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Impact of parenting styles on emotional and behavioral problems of preschool children in Gaza governorates.

Hani Mohammed Al Hanafi

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Prepared By:

Hani Mohammed Al Hanafi

B.Sc: Nursing, Palestine college of nursing - Palestine

Supervisor:

Dr. Ahmad Abu Tawaheen, PhD

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Prepared By: Hani Mohammed Al Hanafi
Registration No: 20812812

Supervisor: Dr. Ahmad Abu Tawaheen

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The names and signatures of the examining committee members are as follows:

1- Head of Committee : *Dr. Ahmed A. Tawahin* Signature ....
2- Internal Examiner : *Dr. Abdel Aziz. M. Thabet* Signature *Dr. A. Thabet*
3- External Examiner : *Prof. Dr. Mohamed w. Elhelou* Signature *E.Chelou Mahil .w*

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بِسْمِ اللهِ الرَّحْمنِ الرَّحِيمِ

وَاخْفِضْ لَهُمَا جَنَاحَ الذُّلِّ مِنَ الرَّحْمَةِ وَقُل رَّبِّ ارْحَمْهُمَا كَمَا رَبَّيَانِي صَغِيرًا

{الإسراء-24}

إهـــــداء

أهدى هذا العمل إلى روح والدي الطاهرة التي تنير لي الطريق

و إلى روح والدتي العطرة التي تهديني إلى الطريق

والتي استسلمت لقدرها عندما كنت في بداية دراستي

و أتألم كلما تذكرت أنها لن تهنئني بهذا الانجاز،

أتذكر قلبها الكبير و ابتسامتها العذبة.

....

....

و زوجتي

و أبنائي

و بناتي

الذين كانت محبتهم، الدعم و التشجيع لي

Dedication

To the pure spirit of my father, which illuminate the way for me..
To the aromatic spirit of my mother, which guide me to the way..
She succumbed to her Destiny as I was halfway through my Master studies, and it pains me to think she was unable to help me celebrate this accomplishment. Remembering her big heart, big smile, and easy laugh continues to brighten my days.

To my wife ………………………………………

To my sons ………………………………………

To my Daughters …………………………………………

Whose love, support and encouragement make me stronger ……….

I

Declaration

I certify that this thesis submitted for the degree of master is the result of my own research, except where otherwise acknowledged, and that this thesis (or any part of the same) has not been submitted for a higher degree to any other university or institution.

Signed ………………….

Hani Mohammed al Hanafi

Date :……………………

Abstract

The aim of this study is to investigate the Parenting Styles (PS) and its relations to emotional and behavioral problems in preschool children. Descriptive analytical type of study has been adopted to explore parenting styles (PS) used in the five governorates of Gaza Strip, with 91% Responding Rate, of total preschool children, N=24911, were registered in 251 Kinder Garten (KGs) in Gaza Strip, among the total of 361 preschool children's parents succeeded to complete two questionnaires, Parental Authority Questionnaire (PAQ) which measure the parenting style used by the parent who competed the questionnaires. The second is the Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaires (SDQ) which measure the five areas representing emotional and behavioral problems that have been impacted by (PS). The study outcomes indicated that: highest mean scores goes for authoritative parenting followed by permissive and authoritarian. Children gender does not have relation with emotional and behavioral problems of the pre school children as reported by parents. Parents reported both emotional and behavioral problems, hyperactivity, and conduct problems of the children more frequently among those who have family members "1-3" but family number did not have a significant relation with the type of parenting style practiced by parents. Middle area has significant relation with emotional, peer relation, conduct, and with prosocial, Family income doesn't show significant relation with emotional and behavioral problems. Authoritative style was found to be of significant value, when tested against conduct and peer relation problems. Secondary education level which represents(42.7%) of the study sample, has got significant relation with prosocial behavior, and basic level (13.0%) has a significant relation with conduct problems. But basic level has got a significant relation with authoritarian style.Parents age has no significant relation with preschoolers behavioral problems. Un expectedly, Family income doesn't show any significant impact on emotional and behavioral items included in SDQ, according to the study.The study, by the end, has found correlation between authoritative style and both: peer relations problems and conduct problems of the preschoolers and with socio-demographic variables.

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List of Abbreviations

PAQ	Parental Authority Questionnaire
PS	Parenting Style
ADHD	Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder
CD	Conduct Disorder
SDQ	Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire
MOHE	Ministry Of Higher Education
PCBS	Palestinian Central Bureau for Statistics
AGR	Annual Growth Rate
KG	Kinder Garten, KG1& KG2
ODD	Oppositional Defiant Disorder
SES	Socio-Economic Status
ICD-10	International Classification of Diseases
DSM-IV	Diagnostic and Statistical Manual
DR	Divorce Rate
d.f	degree of confidence
p	level of statistical significance
PTSD	Post Traumatic Stress Disorder
SD	Standard Deviation
t	Value of t test
x^2	Chi- square
α	Alpha Cronbach

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Chapter 1

1. Introduction

1.1 Historical background

Interest in children in the early twenties of the last century had been started with the emergence of laws to protect the child, that interest released its first Declaration of the Rights of the Child in 1923, and followed by the Geneva Declaration of the Rights of the Child in 1924 (Brian Harrison 2007).

The General Assembly of the United Nations adopted in 1959 the World Declaration on the Rights of the Child and the subsequent announcement of the year 1979 as the International Year of the child. Parent–child relationships and parenting processes are emerging as potential life course determinants of health. Parenting is socially patterned and could be one of the factors responsible for the negative effects of social inequalities on health, both in childhood and adulthood (Belsky, et al, 2006). Early childhood, from birth through age six, is a critical time for children to develop the physical, cognitive, emotional, and social skills that provide the foundation for lifelong healthy development. (Paula, et al, 2005). This critical time for children's development needs critical nurturing and parenting.

Childhood emotional well-being determines adult emotional well-being. Adult emotional well-being is the primary determinant of the quality of adult relationships and therefore of social well-being in communities and societies.

Developmental psychologists have long been interested in how parents impact child development. (Kendra Cherry, 2005). During the early 1960s, psychologist Diana Baumrind conducted a study on more than 100 preschool-age children. Using naturalistic observation, parental interviews research, she identified four important dimensions of parenting:

- Disciplinary strategies

- Warmth and nurturance

- Communication styles

- Expectations of maturity and control

Based on these dimensions, Baumrind (1966), suggested that the majority of parents display one of three different parenting styles. Further research by others also suggested the addition of a fourth parenting style. (Maccoby & Martin, 1983). The four styles of parenting that have been described by researchers are authoritarian, authoritative, permissive and uninvolved parenting.

