wens ek kon meer respek vir myself het .	1	2	3	4	5
39.	All in all, is ek geneig om te voel dat ek 'n mislukking.	1	2	3	4	5
40.	Ek neem 'n positiewe houding teenoor myself.	1	2	3	4	5

Source: Rosenberg, **M. (1965).** Society and the adolescent self-image. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press

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WESTERN CAPE
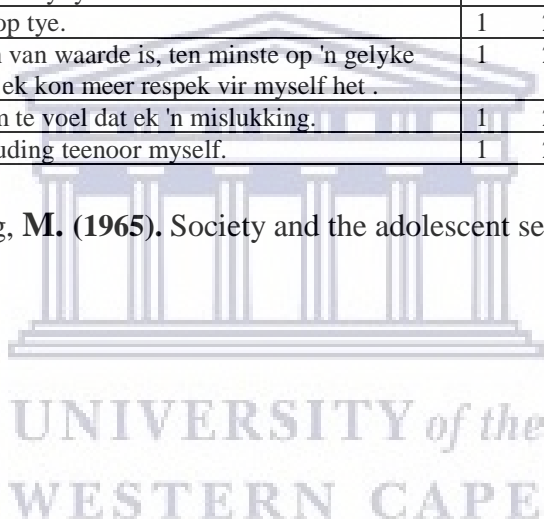
VRAE OOR JOU VERHOUDING MET HOU KIND AS OUER

Omkring die toepaslike getal

As 'n ouer is ek....

Sielkundige beheer Ouer: Verklaring	Nie soos hom / haar nie	Soms of 'n bietjie soos hom / haar	Baie soos hom / haar
'n persoon wat altyd probeer om te verander hoe my kind voel of dink oor dinge	1	2	3
'n persoon wat die onderwerp verander wanneer my kind iets het om te sê	1	2	3
'n persoon wat dikwels my kind onderbreek	1	2	3
'n persoon wat my kind blameer vir ander familielede se probleme	1	2	3
'n persoon wat foute van die verlede opbring wanneer ek my kind kritiseer	1	2	3
'n persoon wat minder vriendelik met my kind optree, as hy/sy dinge nie op my manier sien nie.	1	2	3
'n persoon wat my kind sal vermy as hy / sy my teleurgestel.	1	2	3
'n persoon wat as my kind my gevoelens seergemaak het, ophou met hom / haar te praat, totdat ek met hom / haar weer tevrede voel	1	2	3

(This sections includes participants verbatim quotes in Afrikaans and translated to English in respect of Chapters 5, 6 and 7 of the study.)

CHAPTER 5

"Somtyds is dit nie maklik nie, maar soms ja." ("Sometimes it's not easy, but sometimes yes.") **(Family A, Participant G2)**

"Dis baie swaar om 'n ouer te wees. Want ek het maar baie swaar met my kinders gekry, want hulle was baie opmekaar en hulle was 11 stuks bymekaar gewees. So hulle is nou omtrent so 2 jaar uit mekaar uit en die man het maar op die plaas gewerk in daai tyd wat die geld maar baie min gewees." ("It's very difficult to be a parent. Because I just had it very difficult with my children, because they were so close after each other and they were 11 siblings altogether. So, they were about 2 years apart, and the husband worked on the farm and in those days the money was very little.") **(Family B, participant G1)**

"Jy moet baie verantwoordelik wees." ("You must be very responsible.") **(Family A, participant G2)**

"You must of course have a lot of patience" **(Family B, participant G1)**

"Jy moenie te sag wees vir die kinders ook nie." ("Do not be too soft for the children either.") **(Family B, participant G1)**

"Ja, jy moet sterk wees en jy moet nooit moed verloor nie." ("Yes, you must be strong and never lose courage.") **(Family A, participant G2)**

"Sy is baie opreg en sy maak nie onderskeid of sy maak nie – sy trek vir almal deur een - daar is nie van ek favour die een of ek favour daai een nie." ("She's very genuine, and she makes no distinction, or she does not –- she pulls everyone through one –- it's not like I favour this one or I favour that one.") **(Family B, participant G3)**

"Jy kan gewoonlik kan'n mens nie 'n kind leer hoe jy is nie. 'n Kind aard somtyds na die ma – mammie se familie of na die daddy se familie. Die eienskappe en dit. Nou, 'n mens se kinders is nie almal dieselfde nie." ("You usually can't teach a child in your ways. A child sometimes will have the same nature of it's mother –- mum 's family or to the daddy' s family. The characteristics and that. Now, one's children are not all the same.") **(Family C, participant G2)**

"Kyk ons het so baie enkel ouers. Die trou nie. Daar het ons al klaar alles gemis – uitgemis" ("Look, we have so many single parents. They do not marry. We have already missed everything –- missed out.") **(Family C, participant G1)**

"So wat vir my belangrik is, is daai pa-figuur wat staan soos 'n paal bo water." ("So what matters to me is that dad figure that stands like a pole above water.") **(Family C, participant G2)**

"Want kyk my kind was 'n goeie leerder gewees nê en net toe ons opbreek, toe sak sy prestasie in die skool – die juffrou was concern – sy het my gebel, 'n brief gestuur ek moet skool toe kom – onmiddellik, wat is fout met die kind. Wat het in die kind se lewe gebeur dat sy punte so gou gedaal het. Toe verduidelik ek vir haar die storie – die pa is nie meer in hulle lewe nie, want hulle was baie gek oor hulle pa. Hulle is seker nou nog – ek weet nie. Hulle noem hom pappa, wanneer kom pappa en so. Toe het ek besef, maar hy ander meisie gevat, ander kind gemaak aan daai kant en hier is ek mos nou alleen die kant en so ek moet nou alkante volstaan." ("See, my son was a good student and after we had split up, his performance in the school dropped - the teacher was a concern –- she called me, sent a letter that I had to come to school –- immediately, what's wrong with the child? What happened in the child's life that his marks fell so drastically? Then I explained to her the story –- the father was no longer in their lives and because they were very crazy about their dad. They are probably still –- I do not know. They call him Daddy, and when will Daddy come home and such. Then I realised, but he already took another girl, made another child on that side, and here I am alone now, and so I have to start playing both roles.") **(Family B, participant G3)**

"Met my ma, sy was die enigste wat ek hartseer gevoel het – hoekom sê ek dit? Sy was mos met iemand anders getroud – nie met my pa nie." (""With my mother, she was the only one there for me when I felt sad –- why am I saying that? She was married to someone else – -not with my father.") **(Family C, participant G1)**

"Die ding is ouerskap is 'n plig as jy besluite gemaak het om kinders in die lewe te bring. Daar is mos 2 partye, 'n ma en 'n pa." ("The thing is, parenting is a duty when you have made the decision to bring children into life. There are two parties, a mother and a father.") **(Family C, participant G2)**

"Soos ons kry mos baie enkelouers deesdae wat die kinders…" ("As us, we get many single parents these days where the children…" **(Family C, participant G2)**

"Hulle was weg van die huis af – my ma het in Grabouw skool gehou, toe gaan ons nog skool. Toe het my ouma vir ons grootgemaak. Dan kom mamma net naweke huis toe. En naweke as sy gekom het, dan het sy haar plek vol gestaan. Dit was nie daai missing ma wat nooit daar is nie." ("They were away from home - my mother was a teacher in Grabouw, we were still on school. Then my grandmother raised us. Then mom would come home on weekends. And on those weekends when she came, she fulfilled her role. It was not that missing mother who's never there.") **(Family C, participant G2)**

"Vanaand ek sorg vir die kossies en eet en bad – gaan slaap en more oggend dan moet hulle weer reg wees vir die skool." ("Tonight, I will take care of the food and eats and bath –- off to sleep and tomorrow morning they have to be back to school.") **(Family A, participant G1)**

"Kinders moet gebad word, hulle moet bed toe gaan en het maar altyd vir hulle skoon gehou." ("Children had to be bathed, they had to go to bed and had to always kept them clean.") **(Family B, participant G1)**

"Maar hulle was altyd skoon gekleed, alles – in die kerk gewees." ("But they were always dressed clean, everything and in the church.") **(Family B, participant G1)**

"Hy (father) sal uit sy pad ook gaan as hy nou hoor dat sy kind is so... (referring to being ill). Hy het gewerk in Hermanus en as hy nie Vrydag... hy bel van Hermanus as hy nie die naweek kan huis toe kom nie, dan wil hy onmiddelik huis toe kom as ek siek is." ("He

(father) will go out of his way if he now hears that his child is so ... (referring to being ill). He worked in Hermanus and if he is not Friday ... he would call from Hermanus if he cannot come home the weekend, then he would want to come home immediately if I'm sick.") **(Family A, participant G3)**

"Well, parenting I understand the term as loving a child and taking care of the child or the children, providing the needs of the child and so forth." **(Family C, participant G3)**

"When I'm sick, because I often get sick and then, when I get sick at school it is just so nice when I get sick at school an obviously the school phones my mom because we are not allowed to be when we're sick and then my mom shall come out of Greyton – she just leaves everything there then she comes and gets me and take care of me at home and then she will go back to school." **(Family C, participant G3)**

Or when I have a problem with the teachers, or something at school… my dad, he would phone the principle." **(Family C, participant G3)**

"Huiswerk. My kinders is so as hulle reg uit die skool uitgekom het, dan weet hulle, as hulle klaar geeet het, dan moet hulle huiswerk doen en dan daarna mos hulle aftyd – dan kan hulle speel." ("Homework. My children are so if they came straight out of school, then they know that when they have finished eaten, they have to do homework and then they have time off – then they can play.") **(Family A, participant G2)**

".... daar is ook nie van.... 10'clock is die laatste op 'n Vrydag-aand, Saterdag-aand en Sondag-aand en deur die week is dit as jy klaar jou skottelgoed opgewas het en geëet het gaan rus 'n bietjie en dan moet jy study ("…. there is also not of .... 10 o'clock is the latest on a Friday evening, Saturday evening and Sunday evening and during the week it is when you are finished with washing the dishes and have eaten, go rest a bit and then you have to study.") **(Family B, participant G3)**

"Jy kan jou kinders leer soos jy hulle wil hê." ("You can teach your children the way you want them to be.") **(Family A, participant G1)**

"Jy moet jou kind reg leer." ("You have to teach your child the right ways.") **(Family A, participant G1)**

"Ek het vir hulle geleer – behalwe die skoolwerk." ("I taught them –- except the schoolwork.") **(Family A, participant G1)**

"Is wanneer hoe jy, as jy 'n ouer is hoe jy jou kinders grootmaak en dinge afdwing op hulle en hoe om deur die lewe te gaan." ("When you as a parent know how to raise your children and enforce things on them and how to go through life.") **(Family B, participant G2)**

"So, jy is nou 'n moeder, so jy moet daai kind groot maak volgens jou hand." ("So, you are now a mother, so you should raise that child at your hand.") **(Family B, participant G3)**

"Ons vertel vir hulle maar wat belangrik is ons moet die voorbeeld toon. As 'n mens sou sê jy is 'n kerklike persoon, dan moet jy voorbeelde toon." ("We tell them but what is important is we should set the example. If one would say you are a church person, then you have to ;ive by it.") **(Family C, participant G1)**

"Maar nou sien ek – dit het baie te doen ons volwassenes hoe hulle voor die kind beweeg en wat hulle praat en die kind wil dit ook. ("But now I see - it has a lot to do our adults how they move in front of the child and what they are saying, and the child does the same.") **(Family C, participant G1)**

"My pa het elke dag gewerk en my ma het daai tyd gewerk." ("My dad worked every day, and my mom worked that time as well.") **(Family A, participant G2)**

"Seker die manier hoe hulle (grandparents) haar (mother) groot gemaak het of so, want sy staan vir niks verkeerd nie. Sy is in staat om enige iets te doen haarself." ("Certainly, the way they (grandparents) reared her (mother) or so, because she's willing to do anything. She is able to do anything herself.") **(Family A, participant G3)**

"Ja, jy – ons loop nie met 'n probleem op onse gesig nie (do not let private life influence work performance)" ("Yes, you - we do not walk with a problem on our face (do not let private life influence work performance") **(Family C, participant G1)**

"My pa. Hy doen baie netjiese werk – ek wil graag sy ambag ja. Hy is 'n bouer en 'n carpenter, maar soos as ek nou ... hy sal nie vir my vat om 'n werk te doen nie of so nie. Ek dink as dit by werk kom kan ons nie op een site saam werk nie." ("My dad. He takes pride in his work - I would like be in his trade of work. He is a builder and a carpenter, but like me now ... he will not take me to do a job or not. I think when it comes to work, we cannot work on one site") **(Family A, participant G3)**

"Die kind kyk op na jou toe – jy moet 'n voorbeeld vir hulle wees. Dit het vir my 'n bietjie rustiger en sag gemaak op 'n manier van jy moet nou vir jou soos 'n groot vrou gedra, want jy is nou een – jy is 'n ma van 2 kinders." ("The child looks up at you - you have to be an example for them. It made me a bit calmer and soft in a way you should behave like a grownup woman now, because you are one now - you are a mother of 2 children.") **(Family B, participant G3)**

"Almal maak foute, so 'n ouer kan ook fouteer. Niemand is perfek nie, maar jy sal moet opmaak vir as jy berou het. Daar is hoe ek dit sien." ("Everyone makes mistakes, so a parent can also make mistakes. Nobody is perfect, but you will have to make up for what you repent of. This is how I see it.") **(Family B, participant G3)**

"Ek het om verskoning van die kind gevra en vir die hele klas (participant is teacher). Toe sê ek ekskuus dit het uitgekom, ek is nie 'n engeltjie nie." ("I apologised to the child and to the whole class (participant is teacher). I then said I'm sorry, it came out, I'm not an angel.") **(Family C, participant G1)**

"En aan die einde van die dag moet 'n mens die plig wat jy het om daai kinders op te voed, met goeie waardes en normes." ("And at the end of the day one has the duty to educate those children with good values and norms.") **(Family C, participant G2)**

"Moenie loop met 'n lang mond – of jy die auntie ken en of jy haar nie ken nie... Baie van die ou mense kan nie mooi hoor nie, en dan gee hy nie antwoord nie, maar jy hou aan." ("Do not walk with a long mouth - whether you know the auntie, or you don't... Many of the old people cannot hear well, and then he does not answer, but you continue.") **(Family A, participant G1)**

"Ja wees eerlik met jou maatjies en moenie katterig wees nie." ("Yes, be honest with your buddies and do not be rude") **(Family B, participant G3)**

"Dissipline en respek vir grootmense en vir kinders en vir ou mense. As jy mense langs die pad kry, help die auntie of die oom. Altyd daar wees vir jou medemens." ("Discipline and respect for adults and for children and for old people. If you get people along the way, help the auntie or uncle. Always be there for your fellow human beings.") **(Family A, participant G2)**

"Hulle sal vir jou sê nee jy kan nie daar dit so doen nie en jy moet respek hê vir ander mense en so praat en so vir ander mense wat verbykom en so-aan." ("They'll tell you no, you cannot do that way, and you have to respect others and say things and speaking to other people who are passing by and so on.") **(Family B, participant G3)**

"Los ander mense se goed of vra. Of as jy daar gestaan het en jy sien daar is iets in die auntie se blomtuin, vra vir die auntie. Soms speel hulle dan val die bal in die mense se tuine, gaan vra." ("Leave other people's property or ask. Or if you stood there and you see something in the auntie flower garden, ask the auntie. Sometimes they play and the ball falls into the people's gardens, ask.") **(Family A, participant G1)**

"Hou julle hande weg van ander mense se goed. Onthou dis nie joune nie. Moenie ander mense se goed vat nie – hulle noem dit steel. En jy word groot – as jy klein is en jy word nie getug nie en jy word groot dan steel jy." ("Keep your hands away from other people's things. Remember that's not yours. Do not take another person's stuff - they call it stealing. And you're growing up - if you're young and you're not being punished then when you older, then you steal.") **(Family A, participant G1)**

"Ek meen nou hy moet ook nie steel van ander mense wat nie joune is nie – vra liewer vir iemand. Of as jy sien daar is perskes aan 'n boom, gaan vra vir daai auntie, kan ek 'n paar perskes pluk asseblief auntie of so." ("I mean he should not steal from other people that is are not yours - rather ask someone. Or if you see there are peaches on a tree, go ask for that aunt, may I pick some peaches please auntie or so.") **(Family B, participant G3)**

"My ouers het, omdat hulle so goed geanker was man in die geloof en godsdiens en so het hulle vir ons regtigwaar op die pad gehou, as 'n mens dit so kan sê." ("My parents, because they were so well anchored, in faith and religion, and so they really kept us on the right path, if one could say so.") **(Family C, participant G2)**

"Jy sorg dat jy by die Sondagskool kom." ("You had to make sure that you get to Sunday School.") **(Family A, participant G1)**

"Ja, ons moes elke Sondag in die kerk wees en ons moes onse aanneem kerk moet ons by gebly het. Ons moet mos aangeneem geword het as 'n lidmaat van die kerk en ons moes al daai dinge bygebring het. Daar is nie van nee ek wil nie gaan nie, of ek gaan nie of so nie." ("Yes, we had to be in church every Sunday, and we had our church confirmation, we have stay at. We had to be confirmed as a member of the church and we should have brought together all those things. There were no such things as no, I do not want to go, or I'm not going or not.") **(Family B, participant G1)**

"Want godsdiens is mos belangrik. By die skool leer jy dit – by die huis moet jy dit ook leer." ("Because religion is important. At school it was taught – as well as at home.") **(Family B, participant G3)**

"Jy moet kerk toe gaan, jy moet Sondagskool toe gaan." ("You have to go to church, you have to go to Sunday school.") **(Family C, participant G1)**

"Saans was dit my beurt om die Bybel daar reg te sit op die tafel en dan gesels ons nou. Lees die Bybel en praat nou met my oupa en ouma. En ek het dit nou oorgedra na my kinders toe." ("At night it was my turn to place the Bible right there on the table and then we start to talk. Read the Bible and talk to my grandfather and grandmother. And I passed this on to my children as well.") **(Family C, participant G1)**

"Ek het Sondagskool gehou hier in die huis. Ons het 'n klein kerkie gehad." ("I taught Sunday school here in the house. We had a small church.") **(Family C, participant G1)**

"When I was younger, ok we have to go to church, but now that I'm older I don't really have to go. My mom has drilled it into me, so now ok I go to church and evening its church again and I know really like a pattern, I'm in a pattern already.") **(Family C, participant G3)**

"Ja ek leer my kinders hulle moet eerlik wees." ("Yes, I teach my children, they must be honest.") **(Family B, participant G3)**

"Ek het geleer by my ouma en oupa eerlikheid tel baie. Praat die waarheid." ("I learned from my grandmother and grandfather that honesty counted a lot. Speak the truth.") **(Family C, participant G1)**

"Jy moet eerlik wees met jou kinders." ("You must be honest with your children.") **(Family C, participant G2)**

"Ons het geleer die waarheid maak vir jou vry en wees openlik met jou kinders." ("We were taught, the truth sets you free and be open with your children.") **(Family C, participant G2)**

"Hy het my altyd – ek sal ook nie weet nie, maar hy het my altyd laat verstaan as hy weg is soos in die week, is ek die man in die huis." ("He always - I will not know either, but he always made me understand that when he left home in the week, I am the man in the house.") **(Family A, participant G3)**

"Ek moes my ma en my suster beskerm al gebeur wat ook en so." ("I had to protect my mother and my sister, no matter what, and so.") **(Family A, participant G3)**

"Ons moes hout gaan dra het, ons moes water gaan dra het, ons het bolle gaan haal om te verkoop, akkers opgetel om te verkoop, want my pa het gewerk – hy het nie baie geld verdien en so nie." ("We had to collect wood, we had to collect water, we had to pick up balls to sell, gather up acorns to sell because my father worked - he did not earn much money.") **(Family B, participant G2)**

"...en wat kan ek nog sê en pligsgetrouheid." ("... and what else can I say, and dutifulness.") **(Family B, participant G2)**

"Maar ek was eintlik die een wat my ma baie op gedinges het. My ander susters hulle kan gaan speel in die middae, maar ek moet hier by haar bly as sy vir my nodig het om te stuur of so. So ek het nie eintlik nog baie gespeel met ander kinders en so nie." ("But I was actually the one that took care of my mother. My other sisters went to play in the afternoons, but I had to stay with her if she needed me to go do something for her. So, I did not really play much with other children.") **(Family B, participant G2)**

"Ja want ek moet altyd kyk dat alles reg is – ek is die oudste. Soos as hulle van die skool af kom en my ma werk – ek moet vir hulle broodjie maak en sorg dat die huis skoon is. Ek moet die wasgoed was en hulle moet aangaan met hulle skoolwerk." ("Yes, because I had to make sure everything is always right - I am the oldest. When they came from school and my mother worked - I had to prepare a sandwich and make sure the house is clean. I had to wash the laundry, and they had to go on with their schoolwork.") **(Family B, participant G3)**

"Volharding en suffer as jy nie geldelik dinges is nie en as jy nie bevoorreg is nie en jy sukkel 'n bietjie – druk maar deur met dit wat jy het en so." ("Perseverance and suffering if you're financially strapped and if you're not privileged and you're struggling a bit –- push through with what you have and so.") **(Family B, participant G2)**

"Jy moet altyd jou kinders beskerm." (""You must always protect your children.") **(Family A, participant G2)**

"Jy kan nie sommer net gaan speel het soos ek wil. Ek moet – ek kan net so ver gaan so ver soos sy vir my kan sien." ("You cannot just go play as you want. I had to - I could only go so far, as far as she could see me.") **(Family A, participant G3)**

"Maar altyd net ek wil hulle net altyd onder my oë gehad het. Hulle kan nie geloop het soos hulle wil of na maatjies toe gaan wat hulle wil gaan nie. Ek het hulle maar so onder my oë gehou, maar ek was 'n bietjie streng met hulle gewees. Maar hulle het darem hulle vrye tyd ook tussenin gekry nê." ("But always only, I just wanted to have them under my eyes. They could not go as they pleased or go to buddies what they want to go. I kept them under my eyes, but I was a little strict with them. But they did get their free time in between.") **(Family B, participant G1)**

"Ja en slapenstyd moet hulle by die huis wees. Ek het nooit daarvan gehou my kinders moet uitslaap by ander mense nie." ("Yes, and bedtime they should be at home. I never liked it when my children had to sleep out by other people.") **(Family B, participant G2)**

"En dan my ma het oral saam met ons gegaan – oral waar ons gegaan het, het sy saam met ons gegaan." ("And then my mother went everywhere with us - wherever we went she went with us.") **(Family B. participant G2)**

"Ek beskerm my kinders om vir hulle by my te hou." ("I protect my children by keeping them with me.") **(Family B, participant G3)**

"Mens moet altyd vir mens se kinders ondersteun. Hier is nie werk in Genael nie. Baie kinders verloor moed. Daarom is die ouer daar om die kind te ondersteun." ("One must always support one's children. Here is no work in Genaal. Many children lose courage. That is why the parent is there to support the child.") **(Family A, participant G2)**

"n Ouer moet kan opstaan vir haar kind. Haar kind verdedig in enige iets, al is die kind verkeerd om baie redes nê maar daar is tye wat die kind reg is." ("A parent must be able to stand up for her child. Her child defends in anything, even though the child is wrong for many reasons, but there are times that the child is right.") **(Family B, participant G3)**