Conversely, children who share a home and are raised in the same environment can grow up to have astonishingly different personalities than one another. (Kendra Cherry, 2010), Based on these dimensions, Baumrind suggested that the majority of parents display one of three different parenting styles. A child's behavior could be due to the parenting style (PS) that has been conducted in his family. In Islamic teaching and instructions related to the parenting and its importance, and in the heritage of Islamic culture, many highlights and concerns about how to rear the

children properly, both in Quran and Sunna. How to protect children from negative influences, how to discipline them, and how to deal with parenting issues, Giving them the praise and respect they deserve in front of others as shown in the following: Prophet Mohammad was brought a cup and he drank from it. There was a boy, the youngest of the people, on his right and some elders on his left. He said, "O young boy, will you allow me to give this to the elders?" The boy said, "I will not give away my share of your blessings to anyone, O Messenger of Allah. So he gave the cup to him (Saheeh Al Bukhari). Allah has given the children rights over their parents, such as education and a good upbringing, spending on their needs, and treating them fairly. One of the bad social phenomena that are to be found in some families is the lack of fair treatment towards the children. Some fathers and mothers deliberately give gifts to some of their children and not others. It is fully the responsibility of parents for the upbringing of their children held accountable for negligence in their rights was narrated by Anas that the Messenger peace be upon him said: "God means what every shepherd been entrusted saved or lose." (Saheeh Muslim, 139).

According to the correct view, this is a haraam action (taboo), unless there is some justification for it, such as one child having a need that the others do not have, e.g., sickness; debt; a reward for memorizing the Qur'an; not being able to find work; having a large family; full-time studies, etc. The parent should have the intention – when giving something to one of his children for a legitimate (shar'iah) reason – that he will do the same of any of his other children should the need arise. The

general evidence for this is the ayah (Interpretation of the meaning):

"Be just: that is nearer to piety; and fear Allah."

[Qur'an al-Maa'idah 5:8].

The Prophet (peace and blessings of Allah be upon him) said to the man who had preferred one of his children over others in giving him a gift: "Would you not like all of them to honor you equally?" (Narrated by Imaam Ahmad, 4/269; Sahih Muslim, no. 1623). Al-Nu'maan ibn Basheer who said: "My father gave me some of his wealth, and my mother 'Amrah bint Rawaahah said: 'I will not accept this until you ask the Messenger of Allah (peace and blessings of Allah be upon him) to bear witness to it.' So my father went to the Prophet (peace and blessings of Allah be upon him) to ask him to bear witness to the gift he had given me. The Messenger of Allah (peace and blessings of Allah be upon him) said to him, 'Have you done this for all your children?' He said, 'No.' He said, 'Fear Allah and treat all your children fairly.' So my father came back and took back his gift" (Muslim, no. 1623). Previous excerpts i.e. Islamic instructions and guidance related to the parenting and rearing of the offspring. Some example show more respect to children.

A family environment that promotes communication, i.e. talking to each other and listening to each other helps contribute to the development of the skill of communication in children. Only by taking time to talk to our children at home, and in turn listen to them, we can teach them how to communicate. In The Convention on the Rights of the Child which had been issued in 1989, it contains 3

parts and 54 articles, it has vowed to protect and promote children's rights and support the growth and development and against all forms and levels of violence may be directed against him, and included in article 19 of the Convention to protect the child from all forms of violence and physical and mental abuse, sexual exploitation and other (UN High Commissioner for Human Rights, November, 2002). Empowering family members to make decisions within guidance teaches problem solving skills.

Families can work on problem solving by helping teach their children to define the problem.   They can then think of different solutions, evaluate the solutions and make a plan to carry out a solution to solve the problem. Living a good, moral life can show children how to behave and help them develop the skill of making sound, moral decisions. Parents need to set a good example for their children. Children learn from seeing how their parents treat them, overhearing parents' interactions with others and observing what they do in different situations (Sharon L, 2008). The family generates events that perverts or, rather, be fertile ground for the deviation of the young is well known that the child is born a blank page and ready fully to be a good example of life and directed towards the good or evil due to upbringing or social environment which is of such elements of personal belief and behavior, customs and traditions, which casts doubt on all of us as a family , individuals, educational institutions, scientific, social and media formidable responsibilities about our lives and protect their childhood influences from all malignant behavior (Sharon L, 2008).

1.2 Statement of the problem

Many early childhood parents and educators in Palestine and the Arab world still put more emphasis on academic attainment with little attention being placed on behavioral, social and emotional development of the preschoolers. Even though the early childhood educators, policy makers and parents do not fully understand how a child's behavioral and emotional development is linked to rearing experience, and how one affects the other? Preschoolers' parents should understand the importance of personal, social and emotional skills that have significance in terms of their implications for children current and future success. Therefore, it is now important to focus a study on the understanding of the main caregivers, mainly parents and teachers, in the preschool child's personal, behavioral, social, and emotional development. This combines with the need to learn more about the effect of parenting style which has been adopted and its impacts on the child's actual behavioral, social and emotional traits that arise impact due to the effects of interactions with parents and their offspring.

1.3 Justification of the study

Palestinian society, like most traditional societies, is largely patriarchal. Fathers are considered the heads of households, with decision-making authority in family matters. This authority, however, comes with the responsibility for the family's economic well-being and security. In this regard, gender roles in Palestinian society is seen as distinct, but complementary. Women take primary responsibility

for raising the children and maintaining the household. In this role, women serve as the glue that holds the family together and as the keeper of family bonds and affinity. Families gather often to share meals, exchange stories and news of loved ones. Several generations of women typically prepare the meals together, passing on family recipes and keeping family bonds strong. (IMEU, 2006). Since parents are the main caregivers in the Palestinian society and the family is the basic foundation, PS in child rearing is something important because it is going to shape the child character and his future psychological profile, either conflicts and overwhelming or stability and well-being will be the outcomes. Application of parenting style, will determine the characters and the shape of the child's future psychology profile and the developmental stage the child will engage in (Eccles, et al, 1998). Studying the impact of parenting styles among preschoolers, leads us to scope in a scientific way how PS is being practiced. Even in the street we could hear people talk about the negative consequences of neglecting the children or punishing them, but no positive solution could be heard any way.

For instance, whereas Barkley (1991) have speculated that the inattentive, hyperactive, and impulsive behavior seen in children with Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD), increases parent-child conflict and negative family communication, Khamis (2006) found that children in the three subtypes of ADHD reported higher levels of parental psychological maltreatment, gender inequities, anxiety in proximal home environment (i.e., family ambiance) and lack of parental support than did non- ADHD children (Davies & Windle, 1997) and

(Scherer, et al. 1996). Punitive parenting characterized by harsh and often erratic disciplinary actions is associated with children's internalizing symptoms, including depressiveness and anxiety (Jenni. A, et al, 2003). Hoping that this study will enlighten our perception toward better understanding of this attitude.

1.4 Importance of the study,

This study will focus on the following important issues:

1 - To shed light on some types of parental styles used by Palestinian parents and its impacts on children's behavior.

2 - Importance of parental knowledge and methods of treatment and their impact on the psychological construction of their children.

3- Importance of clarifying the relationship between parenting and the growth of behavioral and emotional problems.

4- To highlight Palestinian social institutions, about the consequences of the behavioral problems resulting from the wrong parenting and its impact on the child.

5 - The results that may emerge from this study can contribute to the development of some of the new ideas and solutions that can be used in psychological counseling and by families for the treatment of behavioral disorders in children.