"Jy moet hom kan bystaan, ondersteun met wat hy of sy wil doen en al die liefde en alles gee." ("You must support him, support in all what he or she wants to do and give all the love and everything.") **(Family B, participant G3)**

"Vir my beteken ouerskap dis amper soos 'n persoon wat moet leiding gee." ("To me, parenting means it's almost like a person who has to lead.") **(Family B, participant G3)**

"Jou ma of jou pa is eintlik jou onderwyser of jou mentor." ("Your mother or your father is your teacher or your mentor.") **(Family C, participant G2)**

"Nee ek het op hierdie stadium voel ek net jou kinders het jou absolute bystand nodig. Met eerstens om in die skool vir ondersteuning. As ek nou kyk, ek gaan nou 'n simpel voorbeeld maak by die skool. Hoeveel kinders kom met huiswerk terug. Wat vir my 'n teken is daar is nie iemand wat help by die huis nie." ("No, I feel at this stage that your children need your absolute support. First, in school for support. When I look now, I'm going to make a simple example at the school now. How many children come back with homework? This is a sign for me that there is no one who helps at home.") **(Family C, participant G2)**

"Ouers is daar om vir jou te sê wat reg is en verkeerd en om daar te wees vir jou te alle tye." ("Parents are there to tell you what's right and wrong and to be there for you at all times.") **(Family A, participant G3)**

"Dan weet jy wat reg en verkeerd is... so jy kan dit (temptations) weerstaan." ("Then you know what's right and wrong ... so you can resist it – -temptations.") **(Family B, participant G3)**

"En my ma het vir my ook duidelike rigting gegee in terme van my opvoeding." ("And my mother also gave me a clear direction in terms of my education.") **(Family C, participant G2)**

"Hulle het vir ons duidelike rigting gegee ten opsigte van vriende." ("They gave us a clear direction regarding friends.") **(Family C, participant G2)**

"Ek gaan vir jou sê my pa was 'n saggeaarde tog streng pa en ons het goeie leiding gekry, want ons het nie maklik verkeerde besluite geneem nie." ("I'm going to tell you my dad was a gentle, yet strict father and we received good guidance because we have not easily made wrong decisions.") **(Family C, participant G2)**

"Ek het gesê as my kinders met my openlik is en vir my verduidelik hoe hy voel oor enige iets, dan sal ek vir hom bystaan." ("I said when my children were open with me and explained to me how he felt about anything, I would support him.") **(Family B, participant G3)**

"Then my mom would know something is wrong – she would ask me and then I like no it's like nothing, but after a while she would ask me again, 'are you sure? – I can feel something is wrong' And then I tell her and then she tell my dad and then we talk about it and ask what happened – what did I do wrong – I would tell and then they would sort the problem out with me and then also with whoever the problem is at school and they are very supportive and just want me to be happy." **(Family C, participant G3)**

"Jy moet altyd daar wees vir jou kinders, in tye van nood en alle tye." ("You must always be there for your children, in times of need and at all times.") **(Family A, participant G2)**

"Jy moet daar wees vir hulle as hulle vir jou nodig het – bystaan en ondersteun." ("You need to be there for them if they need you - assist and support.") **(Family B, participant G2)**

"Well, they are always there to listen. They always listen, and they are respectful towards us, my brother and I think they are a very good example for us." **(Family C, participant G3)**

"I think it's, parents, have to – they struggle with finding a job and whilst they get a job they need to work hard, and parent start to focus more on their job, because they just want the best for their children, but sometimes in the process of working so hard to provide for the children, they then forget that ok I have to take care of the child." **(Family C, participant G3)**

"Toe hulle kleiner was het hy (father) nie belang gestel in hulle nie." ("When they were younger, he (father) was not interested in them.") **(Family B, participant G2)**

"Hy was nooit daar vir hulle soos ek nou sal sê wat 'n pa sal doen nie. Hy was nooit hier nie." ("He was never there for them, as I will now say, what a father will do. He was never here.") **(Family B, participant G2)**

"Soos in my kinders het Mammie dit, mammie ek moet soontoe, mammie en daai – ek moet alles alkante moet ek wees. Ek moet ma en pa speel." ("As in my children, Mommy has it, Mommy, I must be there, Mommy and that - I have to be all, I have to be everywhere. I have to play Mom and Dad") **(Family B, participant G3)**

"Maar ons het altyd geglo ons moet saam eet." ("But we always believed we should eat together.") **(Family C, participant G2)**

"Daar was lekker kinderdae soos as ons steg toe gegaan het – lekker gaan swem daar, neem ons maar goedjies saam om te eet en so lekker, ja piekniek en so. Nou nog by die rivier soos in die somer en ons is lus vir 'n bietjie saamwees en so, almal discuss ons ok – elkeen maak 'n slaai en elkeen bring 'n vleis en dan gaan ons." ("There were good childhood days like when we went to the beach - had fun swimming there, we took with a few things to eat and so nice, yes picnic and so on. Still today by the river like in the summer and we feel for a bit of togetherness and so, everyone is also discussing us - everyone makes a salad, and everybody brings meat and then we go.") **(Family B, participant G2)**

"As ons almal saam piekniek hou dan kuier ons almal, my ma is daar, ons is daar, onse kinders is daar, hulle kinders is daar. Dan is ons almal daar." ("When we all have picnic together, we all visit, my mom is there, we are there, our children are there, their children are there. Then we're all there.") **(Family B, participant G2)**

"Kyk ek kan ook vir jou regtig ook sê 'n ander ding wat ouers nou plek van of wat ouers se plek vol moet staan is die feit dat jy moet gaan en jy moet jou kind so ken man. As daar fout is by daai kind moet jy dit ken." ("See, I can really tell you another thing that parents now have to place or what parents are up to is the fact that you have to go, and you have to know your child so well. If there is a fault with that child, you should know.") **(Family C, participant G2)**

"Jy moet kennis dra van jou kinders. Jy moet jou kind goed ken – baie goed moet jy vir hom ken. Jy weet presies as ouer wanneer is jou kind in die moeilikheid is." ("You must bear knowledge of your children. You must know your child well - you must know him very well. You know exactly as the parent when your child is in trouble.") **(Family A, participant G2)**

"Jy ken jou kind en daaroor kan jy sien daar nie iets reg is nie. Dan moet die ouer praat, maar as hy begin stil raak, dan vra ek, wat is nou weer verkeerd. Somtyds wil 'n kind nie sommer onmiddelik praat nie, so jy moet hulle tyd gee dat hulle eers kan ontspan." ("You know your child, and, in that regard, you can see that something is not right. Then the parent should talk, but if he starts to get quiet, I ask what's wrong again. Sometimes a child does not want to speak immediately, so you have to give them time to relax.") **(Family A, participant G2)**

"Van skool af ja. My pa het elke Saterdag moeite gemaak om veld toe te gaan en my ma ook. Atletiek, alles. Hule het altyd ondersteun – die hele familie." ("Since school days yes. My dad made effort, every Saturday, to go to field as well asmy mom. Athletics, everything. They have always supported –- the whole family.") **(Family A, participant G3)**

"Ja, toe hy op skool gewees het, het hy sport gedoen. Rugby gespeel ja – het ek altyd gaan kyk. Maar nie altyd nie, maar ek was altyd daar vir sport. My meisiekind het ook belang gestel in sport." ("Yes, when he was in school, he did sports. He played Rugby, yes - I've always been watching him play. But not always, but I was always there for sports. My daughter was also interested in sports.") **(Family A, participant G2)**

"Partykeers, sy (mother)het nie woorde nodig nie, so partykeers sy ken my nou al so – sy moet net as sy in my gesig uitdrukking kyk, dan weet sy nou al." ("Sometimes, she (mother) does not need words, every so often, she knows me so well - she only has to look at my facial expressions, she would already know what to expect.") **(Family A, participant G3)**

"Ja nee ons het gegaan dan hulle was baie lief vir sport en ek my sigselwers ook en die onderwysers het altyd gesê julle is nes julle ouma – julle ouma was so goed in sport gewees. En nou hulle het ook maar so met hulle sport dan gaan kyk ons hoe hulle speel en dinge doen daarop die velde en goete ja." ("Yes, no we went, they loved sports and me as well with my 'sigselwers' and the teachers always said that you're just like your grandmother - your grandmother was just as good at sports. And now they're just doing their sport and then we'll go see how they play and do their things on the field.") **(Family B, participant G1)**

"Ja, ek is baie betrokke soos in my klonkie speel rugby – ek is daar – ek ondersteun vir hom. Ek wil daar wees ten alle tye wil ek wees of even as hulle miskien 'n game speel." ("Yes, I am very much involved as my little boy plays rugby –- I am there –- I support him. I always want to be there I want to be there even if they may play a game.") **(Family B, participant G3)**

"Ek sal saam speel, saam skop, albastertjies whatever speel, want ek wil deel wees." ("I'll play with, kick with, play marbles whatever, because I want to be part.") **(Family B, participant G3)**

"Maar die ma (referring to self) het in niks (sport and school activities) belang gestel nie, want daar was nie kans vir mens om daarin belang te stel nie. Ek het dan nie eers geskool nie." ("But this mother (referring to herself) was not interested in anything (sports and school activities), because there was no time for a person to be interested in in anything. I did not even graduate.") **(Family A, participant G1)**

"Ag en ek hou nie van vloek nie. En ek word baie kwaad vir 'n mammie wat die kind vloek. Ek sê altyd vir die mammie, dis sonde – dit kom terug na jou toe, maar die kind gaan niks oorkom nie, want dit het uit jou mond uitgekom." ("Oh, and I do not like to curse. And I

get very angry with a mommy who curses a child. I always say to the mommy, it's a sin - it will come back to you, and the child will not be harmed because it came out of your mouth.") **(Family A, participant G1)**

"My rol is nog altyd soos ek sê die voorbeeld wat ek in my praat – hoe ek praat met hulle is daar aanmoediging in, of druk ek hulle af?" ("My role has always been, as I say, to be the example in what I am saying - how I talk to them, is there encouragement or I'm pushing them down?") **(Family C, participant G1)**

Weet jy ons is baie openlik – ek en my twee kinders is baie openlik. Hulle praat oor alles – so het ek hulle groot gemaak. As daar 'n probleem is dan kom dan praat daaroor." ("You know, we are very open - my two children and I, we are very open with each other. They talk about everything - that is how I have reared them. If there is a problem, then we can talk about it.") **(Family A, participant G2)**

"Jy moet dit altyd gemaklik maak, sodat hulle gemaklik kan voel (om te praat)." ("You should always make it comfortable so that they can feel comfortable (to speak).") **(Family A, participant G2)**

"Ja ons gesels oor alles wat jy kan om dink. Alles, alles. Seks ook – Ons gesels oor seks ook. Ons gesels oor meisies, ons gesels oor outjies." ("Yes, we talk about everything you can think of. Everything, everything. Sex also - we talk about sex too. We talk about girls, we talk about boys.") **(Family A, participant G2)**

"Daarom weet ek altyd waar my kinders is. Al is dit ook 12 uur in die nag, bel hulle of hulle stuur 'n message." ("Therefore, I always know where my children are. Even if it is 12 o'clock at night, they will call or send they a message.") **(Family A, participant G2)**

"Ek en my ma ja, ons is openlik met alles. Ek deel alles met haar. Enige iets." ("My mother and I, yes, we are open to everything. I share everything with her. Anything.") **(Family A, participant G3)**

"Ek wil hê hulle moet na my toe kom al is dit swaar of al is dit 'n ding wat hulle nie wil deel met niemand nie." ("I want them to come to me, even if it's hard or if it's something they do not want to share with anyone.") **(Family B, participant G3)**