1.5 Objectives

1.5.1 General objective

To investigate the impact of the applied PS on the preschoolers emotional and behavioral problems, so as the researcher can understand that relationship and hopefully be able to insight both parents and teachers about new concepts that relate to their parenthood and impacts on the target offspring.

1.5.2 Specific objectives

1- To investigate the types of parenting styles.

2- To identify the most common emotional and behavioral problems among the preschool children.

3- To find the differences in parenting styles according to children emotional and behavioural problems.

4- To find differences in parenting styles, behavioural and emotional problems and other sociodemographic variables.

1.6 Research questions

The Research Questions would be identified as follows:

1- What are the most common types of PS used by Palestinian parents living in Gaza Strip?

2- What are the main common types of emotional and behavioral problems among the preschoolers living in Gaza Strip?

3- Is there a significant relationship between parenting styles and preschoolers behavioral problems?

5- Is there a significant relation between preschoolers behavioral problems and socio-demographic variables of parents?

6- Is there a significant relation between parent's socio-demographic variables and the adopted parenting style?

1.7 Context of the study

1.7.1- Geographical context

All governorates of Gaza Strip will be included in this study which has been carried out during the period from February to October, 2010. Six sectors of Gaza strip were divided as follow: northern region, eastern Gaza, western, middle region, Khanyounis, and Rafah region. The Gaza Strip has a roughly rectangular territory surrounding the city of Gaza, wedged between the Mediterranean Sea and Israel. To the southwest, it shares about nine-mile border with Egypt. The region has a long history of occupation by the ancient Egyptians, the Philistines, the Arabs, the Christian Crusaders, and the Ottomans. After World War I, the Gaza area became part of the British Mandate of Palestine, and it was administered by Egypt in 1948, in the aftermath of the first Arab-Israeli war. The area of the Gaza strip is 378 km square according to the 1949 armistice line. Israel took control of the region during the Six-Day War in 1967, along with West Bank, eastern Jerusalem, the Golan Heights, and the Sinai Peninsula. In 1994, Israel withdrew from parts of Gaza Strip as part of its obligations under the Oslo Accords (which also affirmed the rights of

the Palestinians to self- government). The rectangular Gaza Strip is about twenty eight long and four to nine miles wide. One long side lies along the Mediterranean. One short, straight end borders Egypt: This follows the border that existed between Egypt and the British Mandate of Palestine. This border was established after the first Arab-Israeli War, which also resulted in the creation of Israel. Gaza region became Egypt's military headquarters during the 1948 conflict, and the narrow coastal following a decisive Israeli victory—the final position of the military fronts became what's known as "the Green Line," or the border between the Palestinian territories (both Gaza Strip and West Bank) and Israel.

1.7.2 Demographical context

According to 2007 last national census, total population of the residents in Gaza is 1,416,543 with male 718,711 and female 697,832 number of families is 219,220 with average family size 6.5 while the annual growth rate (AGR) was 3.3%. the percentage of married 49.6% , divorce rate (DR) 0.2% , and the average number of individual in a room is 2.0 person/room, According to the Ministry of higher education (MOHE), total preschool children population in 2009-2010 censuses is 24911, 12397 male and 12514 female (PCBS, 2007).

As declared earlier, in the same report on the status and conditions of the children of Palestine that the age structure of Palestinian society in general and children in particular indicates that the Palestinian society is still young, where the children under five years of age accounted for 15.9% of the total population residing in the

Palestinian territories, Dr. Loai Shabana, (2007) head of the Central Bureau of Statistics PCBS, said in a press release that the number of individuals under the age of 18 years has reached 1.9 million children representing about 50.9% of the total population, by 48.0% in the West Bank and 55.6% in Gaza Strip (Pal press, 2008). As reported by the UN Food and Agricultural Organization, about two-thirds of the population, 50 percent of whom are under the age of 18 years, are suffering from food insecurity (Organization of the United Nations Children's Fund 2008).

1.7.3   Educational context

Kindergartens estimated numbers: 251 total: North Gaza 56, west Gaza 36, East Gaza 35, middle region 35, Khanyounis 43, and Rafah 46. (Scholastic year 2009-2010). Public, 135 and private 114, and governorate only 2. With total Principals 251, and as many as 1146 female teachers. The total number of its preschoolers is distributed as follows: North Gaza 6976, East Gaza 3911, West. Gaza 2914, Mid-region 3423, KY 3980, and Rafah 3707. Total class divisions 1056, as KG1 and KG2 and the Total population of all preschool children registered in MOHE is 24911. (MOHE Manual 2010)

1.8 Definitions of terms:

Academic attainment

Excellence in all academic disciplines, in class as well as extracurricular activities. It includes excellence in sporting, behavior, confidence, communication skills, punctuality, assertiveness, arts, culture, and the like. Operationally, it's the degree

of child achievement that satisfies parents.

Anxiety

Anxiety may be defined as a diffuse state (Barney and Kerney, 1988), characterized by affective experience marked by a significant degree of apprehensiveness about the potential appearance of future aversive or harmful events (Di Tomasso and Gosch 2002). It's an unpleasant emotion triggered by anticipation of future events, memories of past events or rumination about the self (Encyclopedia of Mental Disorders, 2006)

Attachment parenting

The child forms a strong emotional bond with caregivers during childhood with lifelong consequences. Sensitive and emotionally available parenting helps the child to form a secure attachment style which fosters a child's socio-emotional development and well being (Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia, 2009).

Conduct disorder:

According to Evans, (2003), CD is a steady pattern of harming others or their property, lying, stealing, or breaking societal rules of behavior. Remote instances of acute behavior, running away, or vandalism is not enough to merit a diagnosis of CD. it is a behavioral and emotional disorder of childhood and adolescence. Children with conduct disorder act inappropriately, infringe on the rights of others, and violate the behavioral expectations of others,(free Dictionary, 2010).

Emotional and behavioral problems

Pattern that occurs in an individual and is thought to cause is tress or disability that is not expected as part of normal development or culture. I.e. temperament, conduct, ADHD, fears, lies, and anxiety (Goleman, 1995). The terms emotional versus behavioral disorders are broadly synonymous with internalizing (e.g. anxiety), and externalizing conditions (e.g. ADHD) (Fiori et al., 2000) and are going be used in this study.

Parenting styles (PS)

The act of "parenting" implies an ongoing dynamic bidirectional relationship between the caregiver and child (Smith, 1997). Parenting has also been defined as "anything the parent does or fails to do that may affect the child" (Kendziora & O'Leary, 1993).

Parenting behaviours include: playing, disciplining, teaching, caring for children's physical needs and establishing a pleasant emotional environment (Kendziora & O'Leary, 1993). The operational definition of (PS), that would be adopted by the researcher in the study, "The way in which parents raise their children".

Prosocial behavior "Voluntary behavior intended to benefit another person". "Pro-social" is the opposite of anti-social. Anti-social actions result in others feeling distant while, while prosocial actions are relationship skills that invite others to feel positive and seek interaction (Riley, San Juan, et.al, 2008).

Social Competence

Consists of relationship skills. It involves responsiveness, the ability to elicit positive responses from others; flexibility, including the ability to move back and forth between primary culture and dominant culture (cross-cultural competence); and empathy, caring, communication skills, and a sense of humor. Benard (1995) Operationally: It is the prosocial attitudes that Preschooler acquired for social activities.

Temperament

Buss and Plomin (1984) define temperament as a set of inherited personality traits that appear early in life. Operational definition is: A person's natural disposition or inborn combination of mental and emotional traits.

Conclusion of chapter 1

Parents have some responsibilities which they can never escape from as much as they bring children into this world. They are responsible for meeting the physical, social, emotional, psychological and spiritual needs of their children. Through proper socialization, they are expected to nurture the children and groom them, ready for launching them into the society. Importance of parenting in Islam was mentioned briefly, as a historical background both in Holy Quran and Sunnah. Unfortunately, some of these parents fail in these responsibilities and rather encourage some antisocial behaviors in their children. They openly exhibit those

maladaptive behaviors for children to emulate and do not monitor what their children do. There is therefore the need to arrest these prevailing conditions if the country is to forge ahead in its sustainable development programs. As future leaders it is imperative to 'catch' the youths when they are young. When children are well-adjusted and disciplined, the nation, the citizenry and the world at large will experience peace. Six research questions covering the research title, hopefully to be answered by the end of the research.

Chapter II

2.0 Theoretical framework of parenting and related topics

2.1 Parenting styles

Historical context

In most societies, parents have the main responsibility for socializing their children, and thus parents can not avoid having an impact on their children's personality and character. This section will discuss the conceptualization of parenting, the four different parenting styles defined by Baumrind (1960) and Maccoby and Martin (1983), children's Emotional and Behavioral problems as related to parenting styles, besides many other factors i.e. socio-demographic factors, and these will be reported along with the sub-scales of Parental Authority Questionnaires, (PAQ), and Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaires, (SDQ) in the next chapter.

The foundation of Western parenting typologies used today consists of early factor analytic studies conducted more than four decades ago. These early factor analyses identified important parenting dimensions, and this dimensional approach was widely used in examining socialization influence (Hart, Newel. 2003). For instance, Symonds, 1939, identified two parenting dimensions, acceptance/rejection and Dominance/submission. Similarly, Schaefer ,1959, employed two dimensions, love/hostility and autonomy/control, and further explored parenting styles that varied along those dimensions. While this

dimensional approach was popular and substantially increased our understanding of the influence of socialization, those dimensions were largely based on empirical findings from factor analyses and often lacked a strong theoretical groundwork (Darling & Steinberg, 1993). Diana Baumrind's ,1967, 1971, work has been recognized as a meaningful divergence from the early empirical, factor-analytic tradition. Her model was more theoretical than earlier ones and elaborated on one single parenting domain—parental control (Darling & Steinberg, 1993).

In her influential monograph, "Current Patterns of Parental Authority," Baumrind, 1971, identified three distinct patterns of parental authority: authoritative, authoritarian, and permissive parental control. Rather than focusing solely on the amount of parental control like some of the earlier studies on parenting, Baumrind ,1967, 1971, identified "three qualitatively different types of control" (Darling & Steinberg,1993).

 While Baumrind's typologies derived from her study of various patterns of parental authority, she found that other parental attributes, such as socialization goals and communication skills, were also closely related to the distinction that she had made among the three patterns of parental control.(Maccoby and Martin's ,1983) work was influential in linking Baumrind's typologies back to the earlier studies on dimensions. (Ai Shibazaki Lau, 2006). They attempted to combine Baumrind's approach with a dimensional approach by describing Baumrind's parenting styles as a function of two theoretical dimensions: responsiveness, or: how well the parent is attuned to the child and able to respond to the child's needs

and interests, and demandingness or. (Control): how much the parent supervises and disciplines the child and requires obedience and self-control. Based on differences in the two parental dimensions, four parenting styles were categorized as authoritative (high responsiveness/ high demandingness), authoritarian (low responsiveness/ high demandingness), permissive (high responsiveness/ low demandingness), and uninvolved (low responsiveness/ low demandingness) (Maccoby & Martin, 1983). Parenting is usually defined as anything parents do, or fail to do, that may affect their children. Some conceptualizations make a further distinction between parenting practices and parenting styles, with parenting practices (such as discipline) encompassing what parents do (e.g., spank, hug) and styles implying how parents do it (e.g., with warmth or hostility). Parenting is associated with both temperament, and child psychopathology . (E.Flouri, 2007).

2. 2 Theories of development

2. 2.1 -Freud's psychosexual development

Freud's Psychoanalytic Theory   describes child development as psychosexual stages in which interests become focused on a particular body site.

2. 2.1.1 Phallic stage (ages three to six).

Also known as Oedipal, The pleasure zone switches to the genitals. Freud believed that during this stage boy develop nconscious sexual desires for their mother. Because of this, he becomes rivals with his father and sees him as competition for the mother's affection. During this time, boys also develop a fear that their father

will punish them for these feelings, such as by castrating them. By identifying with his father, the boy develops masculine characteristics and identifies himself as a male, and represses his sexual feelings toward his mother. A fixation at this stage could result in sexual deviancies (both overindulging and avoidance) and weak or confused sexual identity according to psychoanalysts. Preschooler - Phallic phase - Children may show exhibitionism; Leads to increased knowledge of the two sexes.

2. 2.2- Piaget's theory of cognitive development

2. 2.2.1 Pre school children development is in preoperational period: (2-7).

The Preoperative stage is the second of four stages of cognitive development. By observing sequences of play, Piaget was able to demonstrate that towards the end of the second year, a qualitatively new kind of psychological functioning occurs.

2. 2.2.2 (Pre)Operatory thought

is any procedure for mentally acting on objects. The hallmark of the preoperational stage is sparse and logically inadequate mental operations. During this stage, the child learns to use and to represent objects by images, words, and drawings. The child is able to form stable concepts as well as mental reasoning and magical beliefs. The child however is still not able to perform operations; tasks that the child can do mentally rather than physically.Thinking is still egocentric: The child has difficulty taking the viewpoint of others. Two substages can be formed from preoperative thought.

2. 2.2.3 The Symbolic function substage

Occurs between about the ages of 2 and 4. The child is able to formulate designs of objects that are not present. Other examples of mental abilities are language and pretend play. Although there is an advancement in progress, there are still limitations such as egocentrism and animism.

Egocentrism occurs when a child is unable to distinguish between their own perspective and that of another person's. Children tend to pick their own view of what they see rather than the actual view shown to others. An example is an experiment performed by Piaget and Barbel Inhelder (1948/1967). Three views of a mountain are shown and the child is asked what a traveling doll would see at the various angles; the child picks their own view compared to the actual view of the doll. Animism is the belief that inanimate objects are capable of actions and have lifelike qualities. An example is a child believing that the sidewalk was mad and made them fall down.

2. 2.2.4 The intuitive thought substage

Occurs between about the ages of 4 and 7. Children tend to become very curious and ask many questions; begin the use of primitive reasoning. There is an emergence in the interest of reasoning and wanting to know why things are the way they are. Piaget called it the intuitive substage because children realize they have a vast amount of knowledge but they are unaware of how they know it.