"Ons praat lekker so openlik oor seks en sulke tipe dinge. Ons het lekker gesels toe ek my maanstonde gekry het en dit en dit en wie is vriende en so aan. Sy het lekker met my gesels - as jy probleme het, kom na my toe, moenie weg bly nie." ("We talk openly about sex and such kind of things. We had good conversations when I got my period and so on, and who are friends and so on. She had good conversations with me - if you have trouble come to me, do not stay away.") **(Family B, participant G3)**

"They openly discuss. My dad tells us exactly how he feels about that topics and he remind us that this will be the consequences when I should come home and tell my dad that I'm pregnant or something like that." **(Family C, participant G3)**

"Dit sê ons elke keer vir mekaar ons is erg oor mekaar en ons gee vir mekaar drukkies." ("Every time we will tell each other how fond we are of each other and we give each other hugs.") **(Family A, participant G2)**

"Want hulle is nie meer so oop en kom vra vir my (after mother became involved with another man)." ("Because they are no longer open and come ask me (after mother became involved with another man).") **(Family B, participant G2)**

"Miskien het dinge ook 'n bietjie verander tussen ons van die vriend wat ek het." ("Maybe things have also changed a little between us because of the friend I have.") **(Family B, participant G2)**

"Die man is mos maar die ene wat besluit nê en dan moes ons seker maar daarby inval." ("The man is ultimately the one who makes the decision, and then we probably had to abided by it.") **(Family B, participant G1)**

"Ja ek en hy het maar besluite geneem – saam" ("Yes, both of us have made decisions – together.") **(Family B, participant G1)**

"They understand how I feel, and they take my opinion into consideration." **(Family C, participant G3)**

"Ek het toegelaat dat hulle self besluit en dan vir my sê wat hulle besluit het." ("I allowed them to decide and then to tell me what they have decided.") **(Family A, participant G2)**

"Soos ek - hier is nie eintlik reëls in die huis nie, maar so sy (mother) vir ons groot gemaak het, sy weet wat is reg en sy weet wat is verkeerd. So as jy iets doen, dan weet jy dit gaan nagevolge hê. So, dis op jouself. Jy weet jy het nou 'n huis sy moet dit nie gedoen het nie, hoekom het sy dit gedoen of so. Sy gaan nie vir my sê hoe laat ek by die huis moet inkom nie." ("Like me –- there are not really rules in the house, but so she (mother) raised us, she knows what's right and she knows what's wrong. So, if you do something then you know that there are consequences. So, it's on yourself. You know you have a house she should not have done what she did, why did she do it or so? She will not tell me what time I have to be at home.") **(Family A, participant G3)**

"Daai tyd was hulle nog baie jonk gewees toe hy (father) oorlede is so hulle moes maar hulle eie besluite moes maak. Wat hulle wil doen." ("At that time, they were still very young when he died (father) so they had to make their own decisions. What they wanted to do.") **(Family B, participant G2)**

"Ja, want dit gaan nie vir my gelukkig maak – dit gaan my gelukkig maak op 'n manier, maar ek wil nie hê my kinders moet ongelukkig wees om my te please nie. So ek wil hê hy moet sy eie besluite neem en ek sal vir hom, whatever hy kies sal ek maar vir hom ondersteun, want dit gaan vir hom op die ou end gelukkig maak." ("Yes, because it will not make me happy –- it will make me happy in a way, but I do not want my children to be unhappy just to please me. So, I want him to make his own decisions and I will support him for whatever he chooses, because it will make him happy in the end.") **(Family B, participant G3)**

"Soos hy is baie lief vir rugby, maar ek is baie concerned want hy kry mos die fitte en so. So ek is geworry oor daai. Dis hoekom ek weet nou nie – want nou sê ek vir hom nou speel jy – nou kry hy miskien dalk seer. Dan hoe dan. Sê ek vir hom wil hy nie iets anders doen nie in plaas van rugby nie. Is daar nie iets anders nie? Dan sê hy vir my dan wil ek skaak speel. Toe sê ek ok dan speel jy skaak – ek het tot die bord gekoop dat hy kan byval by skaak. Maar nou by die skool is dit, maar hy is mos nou onder 10 so hy moet mos nou rugby speel vir mikien die skool en so. Ek weet nie wat – hy moet maar sy keuses maak, ek sal hom

alkant bystaan." ("As he loves rugby, but I'm very concerned because he gets the fits and so. So, I'm worried about that. That's why I do not know now — because now I tell him you're allowed to play - maybe he might get hurt. Then how then? Then I ask of him if he does not want to do anything else instead of rugby. Isn't there anything else? Then he says to me, I want to play chess. Then I said ok then you play chess — I bought to the board that he could pick up at chess. But at school it is, but he's under 10 now so he has to play rugby for school and so on. I do not know what - he needs to make his choices, I will assist him either way.") **(Family B, participant G3)**

"Dan loop ek na haar – mammie hulle gaan almal vanaand uit, kan ek maar saamgaan? Dan sê sy op een voorwaarde en dit is baie belangrik. Jy kan gaan, maar as jy nie 11:00 in die huis is nie, dan sluit ek my deure. So dit hang van jou af – jy kan gaan, maar 11 uur moet jy maak dat jy by die huis is. Dan het ek maar gedruk dat ek 11:00 daar is, want anders kan ek nie weer uitgaan nie." ("Then I walk up to her — Mommy they're all out tonight, can I go along? Then she says on one condition and that is very important. You can go, but if you're not at home at 11:00, I'll close my doors. So, it depends on you — you can go, but by 11 o.clock you must make sure you are home. So, I just pushed myself that I am at home by 11:00, because otherwise I cannot go out again.") **(Family B, participant G3)**

"Nee die kinders het nie besluite geneem nie." ("No, the kids did not make any decisions.") **(Family B, participant G1)**

"Hy (husband) sê vir my wat hy van my dink, maar nou nie – ons verskil baie keer, maar ons kan praat daaroor en oplossings daarvoor kry." ("He (husband) tells me what he thinks of me, but not anymore — we differ many a times, but we can talk about it and get solutions to it.") **(Family C, participant G2)**

"Nee, mens het nooit gehoor my ma en my pa skel of stry of whatever nie. Ek het nooit geweet hulle skel nie, maar dan sê my ma mens dink seker mens skel nie, maar 'n mens skel, maar ons doen dit nie voor julle nie. Want dis nie vir julle ore bedoel nie." ("No, a person could never heard my mom and my dad scramble or fight or whatever. I never knew they scold, but then my mother said you probably think we do not scold, but we do scold, but we were not doing it in front of you. Because it's not meant for your ears.") **(Family B, participant G3)**

"As daar 'n probleem in die familie is, dan word almal bymekaar geroep en die storie word uitgepak op die tafel – hoekom en waarom is daar – praat nou." ("If there is a problem in the family, everyone is called together, and the story is unpacked on the table – Howcome and why is there – talk now.") **(Family C, participant G1)**

"Konflik, nee - ek dink ons bly liewer uit mekaar se pad uit. Ja ons vermy maar mekaar." ("Conflict, no — I think we'd rather stay out of each other's way. Yes, we avoid each other instead.") **(Family A, participant G3)**

"Dan maak ek maar net – ek gaan maar net aan met my eie goed. Ek sê die klein huisies is eintlik baie goeie idée, want jy kan nie so kwaad gaan slaap of wat nie, want sy beweeg - jy moet teen mekaar skuur as jy verbygaan. Jy kan nie kwaad lewe so nie. So daar is nie 'n ander keuse nie, ons moet maar dinge uitwerk, sodat ons ...." ("I'll just do - I'm just going on with my own stuff. I say the little houses are truly a good idea, because you cannot go to bed angry or not because she's moving – you can't avoid touching when you pass each other. You cannot live angry like that. So, there is no other choice, we need to work out things so that we ....") **(Family A, participant G3)**

"My ma was baie streng en ons het baie liefde gekry." ("My mom was very strict, and we got a lot of love.") **(Family B, participant G3)**

"Gesels...jy gee duidelike rigting. Elke huis het mos reëls." ("Chat ... you give a clear direction. Every house has its rules.") **(Family C, participant G2)**

"Kyk ek sal nou vir hulle 'n woordjie sê of skel nê, dan praat hulle nie met my nie. Voor hulle gaan slaap dan is mammie weer in hulle in. Mammie is jammer, maar jy was verkeerd daar, so jy moet luister as ek praat. Volgende keer gaan dit nie so gebeur nie. As jy iets wil hê, dan kom vra jy vir my – as jy iets wil doen dan kom vra jy vir my. Moenie jou eie dinge doen nie. Mammie weet nie waar jy is nie. Ek gaan verantwoordelik staan as jy iets moet oorkom. Dan verstaan hulle my. Nie (skree) waar was jy! Ek weet nie waar jy is nie! Ek moet gaan sit en voor ons gaan slaap stryk ons daai storie uit." ("Look, I will now give them a word or two or say a few harsh words hey, then they won't talk to me. Before they go to sleep, mommy is back with them. Mommy is sorry, but you were wrong there, so you must listen when I speak. Next time it will not happen. If you want something, then you will ask me –- if you want to do something then you will ask me. Do not do your own things. Mommy does not know where you are. I will be responsible if you have to overcome something. Then they understand me. Not (scream) where were you! I do not know where you are! I have to sit down and sort it out before going to bed.") **(Family B, participant G3)**

"Ja, ja my pa is 'n baie streng persoon nê. En hy sal altyd vir ons, whatever ons .... maak byvoorbeeld ek het nou stry gehad – nou is ek moody in die huis. Niemand weet waaroor gaan die stry nie, nou maak ek my mood sommer op. Dis nie reg nie, dan sal my pa vir my sê, kyk hier dis nou verkeerd – waaroor gaan dit regtigwaar?" ("Yes, yes, my dad is a very strict person. And he will always let us whatever we .... For example, I've been in an argument, for instance –- now, I'm moody in the house. Nobody knows what the arguing was about, so now I'm pretending of being moody. That's not right, then my dad will tell me, look here, that is wrong –- what's this now really about?") **(Family B, participant G3)**

"Nee dit was maar soos ek vir u sê ek moes ook maar wag tot die man kom dat hy kan slaan." ("No, it was just like I told you, I had to wait until the husband came to hit him." **(Family B, participant G1)**

"Hy (father of children) was 'n baie sagte man, maar ek was die streng ene." ("He (father of children) was a very gentle man, but I was the strict one.") **(Family B, participant G1)**

"My pa was nie eintlik die ene nie, maar my ma was die sterk een. Sy was die een wat vir ons – sy het vir ons baie streng groot gemaak. As ons ouers gesê het 'n ding moet gedoen word, dan moet hy gedoen word." ("My dad was not the one, but my mother was the strong one. She was the one who - she reared us very strict. If our parents said something should be done, then it had be done.") **(Family B, participant G2)**

"Ek moet ma en pa speel." ("I have to play mom and dad.") **(Family B, participant G3)**

"Jong een keer het ek vir hom (father) gesê slaan aan my meisiekind. Toe slaan hy nie die kind nie toe vat hy haar voor die bors en hy gooi haar in die lug op en sy val. Ek sê jy hou jy jou hande weg van my kinders af. Toe besluit ek daar en dan hy word te kwaad. Ek sê jy baklei dan met die kind soos met 'n groot mens. Hy sê jammer ek word te kwaad, ek sal nooit weer aan jou kinders slaan nie. Jy moet maar self tug. En so het ek hulle altyd getug." ("Man,

473

one time I told him (father) just you dear lift you hand for my daughter. Then he did not hit the child, he took her by the chest, and he threw her in the air and she fell. I'm telling you to keep your hands away from my children. Then I decided there and then he gets too angry. I said, you are fighting with the child as if she's an adult. He said that he was sorry that he got so angry, I will never hit your children again. You need to discipline them yourself. And that is how I've always disciplined them.") **(Family A, participant G1)**

"Kyk as jy nou vir my nou vra, ek is 'n baie sagte mens nê. Waar die man nou net sê nee en sy nee bly nee. So, dis baie belangrik – 'n kind het tog 'n vaderlike hand oor hom nodig. ("Look, if you ask me now, I'm a very soft person. Where the man says no, and his no remains no. This is very important - a child still needs a fatherly hand on him.") **(Family C, participant G2)**

"So dan sal ek altyd sê gaan vra eers vir jou pa en dan sê hy maar wat het jou ma gesê? Dan sê hulle mammie het gesê ek moet eers vir daddy kom vra." ("So, I'll always say go ask your dad first and then he will say what did your mother say? Then they say mommy said I had to come to Daddy first.") **(Family C, participant G2)**

"So that is with my mom normally use ...?.. to my dad because my mom is like a softy and my dad is like no, no it is like my dad would say something and my mom would go like, ok just leave it and that is like no....I have to tell this to them, they have to learn, so." **(Family C, participant G3)**

"Even though my dad makes the decisions, my mom always stands by him. She doesn't say ok no just do it even though your dad says no?" **(Family C, participant G3)**

"I would ask my mom first – because I know she would say yes, but now she is like ask your dad. Then he would say, 'your mom sends you? We've already discussed it, she said yes and now you just have to ask me' and then sometimes he would say yes and sometimes he would say no and then it would be no, there is no argument about it." **(Family C, participant G3)**

"I think yes, the fact that they are married – they have a really strong relationship." **(Family C, participant G3)**

"As jy nou net toesien wat hy doen en nie, en nie vir hom tug nie, dan gaan hy mos nou nie reg wees nie." ("If you're just watching what he's doing and not, and not disciplining him, then he's not going to be right.") **(Family B, participant G2)**

"Ek sal jou sê jy moenie daarnatoe gaan nie – nee wragtig jy gaan speel daar, ek het nou-net vir jou gesê – nee ek klop hulle, nee ek het vir hulle uitgeklop. Deesdae kan die kinders nie meer geklop word nie." ("I'll tell you you're not going to go there –- and yet still you went to play there, I just told you – no, I hit them, no, I hit them out. These days, the children cannot be beaten anymore.") **(Family A, participant G2)**

"Ek weet nie of dit op 'n manier is beskerm is of wat nie. Sy het ons eenkeer gevra – ons wou gerook het sy het ons eenkeer gevang. Toe roep sy nou vir ons almal toe gee sy vir ons sigarette en toe sê sy vir ons nou rook jy dit uit. En 'n glas bier – toe verstik ek en daarvanaf rook ek nie. Ek drink maar ek rook nie en ek sal dit nooit weer doen nie. Ek sal dit nie doen nie." ("I do not know if it is protecting in a way or not. She asked us once - we wanted to smoke and she caught us once. Then she called us all, she gave us our cigarettes and then she told us 'you're smoking it now'. And a glass of beer –- then I choke and since

then I never smoked. I drink but I do not smoke, and I will never do it again. I will not do that again.") **(Family A, participant G3)**

"As ons – my ma gesê het ons moet gaan hout haal, nou maak ons lank in die bos en dan speel ons eers nog daar, en dan kom ons laat terug en dan skel my ma vir ons en ons kry pak." ("If we –- my mom said we had to go get wood, now we take too long in the woods and then we'll be playing there for a while, and then we'll be back late, and my mother will scold at us and we'll get hidings.") **(Family B, participant G1)**

"Sy het net 'n manier om vir jou te kyk dan het sy nie nodig om te slaan nie want ons weet." ("She had a way she looked at you then she does not need to hit because we know.") **(Family A, participant G3)**

"Ek het ook baie geslaan, dan sê hulle tot vandag toe sê hulle vir my onse pa het nie vir ons geslaan nie, maar jy wat ma is, jy het vir ons baie geslaan." ("I also hit a lot, then they would say, to this day still, they will say my father did not hit us, but you, mother, you beat us a lot.") **(Family B, participant G1)**

"Baie kere is ek streng, baie keer laat ek dingetjies gaan en ek waarsku vir hulle wat ek gaan doen as hulle nie gaan luister nie. So hulle moet dit aanvaar, of hulle moet aangaan met hulle dingetjies – ek het jou gesê en jy luister nie, so nou moet jy getug word." ("Many times, I'm strict, many times I will let things go and I would warn them of what I'm going to do if they're not going to listen. So, they must accept it, or they have to go on with their little things –- I told you and you do not listen, so now you have to get punished.") **(Family B, participant G3)**

"Ek slaan hom op sy handjies. Want hulle is klein – hulle sê mos gewoonlik buig die boompie terwyl hy klein is." ("I hit him on his hands. Because they are small –- there's a saying that says 'bend the tree while he is small'.") **(Family B, participant G3)**

CHAPTER 6

"Maar kyk daai tyd het ek nog nie my eie huis gehad nie. Daai tyd het ek nog gebly by ma in die huis. En daai tyd was daar altyd een wat na onse kinders gekyk het. Daar het altyd een gebly om na onse kinders te kyk. Die enetjie het reeds na myne gekyk toe ek werk en die ander suster het na my meisiekinders gekyk en sy het na my seunskind gekyk toe gaan ek werk." ("However, those days I did not have my own house. Those days I was still staying with mom in their house. There was always someone who looked after our children. This one had already looked after mine when I was working, and the other sister looked after my daughters and she cared for my son when I had to work") **(Family A, participant G2).**

"Selfde soos as jy my langs die pad gekry het en ek het nou iets verkeerd gedoen, dan sal jy my geslaan het. En as ek nou by my ma kom en kla, dan kry ek nog weer 'n pak." ("Same as if you got me along the way and I've done something wrong, you'll spank me. And when I got to my mom and complained, I'll get another spanking") (Family A, participant G3).

"Dit het ek ook baie gedoen vir oumense wat oud gewees het. Vat hulle water – daai tyd het jy water nog gedra uit die sloot en die riviere uit. Altyd oumense wat nie iets kan gedoen het meer hulle nie, dan gaan jy hulle huis skoonmaak, trek hulle beddens af en was dit vir hulle uit en trek dit weer oor. Kyk dat hulle huis skoon en netjies is. Baie oumense het my baie geprys ook daarvoor. Ek moes dit doen nie, ek wil dit gedoen het uit my eie." ("I've also done such a lot for old people who have been old and fragile. Take them water – at that time you still had to draw water from the ditch and the rivers for drinking and consumption. Always considering old people who cannot do anything for themselves any longer, then you go clean their house, pull off their

bedding and wash it out and, using the clean bedding, cover it again. Make sure that their houses are clean and tidy. Many old people have greatly praised me for that. Not that I had to do it, I wanted to do it myself and by my own free will") **(Family B, participant G1).**

"Nee dit is nie meer daai ou Genael soos dit gewees het nie – hulle het bietjie gechange nê. Dit is nie meer die ou Genael daai liefde wat daar was tussen die ... Ons sit vandag hier sit en koffie drink daai tyd aand word dan gaan ons weer huis toe. So jy kry nie meer dit tussen die mense nou nie." *("No, it's not that old Genaal like it was previously – they have changed. It is no longer the old Genaal that love that existed between the people ... We are sitting here today and drinking coffee that time until evening then we would head back home. So, you no longer experience this between people." **(Family B, participant G1).***

"Natuurlik het Genael 'n rol gespeel. As ek moet dink as ek nou kyk en ek nou miskien in 'n ander plek moes gebly het, wat ek nou sien wat ek baie na toe gaan, dan is ek nogals dankbaar dat ek het in Genael grootgeword. Want dis stil, Dis rustig. Jy hoef nie bang te wees om jou kind winkel toe te stuur om te sê, o jitte, jy weet nooit of jou kind terugkom nie, maar hier is jou kind safe, safe." ("Of course, Genaal played a role. If I wonder that maybe I should have stayed in another place, what I see now that I go to a lot, I am quite grateful that I grew up in Genaal. Because it's quiet, it's peaceful. You do not have to be afraid to send your child to the shop and to say, oh, you never know if your child will return, but here your child is safe, safe.") **(Family A, participant G2)**

"Ek dink in Genael soos ons wat Genael ons is meer respekvol. Ons groet die mense, ons ken almal mekaar. As daar iemand hulp nodig het, sal ons altyd gaan help. Maar dit wat ek nou in die Kaap agterkom by die vriende wat ek daar het. Die mense lewe verby mekaar. Daar is geen respek nie." ("I think in Genaal, like us, what Genaal is, we are more respectful. We greet the people, we all know each other. If someone needs help, we will always help. But what I now noticed in the Cape with the friends I've got there. People live past each other. There is no respect") **(Family A, participant G3).**

"I think I have a little bit more freedom here, because here it is still fine to just walk I think in town it is more dangerous because there is a lot of shooting and like my brother was being robbed there" **(Family C, participant G3).**

"I think the children has been affected by other children in this society – they have this gangster attitude and they have no respect and they just – it's like they just think ag I can just do what I want – its' a grandmother or it's just this person – it's not my mom" **(Family C, participant G3).**

"Ek sê altyd dit is die vriende wat 'n invloed het op daai kind. By die huis is hulle soos engeltjies rondom jou, maar as hulle by die vriende is, dan is hulle weer heel different, dan hoor jy jou kind was so – dan sê ek nee my kind was nie so nie." ("I always say it's the friends that influence that child. At home they are like angels around you, but when they are with their friends, then they are very different, then you hear your child was so –- then I would say: no, my child was not like that.") **(Family B, participant G3).**

"Die jongste een rook dagga en dit is die vriendekring wat hy mee deurmekaar geraak het." ("The youngest smoke marijuana and it is the friends he got involved with.") (Family B, participant G2).

"My ding is ek sê altyd, bring jou maatjies huis' toe dat mammie vir hulle kan ontmoet en ek wil weet wie is hulle ouers dat ek kan sê, maar daai is goeie mense. En daai maatjie moet by die huis kom voor ek vir jou laat gaan, want ek wil eers sien hoe is hy met

my eie oë." ("My thing is, I always say, bring your buddies home so that mommy can meet them, and I want to know who are their parents that I can say, but those are good people. That boy must first come home before I will let you go there (allow you to associate) because I want to see how he is with my own eyes" **(Family B, participant G3).**

"Kyk Genael is mos 'n klein plekkie, maar Genael raak nou rof. Kindertjies raak sommer deesdae weg en word ook maar verkrag, so dink dit gebeur nie hier nie, maar dit gebeur nou ook hier." ("Look Genaal is a small place, but Genaal is getting rough. Children are disappearing and are raped, so you may think that it does not happen here, but it's happening here now too.") **(Family B, participantG3).**

"Ons het so invloede ook maar van skollie-element." ("We have such effects even of hooligan element.") **(Family C, participant G1).**

"Ja, maar net een ding was nooit in Genael nie. Hier was nooit werk in Genael nie. Jy moet altyd uitgegaan het. Daai was een ding." ("Yes, but only one thing was never in Genaal. There was never work in Genaal. You always had to go out. That was one thing.") **(Family A, participant G2).**

"Ons het altyd so gewerk. Ek het saans huis toe gekom en hy het naweke huis toe gekom en ek het saans huis toe gekom – elke aand." ("We've always worked like this. I came home each night and he would came home for weekends and I came home each night –- every night.") **(Family A, participant G2)**

"Ek het gewerk – onderwys gegee op Grabouw en daddy moes daar in die stad – hy is 'n Wood masjinist en ..maar ons het so deurgedruk met onse kinders en ons het hulle in sy mammie en daddy se sorg geplaas gedurig die dag." ("I worked –- taught in Grabouw and Daddy had to be there in the city –- he is a wood mechanic and... but we pushed through with our children and we placed them in his mommy and daddy's care during the day.") **(Family C, Participant G1)**