Centration and conservation are both involved in preoperative thought. Centration is the act of focusing all attention on one characteristic compared to the others. Centration is noticed in conservation; the awareness that altering a substance's appearance does not change its basic properties. Children at this stage are unaware of conservation. In Piaget's most famous task, a child is represented with two identical beakers containing the same amount of liquid. The child usually notes that the beakers have the same amount of liquid. When one of the beakers is oured into a taller and thinner container, children who are typically younger than 7 or 8 years old say that the two beakers now contain a different amount of liquid. The child simply focuses on the height and width of the container compared to the general concept. Piaget believes that if a child fails the conservation-of-liquid task, it is a sign that they are at the preoperational stage of cognitive development.

2. 2.3 Erikson's theory of psychosocial development

Erikson's psychosocial theory is very powerful for self-awareness and improvement, and for teaching and helping others. While Erikson's model emphasises the sequential significance of the eight character-forming crisis stages, the concept also asserts that humans continue to change and develop throughout their lives, and that personality is not exclusively formed during early childhood years.The better that people come through each crisis, the better they will tend to deal with what lies ahead, but this is not to say that all is lost and never to be

recovered if a person has had a negative experience during any particular crisis stage. Lessons can be revisited successfully when they recur, if we recognise and welcome them.

Everyone can change and grow, no matter what has gone before. And as ever, understanding why we are like we are - gaining meaningful self-awareness - is always a useful and important step forward.

2. 2.3.1 Initiative v guilt (3-6 yrs, pre-school, nursery)

Play Age, Erik Erikson's theory of psychosocial development is one of the best-known theories of personality and development. Similar to Sigmund Freud, Erikson believed that personality develops in a series of predetermined stages. Unlike Freud's theory of psychosexual stages, Erikson's theory describes the impact of social experience across the whole lifespan. If they are frustrated over natural desires and goals, they may easily experience guilt. The most significant relationship is with the basic family.(Erikson, E.1968).

Preschooler - Initiative vs. guilt - Learning initiative is learning how to do things. Children can initiate motor activities of various sorts on their own. Giving freedom & opportunity to initiate motor play i.e. running, bike riding, sliding, wrestling, or play with materials such as finger paints, sand, water & modeling clay; Parent's answering questions; Not inhibiting creative or fantasy play, all enforce their sense of initiative. If they are made to feel their motor activity is bad, questions are bothersome, play is silly or stupid they may develop guilt instead. Initiative is the capability to devise actions or projects, and a confidence and belief that it is okay

to do so, even with a risk of failure or making mistakes. Guilt means what it says, and in this context is the feeling that it is wrong or inappropriate to instigate something of one's own design. Guilt results from being admonished or believing that something is wrong or likely to attract disapproval. Initiative flourishes when adventure and game-playing is encouraged, irrespective of how daft and silly it seems to the grown-up in charge. Suppressing adventure and experimentation, or preventing young children doing things for they because of time, mess or a bit of risk will inhibit the development of confidence to initiate, replacing it instead with an unhelpful fear of being wrong or unapproved. The fear of being admonished or accused of being stupid becomes a part of the personality.

This crisis stage correlates with Freud's psychosexual Phallic stage, characterized by a perfectly natural interest in genitals, where babies come from, and as Freud asserted, an attachment to the opposite sex parent, and the murky mysteries of the Oedipus Complex, Penis Envy and Castration Anxiety, about which further explanation and understanding is not critical to appreciating Erikson's theory. What's more essential is to recognize that children of this age are not wicked or bad or naughty, they are exploring. (Erikson.E. 1968)

2.3 Importance of preschool education

As we notice in the last years either locally, regionally, and internationally, the extent Governments approaching the process of preschool education. Importance of this stage of development as approved by many researches worldwide and its future

influence on the child physically, emotionally socially and intellectually have been thoroughly investigated. Studies in the last 30 years have confirmed the significance of the preschooler early experiences on his success or failure in all aspects of life (Shonkoff & Merisels, 2000). Barnett, 2000 added that many longitudinal studies found that early intervention in caring and educating the preschoolers who need that services increases the chance to success lately. This positive result has been able to be accomplished only after those studies took place on many different geographical areas with various educational and cultural backgrounds such as in USA, Brazil, Germany, India, Ireland, and Turkey.

2.3.1 Importance of parenting:

The importance of parenting arises from its role as a buffer against adversity (such as poverty or delinquent influences) or mediator of damage (as in child abuse) (Long. 1996). There are several aspects of parenting that could be mentioned such as understanding growth and development of a child, where to learn what you need to know for successful parenting, and of course disciplining your child. A child is wonderful person to have in your life. They offer unconditional love as well as entertainment for your life. There are many reasons individuals have children, but it is of course love that draws on the parenting aspect and the need to continue our families. A child that doesn't receive the proper parenting may not have the best life, and as a parent you want the child to have the best life possible, otherwise you wouldn't be looking for articles on parenting. There is no one way to parent a

child. There have been several successful methods throughout history. You just have to find the aspects that work with your child the most (Dear Diary, 2006). Unconditional love should be a part of parenthood. Family time is an important aspect of being a parent and in this technological age sometimes it is too easy to forget about interaction. When from their first breath we love them beyond all reason we are also teaching them to be independent. This can be one of the biggest lessons we have to learn as parents. Recently, attempts were made to rearrange Maslow Hierarchy Pyramid for human motivation placing parenting at the apex. Brief comparison will follow:

2.4 Revised pyramid of needs

Douglas Kenrick, (2010) had different idea about the apex of the original human motivation pyramid, where he suggested to replace self actualization by parenting. A brief comparison is found in the next paragraph.

2.4.1 Comparison of the old and new pyramids:

A group of academic psychologists recently re-arranged Maslow's pyramid, placing parenting at the top and simultaneously angering many alternate-lifestyle groups. But is the new pyramid really as controversial as it has been portrayed? Douglas Kenrick, (2010), the principal author of the new research, "Renovating the pyramid of needs:" defended his ideas in Psychology Today. Kenrick states that Maslow's

pyramid was inspirational, while the new ranking is not; it is based more on evolutionary psychological theories. "[The research team] argued that human motives are, like all psychological mechanisms, designed to facilitate reproduction, and that Maslow largely overlooked that," Kenrick wrote. So having the opportunity to pass along one's genes, and to ensure that those genes would go beyond the next generation via healthy children, would be the ultimate goal of any living being. That's where the word "parenting" came into play, as opposed to simply "procreation" (Kenrick, 2010), see annexes page 120-121

2.5 Baumrind's Parenting styles
This Table shows the matrix of the four parenting styles:

Table (2.1) - Matrix of the four parenting styles (PS)

	Demanding	**Undemanding**
Responsive	**Authoritative** (Positive)- Democratic	**Permissive** (Indulgent)
Unresponsive	**Authoritarian** (Disapproving)	**Uninvolved** (Neglectful)

Source: E.E. Maccoby and J.A. Martin (1983) - with modification.

- Authoritative Parents are demanding (controlling) and responsive (supporting).

- Authoritarian Parents are demanding but not responsive.

- Indulgent, (Permissive) Parents are responsive but not demanding.