"Maar hier in Genadendal is nie eintlik werkgeleenthede hier nie. Jy moet uitgaan om te gaan werk en so." ("But here in Genadendal are not really job opportunities here. You have to go out (of Genaal) to work and so.") **(Family B, participant G2).**

"Dit gaan swaar. Hulle dink nie soos ons ouers daardie dae gedink het nie. Daar is mos 'n werkie, jy kan mos vir iemand iets gaan doen. Jy kan mos verdien om te eet." ("It's been difficult. They do not think like our parents thought those days. There's no work, you can at least do something for someone. You may earn in order to eat.") **(Family C, participant G1)**

"Baie keer is dit mense wat bietjie swaarder grootgeword het dit somtyd floreer hulle bietjie meer as ander wat 'n bietjie makliker ...." ("Many times, it's people that had it a bit more difficult growing up, it's them that thrive than others who had it a bit easier.") **(Family C, participant G1)**

"En sy (mother) het een van 2 goed gehad om te doen, nê, en dit was om te gaan leer om ook iets te raak in die lewe. Sy kan ook besluit het sy gaan hier op die plase werk." ("And she (mother) had one of 2 things to do, and it was either to learn in order to become something in life. She may also decide that she is going to work on one of the local farms.") **(Family C, participant G2)**

"Ek het ook nie veel skool gehad nie omdat ons, my pa was ook maar middeljarig gewees en ek moes ook maar uitgaan om te help met die kindertjies wat nou nog agter is." ("I also did not have much schooling because, we, my daddy was also middle-aged and I also had to go out to help with rearing the little ones left behind." **(Family B, participant G1)**

"Ek moet ook maar wag tot hy kom. Het ek baie aande alleen geslaap met hulle tot hy Vrydae kom, In elke arm 'n siek kind. In elke arm het ek maar so deur die nag gelê met hulle tot ek by 'n dokter kan uitkom om te wag vir die paar sente wat hy bring. Dat hulle by 'n dokter kan uitkom." ("I had to wait until he gets back. I slept lots of nights with them until he comes home on Fridays, in every arm a sick child. In each arm, I had to lay through the night with them until I can get to a doctor, to wait for the few pennies he brings. That they can get to a doctor.") **(Family B, participant G1)**

"Die oudste ene het maar standerd 1 moes uitgaan laat sy kan vir my help ook met hulle skoonhou en kos gee en so aan – kosmaak en so aan. Maar sy is toe uit en die ander kan skoolgaan." ("The oldest one had a Standard 1, had to leave school so that she can assist me with their cleanliness and food and so on - cooking and so on. But she left school and the others can go to school.") **(Family B, participant G1)**

"Ek weet nie, vandag kry jy mos al die drinkplekke en die ouers drink so baie – dis amper of hulle nie kan lekker kyk agter die kinders nie en omsien vir die kinders nie." ("I do not know, today you get all these drinking places, and the parents are drinking so much - it's almost impossible for them to look after the children and care for the children.") **(Family B, participant G1)**

"Werkloosheid is eintlik dit wat ouerskappe ook 'n invloed het – negatiewe invloed. En dit kan jy hier in Genadendal sien." ("Unemployment is actually what is affecting parenthood, a negative effect. And you can see here in Genadendal.") **(Family C, participant G1)**

"Een negatiewe aspek is net alkohol. Hulle (parents) drink net bietjies te veel. Maar ook nie over the board nie. Dis soos dit destyds gewees het." ("A negative aspect is just alcohol. They (parents) only drink a bit too much. But also, not going over-board. That's how it was back then.") **(Family A, participant G3)**

"Ek en my pa praat nie. Ons praat nie soos ek saam met my ma kan ek enige iets praat, maar as hy is daar, maar as my pa nugter is, hy kan nie praat nie." ("My father and I do not speak. We do not talk like my mother and I do, I can speak to her about anything, but if he's there, but if my dad is sober, he cannot speak." **(Family A, participant G3)**

"Maar ons (husband and wife) het onse praatjies gepraat, (dealing with conflict). Nee voor hulle (children). En hulle onthou dit. Ek sê dit gee nie vir julle die reg dat julle nie van julle pa hou nie. Dis maar wat met al die mense gebeur het wat drink. Want wyn gaan na jou brein toe dan werk jou brein nie soos hy moet werk nie." ("But we (husband and wife) have our talks, (dealing with conflict). Not in front them (children). And they remember it. I said that it does not give you the right to not like your dad. That's what happened to all the people who drink. Because wine goes to your brain, your brain does not work as it should.") **(Family A, participant G1)**

"Ons hou van paartie en so, maar ons is nie mense wat baklei en onder mekaar stry en so nie." ("We like partying and such, but we are not people that fight and argue among themselves and such.") **(Family B, participant G2)**

"Ek is baie bekommerd vandag oor die drugs. Ek praat nou spesifiek in Genael. Hier is baie jong kinders wat drugs gebruik." ("I'm very worried about drugs today. I am talking specifically in Genaal. Here are many young children who use drugs.") **(Family A, participant G2)**

"Hulle (children) maak die ouers so seer en dit is nie hoe die ouers vir hulle opgevoed het nie." ("They (children) upset the parents so much and this is not how the parents raised them.") **(Family A, participant G2)**

"Is seker omdat hulle die goed maklik in die hande kan kry. Is maklik. As ek dan nou kyk en dan dink ek, haai en dis altyd die kinders wat 'n mens dit nie van sal verwag nie. En dis altyd die ou pragtige seuntjie. Het ek altyd gesê hy gaan eendag seker darem baie ver kom. As jy weer sien dan sien jy daai is 'n kind wat.........." ("Is probably because they can get hold of these things easily. It's easy. And if you look and think, oh my, and it's always the children that one would not expect. And it's always the beautiful boy. I always said that he would one day certainly managed to get very far. And then again you see that child it is a child that ...") **(Family A, participant G2)**

"En daai tipe van drugs en goed. En drankmisbruik." ("Such type of drugs and stuff. And alcohol abuse") **(Family C, participant G1)**

"Maar iets wat nou hier die oorhand vat is kinders wat duidelik verkeerde rigting kies met drugs en sulke goete." ("But something that prevails here is children who clearly choose the wrong direction with drugs and such stuff.") **(Family C, participant G2)**

"Baie kindertjies waar die ouers altwee drink by die huis en vloek. So hoe kan daai kind anders wees? Dan is die mense so lief om te sê 'nee hy tel dit in die pad op'. Hy tel dit nie de duiwel in die pad op nie. Hy tel dit by die huis op." ("Many children, where the parents both drink at home and curse. So how can that child be any different? Then the people are so fond of saying 'no he picked it on the road. He the devil did he not pick it up along the way. He picked it up at home.") **(Family A, participant G1)**

"Hulle het nie respek gehad vir hulle kinders, want hulle is nou gedrink. Nou so word daai kind groot. Baie van hulle hier van 12, 11 dan los hulle al die skool, want hier (drinking at the house) is dit te lekker." ("They did not have respect for their children because they are now drunk. That is how that child is being reared. Many of them here at 12, 11 they leave school because drinking at the house is too good.") **(Family A, participant G1)**

"Ja, pa sê dan so, ma sê ook al so. As die kind more so sê?" ("Yes, father says so, Mother even says so. What if the child says the same thing tomorrow?") **(Family A, participant G1)**

"Jy vergeet partykeer om van die kind te leer van die Here." ("You sometimes forget to teach the child about the Lord.") **(Family A, participant G1)**

"Ek sal nie sê die ouerskap nie – ek sal ook nie sê dis die gemeenskap nie. Dis maar die duiwel." ("I will not say parenthood –- I will not say that's the community either. It's only the devil.") **(Family A, participant G1)**

"Die kinders gee nie meer om as jy daar staan nie as hulle 'n lelike woord wil sê dan sê hulle hom. Hulle is nie nou geworry oor 'n ouer persoon wat daar staan nie – maar daai auntie gaan nou hoor wat ek sê nie." ("The children do not care if you're standing there; if

they want to say an ugly word then they just say it. They are not bother that an older person is standing there - but that aunt will hear what I'm saying.") **(Family B, participant G1)**

"Maar soos nou se kinders gaan mos sommer sê, nee ek is nie lus om dit te doen nie en dan loop hulle sommer." ("But, children of today will say, no, I'm not keen to do it and then they'll walk away.") **(Family B, participant G2)**

CHAPTER 7

"Ouma, jy kan enige tyd in die nag – haar deur is altyd oop vir jou. hier is so baie mense in Genael – as sy eers nie net haar kinders nie, maar sy is Nanna vir almal. Sy het mos die sopkombuis gehad nou as hulle haar langs die pad kry is Nanna. Sy is amper soos sy is almal se ma." ("Grandma, you can at any time at night - her door is always open to you. here are so many people in Genaal - if she's not just her children, but she's Nanna for everyone. She had the soup-kitchen so, if they should get her along the way, it's Nanna. She's almost like she's everyone's mother.") **(Family A, participant G3)**.

"My ma het nou babatjie ook gevang. En so het ek ook maar geleer en lief geword om siek mense te besoek. Ja, maar ek was die een wat as – hulle het baie by my ma in die nag kom roep. Dan maak sy vir my wakker – ek moet saam met haar loop. Maar ek het nooit kwaad geword nie, ek het geleer daaruit. Die wat sy my so saam gesleep het - ek dink daai kry ek nou by haar dat ek so lief is om siek mense te besoek." ("My mom has also caught a baby. And so, I also learned and became fond of visiting and caring for sick people. Yes, but I was the one who as - they came to call a lot from my mother at night. Then she wakes me up - I had to walk with her. But I never got angry, I learned from it. The one that she dragged with was me - I think I got that from her that I'm so fond of visiting sick people.") **(Family A, participant G1)**.

"Ja ons was baie maatjies ook gewees wat altyd – vernaam as ons nou die Sondagskole uitkom en so aan dan sien ons so mense sukkel en dan gaan sê ons, kom ons gaan gou help en so-aan."("Yes we were many friends who have always been - especially when we get out of the Sunday schools and so on, so we see how people struggle and then we would say, let's go help and so on.") **(Family B, participant G1)**.

"Ja die mense hier in die dorp – my kleinkinders van die Kaap het altyd gesê, …hulle sê almal vir my mamma. Lyk my al die mense ken vir mamma …almal wat verbykom groet. Toe sê ek ja nee ek groet ook elke dag almal wat verbykom" ("Yes, the people here in the town - my grandchildren from the Cape have always said, they all know me as Mamma, Seems like everyone knows Mamma…because they all greet and show respect. Then I would say, I also greet everybody who walks by every day.") **(Family B, participant G1)**.

"Sy was baie lief om te gee. Iemand het 'n behoefte met iets – 'n behoefte en miskien geld of iets kos in die huis, dan was sy baie lief om iets te maak en vir die mense te deel wat swaarkry." ("She was very fond to give. Someone needs something - a need and maybe money or something in the house, then she loves to make something and share with the people who are suffering.") **(Family C, participant G1)**.

"Ons wat die dinge sien, aanvaar nou moet betrokke raak. Moenie afdruk nie, maak verandering. Bring die verandering of maak die verskil." ("We who see things accept now that we have to get involved. Do not discourage, make the change. Bring the change or make the difference.") **(Family C, participant G1)**.

"My kinders, my twee ouer kinders het ook eintlik by my ma grootgeword– want toe ek gewerk het, toe het my ma na hulle gekyk." ("My children, my two older children actually also grew up by my mother - because when I worked, my mother took care of them.") **(Family B, participant G2)**.

"My ma het vir my gehelp met hulle toe ek en hy toe uit mekaar uit is – my ma het my baie gehelp met hulle." ("My mother helped me with them when he and I were separated - my mother helped me a lot with them(children).") **(Family B, participant G2)**.

"Ek het vir my seun gesê ek sal by die huis bly om haar (grandchild) groot te maak." ("I told my son I'll stay home to rear her (grandchild).") **(Family B, participant G2)**.

"Sy (ma) is baie straight forward. As sy vir jou iets wil sê dan sê sy ... jy weet presies hoe ver staan jy met haar. Ja, ja as jy iets vir 'n persoon wil sê, sê dit. En sê dit straight, moenie om hoekies en draatjies nie." ("She (mom) is very straight forward. If she wants to say something to you then she says it … you know exactly where you stand with her. Yes, yes if you want to say something to a person, say it. And say it straight, do not go around bends and delay or deceive the next person.") **(Family A, participant G2)**.

"Hulle is nou almal getroud en die, maar hulle gee elke tyd as hulle verjaar of iets of as dit tekortkoming is, dan kom hulle maar altyd na mamma toe. Ons gee vir mamma elke maand, want al kry ek my toelaag, dan gee hulle elke maand vir my R100 of so of waar daar is min kos of so, dan bring hulle vir my. En as ek nou weer sien hulle kry 'n bietjie moeilik, dan knyp ek weer van my kant af want help maar hulle weer aan." ("They are now all married and the ones, but they give every time they have a birthday or something or if there is a shortcoming, then they always come to mum. We give mum every month, because even if I get my allowance, they give me R100 or so every month or where there is little food or so, they would bring me. And if I see again they get a little hard, then I would pinch off from my side to help them in turn.") **(Family B, participant G1)**.

"En kyk al die kleinkinders kom nog altyd dan kom hulle van waar hulle is, kom hulle as sy (grandmother) verjaar en so. Vir my is dit amper soos – sy speel 'n groot rol in my lewe en my ma was so groot gemaak deur haar nou." ("And see, all the grandchildren still always come, then they come from where they are, they come when it's her (grandmother) birthday and so. To me it's almost like - she plays a big part in my life and my mom was raised like that by her now.") **(Family B, participant G3)**.

"Met my eie moeder- ek was nie onder haar sorg nie (growing up with grandmother)." ("With my own mother – -I was not under her care") **(Family C, participant G1)**.

"Sy (grandmother) was so oor ons kinders wat sy grootmaak … ("She (grandmother) was so over us as children that she was raising…") **(Family C, participant G1)**.

"I think the children actually don't have respect for their grandparents because they are like with their other friends that's parents are also not there and they like think they – 'she is just my grandma – she can't tell me what to do'" **(Family C, participant G3)**.

"Dis nog daardie tyd … daar in die Kaap in. En hy (father) het gekom een tyd toe kom hy. want sy pa wou gehad het hy moet die kind maar vat en maar bring, sodat hulle die kind kan groot maak." ("It's still that time there in the Cape. And he (father) came once. because his dad (grandfather) wanted him to take the child and bring him so that they can rear the child big.") **(Family C, participant G1)**.

"My kinders, my twee ouer kinders het ook eintlik by my ma grootgeword– want toe ek gewerk het, toe het my ma na hulle gekyk." ("My children, my two older children actually also grew up by my mother - because when I worked, my mother took care of them.") **(Family B, participant G2)**.

"Ek het vir my seun gesê ek sal by die huis bly om haar (grandchild) groot te maak." ("I told my son I'll stay home to rear her (grandchild).") **(Family B, participant G2)**.

"My ma het vir my gehelp met hulle toe ek en hy toe uit mekaar uit is – my ma het my baie gehelp met hulle." ("My mother helped me with them when he and I were separated - my mother helped me a lot with them.") **(Family B, participant G2)**.

"Ja, dit behoort te verander want kyk jy het nou n' verantwoordelikheid op jouself, wat jy vir jouself gebring het. So, jy moet staan vir dit. Maar soos vandag se kinders, hulle het die babies, dan gaan julle nog altyd uit. As jy sien in die tavern-hoe dronk die jong kinders en so wat kinders het. Nou ek sê dis die ouers wat partykeer die kinders so want as julle se jy gaan nie uit nie, want kyk na jou kind." ("Yes, that should change because see, you now have a responsibility on yourself, the way you brought it upon yourself. So, you have to stand for it. But like today's kids, they have the babies, then they still go out. If you see in the tavern-how the young children are drunk, and they have children at home. Now I say it's the parents who allow the kids because if you say you don't go out, look after your own child.") **(Family B, participant G2)**.

"Die goeies uitgesluit, maar daar is van hulle wat die kind is daar, mammie moet maar kyk- ek gaan. My ma het vir ons groot gemaak toe die ouer susters van ons wat nou kinders gehad het, sy: 'kyk na jou kind!'Daar is nie van uit gaan en gaan dans en daai nie. Naweke, deur die week, jy moet hier sit en kyk." ("The good ones are excluded, but there are some of them where the child is there, mommy have to watch - I go. My mother raised us when the older sisters of us who had children now said, 'look after your child!' Weekends, through the week, you have to sit here and watch.") **(Family B, participant G2)**.

"oor die kind wat hy by die meisie het. Want die mense het baie kom kla by my van haar en ek was 2 keer al hier by die welsyn mense met haar oor die kind, want sy drink verskriklik en sy kom skel oor daai geld wat hy vir haar moet gee en dan doen sy niks daarmee nie- sy drink dit uit." ("about the child he has with the girl. Because the people came to complain to me a lot about her and I have been here with the welfare people twice with her about the child, because she drinks terribly, and she comes scolding about the money he has to give her and then she does nothing not with it - she drinks it out.") **(Family B, participant G2)**.

"– maar sy los die kind sommer by mense om uit te gaan. Want toe die kind, toe sy (mammie) jonger was ne, dan loss sy die kind by mense, dan kom se die mense vir my die kind is daar en die kind is daar. Nou gaan ons die kind haal daar so dan is sy in de tavern dronk." ("- but she just leaves the child with people to go out. Because when the child, when she (mommy) was younger, she would leave the child with people, then they will tell me that the child is there, and the child is there. Now we go fetch the child, but she is drunk in the tavern.") **(Family B, participant G2)**.

"ek vir my seun gesê ek sal by die huis bly om haar groot te maak, want ek bedoel daai kind was nog klein - sy hou die kind weg van ons af. Sy sê ja ons wil die kind vat. Want dan gaan sy mos nou nie die geld kry nie – sy wil ook nie werk nie. Ek get gesê hoekom gaan jy nie werk nie? Die jongmense werk almal – hulle wil julle eie geld verdien, want daar is

mense wat daar naby haar oupa bly haar oupa het gesê hoekom gaan werk jy nie dan bly die kind by die ouma. Nee, sy wil nie want sy wil die geld net so lekker ontvang." ("I told my son I would stay home to raise her because I mean that child was still small - she kept the child away from us. She says yes, we want to take the child. Because then she won't get the money now - she doesn't want to work either. I'm told why aren't you going to work? The young people all work - they want to make, your own money, because there are people who stay close to her grandfather. No, she doesn't want to because she wants to receive the money just as well.") **(Family B, participant G2)**.

"Ek dink nie so nie (verstaan wat die is om 'n ouer te wees nie), want as jy sien die jong kindertjies wat met die pensies loop dan dink jy, ek wonder of die kind weet waar in sy vir haar nou in laat. Wat ek bedoel daai is n verantwoordelikheid op jou." ("I don't think so (understand what it means to be a parent), because if you see the young children who are pregnant, then you think, I wonder if the child knows lying ahead for her. What I mean by that is a responsibility on you.") **(Family B, participant G2)**.

"Want ek sê hulle is three mansmense hier in die huis, hoekom maak hulle nie die jaart skoon nie." ("Because I said that they are 3 men in the house, why don't they clean the yard.") **(Family B, participant G2)**.

"…want sy is so bang hy gaan nou gesels met my en later wil hy my oorreed om weg te gaan" ("because she (grandmother) was so scared he's going to talk to me now and later he wants to convince me to go away") **(Family C, participant G1)**.

"My ma is eintlik as soos byvoorbeeld soos as ek nodig het met Ashley. Finansieel ook sal sy bybring en so-aan. Sy is lief vir gee en sy is baie lief vir deel." ("My mom is actually as, for example, as I need with Ashley. Financially, she will also contribute and so forth. She loves giving and she loves to share.") **(Family C, participant G2)**.

"Ja advies en wanneer nodig, dan vermaan sy ook vir hulle." ("Yes, advice and when necessary, she also reprimands them.") **(Family C, participant G2)**.

"I think the children actually don't have respect for their grandparents because they are like with their other friends that's parents are also not there and they like think they – 'she is just my grandma – she can't tell me what to do" **(Family C, participant G3)**.

"Waar kry ek my grootste respek vandaan? By my ma." ("Where do I get my greatest respect? From my mother") **(Family A, participant G1)**.

"Sy is baie straight forward. As sy vir jou iets wil sê dan sê sy – sy .... jy weet presies hoe ver staan jy met haar. Ja, ja as jy iets vir 'n persoon wil sê, sê dit. En sê dit straight, moenie om hoekies en draatjies nie." ("She (mom) is very straight forward. If she wants to say something to you then she says - she .... you know exactly how far you stand with her. Yes, yes if you want to say something to a person, say it. And say it straight, do not go around corners and threads.") **(Family A, participant G2)**.

"My pa het vir lank mense se skoentjies gelap. .... Hy het my genoem Bokkie. 'Bokkie kom help gou hier vir pa. Gee gou daai vir pa aan en maak gou vir pa .... Bokkie, ta Maria se skoene is nou klaar ek dink jy moet ta Maria se skoene gaan wegbring. Kom vat die skoenborsel en maak daai skoene eers blink – mooi skoon." ("For a long time, my father has patched people's shoes. He called me "Bokkie". 'Bokkie, come help quickly, for dad. Give dad... and make dad .... … Bokkie, ta Maria's shoes are done now I think you can take

ta Maria's shoes away. Come, take the shoe brush and shine those shoes first –- nicely clean.") **(Family A, participant G1)**.

"Omdat ek kan alles raak gesien het. My ma was ma en pa, want as ons dak stukkend is, dan het sy een gaan soek wat die dak kan 'n stok wat daai in die riet – strooidakhuise – dan was sy die binnelaaier. Jy kan nie 'n binnelaaier gaan vra nie, want daai man wil betaal word. Dan het sy dit gedoen." ("Because I could see everything. My mother was mom and dad, because when our roof was broken, then she was the one to go and look what the roof, a stick those in the cane –- thatched roof house –- then she was the roof thatcher. You cannot ask a thatcher, because that man wants to be paid. Then she did it.") **(Family A, participant G1)**

"En as dit vakansietye gewees het, dan moet jy ook gaan werk. In daai tyd was die werk nog volop gewees. Daai tyd het dit nie oor ouderdomme gegaan nie. As dit vakansie is kan jy maar gaan werk. Maar ek is nie spyt daaroor nie, want daarom het ons geleer en nou dat ons groot is gebruik ons daai. Ons weet van swaarkry. En hier staan ons nou nog. En ek kan 'n paal plant, ek kan 'n gat maak, ek kan." ("And if it had been holidays, then you had to go work. At that time the work was plentiful. Back then age did not matter. If it's vacation, you can go to work. But I do not regret it because that's what we learned and now that we are big, we use that. We know of hardship. And here we are still. And I can plant a pole, I can make a hole, I can.") **(Family A, participant G2)**.

"Wat ek van my ma sal vat – hardwerkend, respek ja en die way wat sy my groot gemaak het. Nie dat alles net vir vroumense is nie – mans kan dit ook doen." ("What I will take from my mother - hardworking, respect yes and the way she reared me. Not that everything is just for women - men can do that too.") **(Family A participant G3)**.