- Neglectful, (Uninvolved) Parents are neither responsive nor demanding.

2.5.1 Authoritative parenting style.

Generally, authoritative parents are affectively responsive. They are not only loving and supportive, but also sensitive to children's individual interests and needs, which requires a certain amount of flexibility in parenting (Baumrind, 1989). Authoritative parents exercise control, but they do so in combination with warmth, democracy, and open communication (Baumrind, 1971). Accordingly, they seek to make rules and expectations clear for children and reason with them so they can understand the rationales for setting rules and the consequences for not meeting them (Baumrind, 1996; Pettit, Bates, & Dodge, 1997). This facilitates verbal give and take (Baumrind, 1989) and teaches children to think dependently (Baumrind, 1996). These unique features of authoritative parenting have been summarized in terms of three stylistic dimensions: connection, regulation, and autonomy granting Barber & Olsen, 1997; Hart, Newell., 2003). Connection refers to the degree of warmth and acceptance shown to a child, and regulation is concerned with the degree of behavioral control placed on a child. Autonomy granting indicates the degree to which parents grant psychological and emotional autonomy to children, and it is also reflected in the degree of democratic participation (Hart, Newell. 2003).

2.5.2 Authoritarian parenting style.

Although both authoritative and authoritarian parents attempt to regulate their children's behavior, the two styles differ in their degrees of parental warmth and

responsiveness. Unlike authoritative parents, authoritarian parents typically attempt to control children's behaviors without exhibiting much acceptance and support (Baumrind, 1971). Whereas authoritative parents generally regulate children's behavior in a logical, issue-oriented manner, authoritarian parents are less concerned than authoritative parents with teaching or preparing children (Hasting & Rubin, 1999).

Verbal give and take is not commonly encouraged by authoritarian parents who place great emphasis on authority and strict obedience (Baumrind, 1991; Maccoby & Martin, 1983). Authoritarian parenting has been found to consist of three disciplinary dimensions: verbal hostility (e.g., shouting, yelling), corporal punishment (e.g., spanking, slapping), and nonreasoning/punitive strategies (e.g., punishing without explanation, threatening without justification) (Robinson, Mandleco, Olsen, & Hart, 1995; Wu., 2002). It should be noted that although authoritative and authoritarian parents both exercise a high degree of control, they engage in "qualitatively different types of control" (Darling & Steinberg, 1993).

Therefore, it seems important to distinguish different forms of behavioral control used by authoritative and authoritarian parents (Nicole M. Callaway, 2003). As pointed out by Aunola and Nurmi (2005), "the operationalization of behavioral control has varied from one study to another". More specifically, behavioral control has been examined in terms of limit setting and maturity demands (e.g., Baumrind, 1989, 1991; Maccoby & Martin, 1983), monitoring and supervising (Gray & Steinberg, 1999; Pettit & Laird, 2002; Pettit, Laird, Dodge, Bates, & Criss,

2001), or harsh control, such as yelling, name calling, and physical threats and aggression (e.g., Chang, Schwartz, Dodge, & McBride-Change, 2003; Nelson & Crick, 2002; Pettit 1997). While positive forms of behavioral control, such as maturity demands, limit setting, reasoning, monitoring, and supervising, are more often employed by authoritative parents (Baumrind, 1971, 1996), authoritarian parents tend to engage in harsh, negative forms of behavioral control such as verbal hostility and physical punishment (Ambert, 1997; Baumrind, 1996; Brody., 2001). Parents reporting greater levels of parenting stress have been found to be more authoritarian in their parenting styles, more negative in their interactions with their children, and less involved. Although there are clear indications that parenting stress has pervasive detrimental implications for parents' own reports of their parenting and general well-being, the degree to which such stress affects actual parent behavior and the quality of the parent–child relationship remains in question. It is critical to establish links to actual independently observed behavior to avoid the method confound in self-reported stress with self-reported outcomes. (Crink and Lowman, 2002).

2.5.3 Permissive parenting style :(indulgent).

In contrast to Authoritative and Authoritarian parents, permissive parents exercise relatively little control over their children and may overindulge them (Hart, Newell., 2003). Permissive parents are not only warm toward their children, but also tend to show more tolerant, accepting attitudes toward child impulses. Consequently, they make few demands for mature behavior and offer few

consequences for misbehavior (Maccoby & Martin, 1983).

Another tendency of permissive parents is to not use overt power or authority to accomplish their objectives and in fact, often avoid using it at all costs (Hart, 2003). Moreover, permissive parents have a tendency to encourage children's autonomy without providing parental guidance or parameters (Maccoby & Martin, 1983). For instance, they may provide minimum restrictions governing their children's time schedule with regard to TV watching and bedtime. Compared to authoritative and authoritarian parenting styles, little attention has been given to the conceptualization of permissive parenting dimensions. In an empirical, factor analytic study; exploratory factor analysis yielded three parenting dimensions within the typology of permissive style: not following through, ignoring misbehavior, and low self-confidence (Robinson et al., 1995). Conceptually, failing to follow through and ignoring misbehavior seem to be closely related as they both reflect parents' tendency to indulge children and refrain from exercising firm control (Feldman, 2008, p. 264)

2.5.4 Uninvolved parenting style. (dismissive)

Uninvolved parents are low on both "responsiveness" and demandingness" and may engage in rejection or neglect in extreme cases. While uninvolved parenting can be an important area of study particularly for understanding child neglect, a majority of parents usually fall into one of the other three categories: authoritative,

authoritarian, and permissive parenting styles. Therefore, like most previous studies on Baumrind's parenting typologies (Robinson, 1995), this paper will also focus on the three parenting styles (authoritative, authoritarian, and permissive), excluding further discussion on uninvolved parenting. Uninvolved, (Dismissive) parenting is in many ways similar to permissive parenting but the parent does not care much about the child. Whether permissive and uninvolved are to be considered as one style or divided into two styles. In the case of this paper, three parenting styles will be considered. The reason for this distinction is the characteristics of these styles and the relationship that is fostered between children and parents with these respective styles (Feldman, Couple. G, 2008).

2.5.5 Psychological control- (Theoretical concept)

While various types of behavioral control were discussed with authoritarian parenting, recent studies have also pointed out the importance of studying another major type of control: psychological control (Barber, 1996; Barber & Harmon, 2002). Psychological control "refers to control attempts that intrude into the psychological and emotional development of the child" (Barber, 1996) through use of parenting practices such as guilt induction, withdrawal of love, or shaming. One key difference between authoritarian and authoritative parenting is in the dimension of psychological control. Both authoritarian and authoritative parents place high demands on their children and expect their children to behave appropriately and obey parental rules. Authoritarian parents, however, also expect their children to accept their judgments, values, and goals without questioning.