"Ek dink net daar is nie 'n keuse nie. As dit vir my gewerk het en vir hulle gewerk het dan sal dit (vir sy kinders oordra) ..." ("I just think there's no choice. If it worked for me and worked for them, it would (transfer to his children) ...") **(Family A, participant G3)**.

"My pa was 'n tuinmaker hier in Genael vir mense voorsien van groente en goete en so was dit ook maar ek wat die oudste gewees het wat moet uitgestaan het nê. Hy het nie baie op die ander staat gemaak nie, maar dit was maar ekke. Ons gaan nou tuin toe dan moet ek maar by die tuine vir hom goed gaan help plant vir hom en so aan." ("My dad was a gardener here in Genaal for people he provided vegetables and goodies, and so it was me who was the eldest who should have assisted him. He did not make much of the other siblings, but it was only me he depended upon. We are going to the garden now, but I have to help him and go with to the gardens to assist him and so on.") **(Family B, participant G1)**.

"My pa het vir my groot gemaak amper soos seunskinders. Ons moes maar altyd. Hy het nie baie... Ek het net een stiefbroer gehad maar ons was mos 7 meisiekinders was ons gewees so ons moes maar gedoen het wat 'n seunskind moes gedoen het. Ja, almal moet hulle kant gebring het ja." ("My dad raised me almost like his sons. We always needed. He does not have much ... I only had one step brother, but we were 7 girls where we were, so we had to do what a boy had to do. Yes, everyone had to bring their part yes.") **(Family A, participant G1)**.

"Nou soggens voor hulle skool toe moes gegaan het ek altyd eers laat hulle sakkie mis agter die rug sit en dan hier oordra tuine toe. Dit was hulle werk soggens voor hulle nog kan skool toe gaan." ("In the morning, before going to school, I always let them take their bag of manure on their back and then to take over to the gardens. It was their job before they could go to school in the morning.") **(Family B, participant G1)**.

"My kinders - al drie – ek het op die oomblik 3 wat nou lewe en my kinders leer eintlik by my wat my ouma – hoe sy my groot gemaak het." ("My children –- all three –- I currently have 3 who are alive now and my children actually learn from me what my grandmother –- how she raised me.") **(Family C, participant G1)**.

"So, my parents just preach on hard work and they just want the best and they want us to follow our dreams and just study and make something of ourselves." **(Family C, participant G3)**.

"Want ek sê hulle is three mansmense hier in die huis, hoekom maak hulle nie die jaart skoon nie." ("Because I said that they are 3 men in the house, why don't they clean the yard.") **(Family B, participant G2)**.

"Want ek het ook dogters wat ook al kinders het en dan as hulle nie 'n ding reg doen na my sin nie, dan praat ek ook met hulle. Nee man jy kan nie die kind so grootmaak nie – hy kan nie daai doen nie." ("Because I also have daughters who have children and then if they do not do something to my liking, I also talk to them. No man you cannot raise the child like that - he cannot do that") **(Family B, participant G1)**.

"Met discipline en ons moet lief wees vir mekaar en ons het ook – ons was 7 kinders bymekaar en ons het ook nooit lelik gewees met mekaar nie. So ek het maar my kinders ook so opgebring." ("With discipline and we have to love each other and we also - we were 7 kids together and we have never been rude with each other. So, I've reared my children to this.") **(Family B, participant G1)**.

"My ma het vir ons groot gemaak toe die ouer susters van ons wat nou kinders gehad het, sy: 'kyk na jou kind!' Daar is nie van uitgaan en gaan dans en daai nie." ("My mother raised us when the older sisters of our's had children of her own:" Look after your child! "It's not about galivanting and going to dance and that.") **(Family B, participant G2)**.

"Ja dis te danke, want as hulle nie sulke rol gespeel het nie in 'n mens se lewe nie, sou ek nie vandag so 'n ouer wees vir my kinders nie." ("Yes, it's due to, because if they had not played such a role in a person's life, I would not be the parent for my children today.") **(Family B, participant G3)**.

"Ja, hulle leer my baie dinge – ek kan baie dinge by hulle leer, dan weet hulle nie eers daarvan nie. Ek meen maar ek kyk hoe hulle vir hulle hanteer, dan probeer ek daai toepas op my kinders." ("Yes, they teach me a lot of things - I can learn many things from them, they do not even know about it. I mean, I would see how they handle things, and I try to apply them to my children.") **(Family B, participant G3)**.

"Ja, so ek wil hê hulle moet ook so lewe soos ons." ("Yes, so I want them to also to have a life like we had.") **(Family B, participant G3)**.

"If I have children, I would do what my parents are doing, because I think they are doing a good job." **(Family C, participant G3)**.

"Ek dink ek sal meer verhouding gehad het. Praat saam met hulle (children), ons doen nie dit nie. (father-son relationship)" ("I think I would have had more of a relationship. Talk to them (children), we did not. (father-son relationship)") **(Family A, participant G3)**.

"They've had the culture where other people's children were their children. They looked after the child if that child is just in the street without a parent and if that child is

someone else's child did wrong, he would spank that child and treat the child as your own. So, I think if something like that would be brought back to like it will also help to better the attitudes and gain respect from the children." **(Family C, participant G3)**.

"Kinders kry nie meer daai eintlik wat ons gekry het nie. Jy word nie in die pad gestraf nie, jy moet binnekom en dan word jy binne gestraf." ("Children do not really get what we got. You are not punished in the road; you must come in and you will be punished.") **(Family B, participant G1)**.

"Ek wil nie vir hulle – kyk ek het nie daai strengheid…. as ek nou vir hulle gesê het vanaand 10 uur in die huis, of daaityd in die huis en hulle is nie daar nie, dan sal ek nie nou skel en vir hulle pakgee nie. Ek sal net sê jy het laat gekom nê? En next time as jy kom – ek gaan nie vir jou kos hou nie. Dis al. Maar ek hou tog die kos en ek dinges nie." ("I do not want them - see I do not have that strictness …. if I've told them tonight 10 o'clock to be in the house or that time in the house and they're not there then I will not scold or punish them. I'll just say you came late? And next time you come - I'm not going to keep food for you. That's all. But still I do set aside their food and the things I do.") **(Family B, participant G2)**.

"Miskien is dit omdat ek gevoel het, somtyds as 'n mens nou dink vandag – my een suster sê ouma het vir ons abuse, maar ek glo nie – dit is nie abusement nie. Dit is net waar jy verkeerd doen dan moet jy mos gestraf word voel ek nou. Maar toe het ek nou net anders beweeg via die straf." ("Maybe it's because of I've felt, sometimes when one think of it today - my sister says grandmother abused us, but I do not believe it - it's not abuse. It's only where you do wrong, you have to be punished, and it's how I feel now. But then I just moved differently through the punishment.") **(Family C, participant G1)**.

"Maar ek het nou nie pak gegee nie." ("But I was not the one to discipline.") **(Family C, participant G1)**.

"I think they are not so strict like their parents were. And they allow more freedom. And then you don't get hidings." **(Family C, participant G3)**.

"Wat party mense doen – hulle drink en hulle lawaai met die kinders of so, maar ons ouers het nou nie vir ons daai dinge voorgegaan nie. Dis maar wat ons ook gesien het toe ons nou groter word. Het ons ook gesien hulle geniet 'n drinkie, maar hulle was nooit moeilik in die huis nie of moeilik met ons nie. Maar ek vat tot vandag toe nou nie sulke dinge nie." ("What some people do - they drink and make noise with the children or so, but our parents have not preceded us for such things. That's what we saw when we grew older. Have we also seen them to have a drink, but they were never difficult at home or difficult with us? But till today I do not like doing such things.") **(Family B, participant G1)**.

"Maar soos wat vandag se kinders, hulle het die babies, dan gaan hulle nog altyd uit." ("But as today's children, they have babies, then they still go out.") **(Family B, participant G2)**.

"En weet jy wat is die probleem? Onse ouers is of te jonk en ongekunde moeders, verstaan jy? Dis wat ons het baie enkelouers." ("And do you know what's the problem? Our parents were too young and unknowledgeable mothers, do you understand? That's why we have many single parents.") **(Family C, participant G2)**.

"Sy los sommer die kind by die oupa ook en dan gaan sy haar rigting dan kom sy more terug." ("She just leaves the child at the grandpa and go her merry way, then she cames back the next day only.") **(Family B, participant G2)**.

"Hulle (parents) het niks te doen met die kinders deesdae nie. Hulle gaan net waar hulle wil en die kinders los hulle alleen." ("They (parents) have nothing to do with the children these days. They go where they want and the children, they leave them at their own devices.") **(Family B, participant G3)**.

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"Wat ek verskillend sal doen is dat as my kinders op 'n ouderdom is van 29 of 25 en hulle het self kinders, dan sal ek vir hulle – gaan op julle eie – staan op julle eie voete. My ma doen nou nie daai nie. Sy hou die oues nog in die huis en daai vir my is so snaaks, want jy moet al op jou eie bene staan. Jy moet jou eie plekkie kry. Jy kan nie vir altyd onder mammie se vlerke wees nie Nou my ma is so, sy wil nie haar kinders laat gaan nie – sy wil nog terughou en so." ("What I will do differently is that if my children are at age 29 or 25 and they have children themselves, then I will go on your own - stand on your own feet. Now, my mom does not do that . She is still in the house and the one for me is so funny, because you have to be on your own legs. You have to get your own place. You cannot always be under the wings of my mother now my mom is so, she does not want to let her children go - she still wants to hold on to them and so.") **(Family B, participant G3)**.

"Baie keer wil ek praat – ek is te streng met my kinders dan stap my ma in en dan sal sy sê nie so nie, so. Dan sê ek julle maak my confused want ek is hulle ma, so hulle moet na my luister en dis vir my baie ackward   - ons het dit nou baie kere en so. Dis hoekom ek sê ek sal daai ding different doen. Ek sal verwag my kinders moet as hulle 21 is en hulle het nog nie kinders nie of hulle het kinders – gaan op julle eie. Ek wil kyk of julle op julle voete kan staan." ("Many times, I want to talk - I'm too strict with my children then my mom walks in and then she will say not like that, so. Then I say you make me confused because I'm their mother, so they must listen to me and it's very awkward for me - we have it many times and so. That's why I say I'll do that thing differently. I will expect my children if they are 21 and they do not have children, or they do have children - go live on your own. I want to see if you can stand on your own feet.") **(Family B, participant G3)**.

"Vir my is dit – ek het vir my oudste enetjie gesê skool klaar maak is baie belangrik vir mammie, mammie was nie daar nie maar ek wil alles in mammie se vermoë doen om vir jou die beste te gee in die lewe. Mammie het nie daai gedoen nie, mammie wil hê jy moet mammie bewys. So ek alles in die ...? net om dit vir jou te gee my kind. Want ek het nie daai gehet nie." ("For me, it - I told my eldest one to finish school is very important for mommy, mommy was not there but I want to do everything in mommy's ability to give you the best in life. Mommy did not do that, Mommy wants you to prove to mommy. So, I do everything in the ...? to give it to you my child. Because I did not have one.") **(Family B, participant G3)**.

"Man hulle ek sal nie sê – die twee ouer kinders wat hier by my ma gewees het, hulle sal nog, maar die jongste enetjie – hy is 'n bietjie – hy is soos ek sal sê, meer met die jonger spanne. Hy het nou meer in die moderne tyd – hoe sal ek nou sê – kyk die modern tyd is mos heel anders as wat ons gewees het." ("They, I will not say - The two older children who were with my mother, they will still, but the youngest one - he's a bit - he's like I'll say, more with the younger ones. He has been more in modern times - how would I say - see the modern time is very different from what we have been.") **(Family B, participant G2)**.

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