Barber. B (2005) had mentioned that: Psychological control refers to parents' actions that attempt to change the Child's thoughts or feelings, ignores or dismisses the child's views and withdraws love or affection; such parental behavior has been associated with the development of depressive symptoms later in a child's life. In contrast, authoritative parents are more open to give and take with their children and make greater use of explanations. Thus, although authoritative and authoritarian parents are equally high in behavioral control, authoritative parents tend to be low in psychological control, while authoritarian parents tend to be high (Barber. B, 2005)

The distinction between behavioral and psychological control is based on the difference between strategies parents engage in to control children's behavior versus their psychological experiences (Barber, 1996; Barber & Harmon, 2002). Many recent studies Aunola & Nurmi, (2005); Finkenauer, Engels, & Baumeister, (2005) and Galambos, Barker, & Almeida,(2003) have applied this distinction and have deepened our understanding of how behavioral and psychological control uniquely impacts children's social development. In contrast to behavioral control, which can take an either positive or negative form, psychological control is typically regarded as a negative type of parental control because it seems to be "associated with disturbances in psycho emotional boundaries between the child and parent, and hence with the development of an independent sense of self and identity" (Barber & Harmon, 2002).

While some scholars consider psychological control to be a separate parenting

style, others have pointed out that psychologically controlling means are often employed by authoritarian parents to deride, demean, or diminish children (Hart, Newell, & Sine, 2000). Although Baumrind did not specifically mention the term psychological control in her earlier studies in: 1967, 1971, 1991, and 1996: Barber and Harmon, (2002) commented, "She has written more than any other researcher about parental attitudes and behaviors that violate the psychological integrity of children in the context of her description of authoritarian parenting". In fact, in her recent work, Baumrind (2005) stated that "intrusive processes included in Barber's Psychological Control Scale are markers of an authoritarian style of control, typically associated with poor adjustment". Thus, at least in the Western context, there seems to be a close association between authoritarian parenting and psychological control.

Researcher's opinion will be: Nevertheless, there is still room for debate regarding whether psychological control is part of authoritarian parenting or should be considered a separate parenting style. There is a strong link between both styles; psychological control and authoritarian, since parents' actions attempt to change the Child's thoughts or feelings, ignores or dismisses the child's views and withdraws love. One need to remember is that he needs to choose the style with care.

2.6 Parenting style vs. behavior

Bryce, et al,(2006) in their study examining the relation between parenting style or behavior and childhood anxiety have focused on three parenting dimensions:

acceptance, control, and modeling of anxious behaviors. Various researchers have contrasted parenting style with specific parenting practices or behaviors (Darling & Steinberg, 1993; Maccoby, 1992). Parenting style is a general pattern of care giving that provides a context for specific episodes of parental childrearing behaviors; but it does not refer to a specific act or set of acts of parenting. In contrast, parenting 'practices' or behaviors' are conceptualized as specific kinds of parental interactions with children in specific situations. Thus, a self-report item that assesses an accepting parenting style might be, 'My parent understand show I feel,' whereas an item assessing specific parenting behaviors might be, 'Today before school, my parent let me know s/he understood how I was feeling.' Parenting practices or behaviors are hypothesized to directly affect children's emotional and behavioral regulation (Darling & Steinberg, 1993).

2.6.1 Parenting styles (PS) and components

The many naturally occurring opportunities of day-to-day life allow children to be sympathetic and helpful to peers (Honig, 1982). These social skills include many strategies children learn to help them initiate and continue social interactions, to negotiate, and to settle conflicts (Spence, S. H, 2003). During the first years of life – thought by many to be a unique period of human development – parents assume special importance. As parents guide their young children from complete infantile dependence into the beginning stages of autonomy, their styles of care giving can have both immediate and lasting effects on children's social functioning in areas from moral development to peer play to academic achievement. When parent

conduct and attitude during the preschool years do not reflect an appropriate balance on these spectra, children may face a multitude of adjustment issues (Bornstein, 2007).

This study will consider most of the behavioral and emotional problems children might have, i.e. hyperactivity, conduct problems, fears, scared, temperament and lies, cheats, steals and peer problems and finally prosocial.All of previously mentioned symptoms are included in the informant rated strengths and difficulties questionnaires (SDQ). Parenting styles PS, are broad patterns of child rearing practices, values, and behaviors. Four types of parenting styles are indulgent some call it peremissive, (more responsive than demanding), authoritarian (highly demanding and directive but not responsive), authoritative (both demanding and responsive), and uninvolved (low in responsiveness and demandingness) (Darling 1999). The authoritative parenting style balances clear, high expectations with emotional support and recognition of children's autonomy. Parenting styles include two important components of parental demandingness and parental responsiveness. Parental responsiveness is also called parental supportiveness and it is an indication of the extent to which parents are able to foster self regulation, individuality and self assertion through support towards the needs of the children. Parental demandingness is an indication of the ability of parents to integrate the children within the family through supervision and the willingness to confront the disobedient child (Ashwini, 2009). Studies have associated this parenting style with self-confidence, persistence, social competence, academic success, and

psychosocial development (Bloir 1997; Strage and Brandt 1999). Authoritative parents provide a warm family climate, set standards, and promote independence, which result in more active career exploration on the part of children (Kracke 1997). In this research, the researcher hopes, that he could add highlighting to the most suitable style of parenting that fits locally, considering researchers local resources and cultural beliefs including socio-political situation.

2.7 Attachment theory (John, Bowlby 1969).

The attachment process is defined as a "mutual regulatory system," with the baby and caregiver influencing one another over time. Attachment is an enduring affective bond characterized by a 'tendency to seek and maintain proximity to a specific person, particularly when under stress. (Levy, et al, 1998).

Attachment is therefore not something that parents simply do to their children (Levy et al. 1998), but rather a creative process involving both the infant and the mother. The attachment bond may also be seen as the context within which the infant learns to regulate its emotions (Sroufe 1990). Attachment is the deep and long-lasting emotional connection established between a child and caregiver in the first several years of life. (Ainsworth, 1973; Bowlby, 1969). Clinical theories of borderline personality disorder (BPD) identify attachment insecurity as the basis of its characteristic disturbed interpersonal functioning (Choi-Kain, Lois W.2009).

2.7.1 Functions of attachment

It profoundly influences every component of the human condition: mind, emotions, relationships and values. This is not something that parents do to their children; rather, it is something that children and parents create together in an ongoing reciprocal-relationship (Jacobson & Wille, 1986). Attachment is a physiological, emotional, cognitive, and social Phenomenon. Instinctual attachment behaviors in the baby are activated by cues or signals (I.e., social releasers) from caregivers (smile, eye contact, holding, rocking, touching, feeding) (Main, Kaplan, & Cassidy, 1985). Beyond the basic function of secure attachment-providing safety and protection for the vulnerable young via closeness to a caregiver-there are several other important functions for children developmentally: to learn basic trust and reciprocity, which serves as a template for all future emotional relationship. To explore the environment with feelings of safety and security "secure base", which leads to healthy cognitive and social development.

 To develop the ability to self-regulate, this results in effective management of impulses and emotions. To create a foundation for the formation of identity, which includes a sense of competency, self-worth, and a balance between dependence and autonomy, to establish a prosocial moral framework, which involves empathy, compassion, and conscience, and to provide a defense against stress and trauma, this incorporates Resourcefulness and resilience (Levy & Orlans, 1998).

2.7.2   Importance of attachment

This brings one to the realization and urgency that personal, social and emotional skills should be reinforced during the early ages of childhood development. The attachment preschoolers have with their parents has a profound impact on their social-emotional development. Attachment security during preschool also has been shown to be a reliable predictor of early conscience development (Laible & Thompson, 2000) and of the development of a positive view of the self. Such children have been found to be high in self-esteem, socially competent, cooperative, popular, and empathic. In contrast, preschoolers with avoidant attachment have been viewed as isolated and disconnected, and preschoolers with resistant attachment have been described as disruptive and difficult (Bar-Haim, Sutton, & Fox, 2000). After 4 years of working with and learning about children and adults diagnosed with 'Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder' (ADHD), (Randall D. Landier and Alice Massanari, 1996) have assembled a developmental model that explains the origin of this controversial disorder. It is based on the belief that attachment trauma in early childhood results in developmental deficits which, in the absence of remedial parenting, are likely to be manifested as the symptoms of ADHD. Model can be stated very simply:

Bonding breaks → Attachment deficits → Symptoms of ADHD.

This model is based on information gleaned from detailed assessments of all clients diagnosed with ADHD, each of which provided clear evidence of what we have come to call a "bonding break"-an event or combination of events, occurring

prenatally or postnatally, that causes physiological trauma and developmental arrest and interferes with a child's opportunity to form a secure attachment with a caregiver. This developmental model answers the question: "What causes ADHD?" It also provides a treatment plan that makes medication the treatment-of-Last-resort and emphasizes the reparation of attachment deficits instead of attention deficits (Randall and Alice 1996).

Finally, the importance of attachment has been emphasized by Karen Stephens, (2004) attachment and bonding should be reinforced throughout the early childhood years. The strong emotional ties an infant forms with family and caregivers needs to be enriched and further developed. Preschoolers who enjoy secure attachments and responsive child-rearing maximize benefits first seeded in infancy. These include an optimistic attitude toward life and greater resilience to stress or trauma. Refined brain development and learning pathways expand, too. Preschoolers' trust in adults, self-confidence, and even immune system get a boost from strong emotional attachments. (Karen Stephens, 2004).

2.8 Temperament of preschool children

Today, temperament has become the generally acknowledged term to refer to the study of individual differences in infants, toddlers, preschoolers and school-age children. Traditionally, temperament refers to individual differences that appear from birth onward, remain relatively stable across the lifespan, and presumably have a strong genetic or neurobiological basis (Goldsmith et al. 1987). Psychiatrists

Thomas and Chess, (1977) considered temperament as behavioral style, as the "how" rather than the "why" or the "what" of behavior. They suggested that temperament is a contributor to the interactions between parent and child, a view consistent with the reciprocal-effects interpretation of Bell (1974) and of Sameroff and Chandler (1975).

2.8.1 Temperament and parenting

In recent decades, it has been increasingly recognized that the child is not a passive participant in parent–child interactions and that what the child brings to the interaction, particularly in terms of his/her temperament, may influence parenting and parent–child interactions (.Bell, 1968; Lytton, 1990). Many models of development also emphasize the potential influence of parenting on child temperament.

2.9 Emotional and behavioral problems, a conceptual outlook

Gimpel and Holland, (2005) consequently caution against too much faith in statistical figures. Still, recent studies estimate that the prevalence of behavioral and emotional problems in preschool children has increased over the past two decades to more than 10%. This number is considerably higher among preschool and kindergarten children who live in an 'at risk' environment. Gimpel and Holland's text is part of the intervention methodologies whose development has expanded together with the prevalence of problems in young children. Emotional and behavioral problems of young children addresses early intervention and

prevention methods specifically for children in the pre- school and kindergarten age group. Emotional and behavioral problems of young children begins with an overview of common problems, which Gimpel and Holland, (2005) have categorized into internal and external problems, abuse and neglect problems and pervasive developmental disorders additionally, there is a miscellaneous category. Types of maladjustment in children are often broadly categorized as internalizing and externalizing disorders. Internalizing refers to problems whose central feature is disordered emotion (e.g. anxiety, and depression), in contrast, externalizing are those whose central feature is dysregulated behavior (e.g. conduct disorder, ADHD) (Gasper and Paiva, 2004).

Gimpel and Holland, (2005) discuss some of the mental health-screening tools for young children, which have been developed over the past decade. Gimpel and Holland discuss characteristics of standardized social /emotional / behavior screening tools, most of which assess general social and emotional behaviors as well as adaptive abilities and play skills. also discuss qualitative methods, such as interviews with teachers, parents, child, and observation techniques and offer thus an inclusive and comprehensive approach to early intervention. Studies indicate that as many as 20% of preschool children in the general population show moderate to clinically significant levels of emotional and behavioural problems (Lavigne. 1996). Early emotional and behavioural problems have significant implications for young children as these problems may interfere with the acquisition of age-appropriate skills and adversely affect developmental trajectories

(Patterson & Stoolmiller, 1991) and may place children at risk for future problems. Early childhood, from birth through age 6, is a critical time for children to develop the physical, cognitive, emotional, and social skills that provide the foundation for lifelong healthy development (Paula M Barrett, 2005). The early childhood setting offers an ideal opportunity for young children to develop personal, social and emotional skills with peers and adults. As with any skill, it is through practice in real situations that children develop competence in adult and peer interaction (Gimpel and Holland, 2005).

2.10 Review of literature

In the following review researcher will find some literatures mainly addressing impacts of various (PSs) on preschoolers' five types of emotional and behavioral problems as reported in strengths and difficulties questionnaires (SDQ):

2.10.1 Literatures addressed parenting and conduct problems:

CD is differentiated from other psychiatric disorders diagnosed in children by the following criteria: "persistent pattern of behavior in which the basic rights of others or major age-appropriate societal norms or rules are violated" (American Psychiatric Association, 2007). But Throughout this study, the generic term "Conduct disorders" CD, is used to refer to clinically diagnosed behavioral disorders. Most children exhibit instances of poor judgment and bad behavior at least one time in their childhood. The distinction is children with CD break the

rules over and over again, exhibit aggressive behavior, and show no regard for others. The behavior is not considered CD until the symptoms are displayed for one year or more (American Psychiatric Association, 1994).

Aggression is to a great extent a learned behaviour (Bandura, 1973; Berkowitz, 1962; Eron,Walder and Leftkowitz, 1971). Morton (1987) argued that socio-culturally, delinquent children are frequently reared in homes that offer little understanding, affection, stability or moral clarity. In Skinner's (1953) instrumental theory, also known as 'operant conditioning', he demonstrated that the environment has a much greater influence on learning and behavior. This is mostly observed at the formative period of one's life. Environmental response to behavior according to Skinner serves either to reinforce or eliminate learning and behavior. According to Skinner, if a response is reinforced, it is more likely for that behavior to re-occur. Therefore parents who reinforce antisocial behaviors in their children encourage such behavior to reoccur. Nagin and Farrington (1992) also believe that the tendency to commit crime is established early in life, perhaps around the pre-school years, and this is the period that the home environment determines almost all that the child does or leaves undone for example, his actions and inactions (E. A. Uwe, et.al2002).

For the purpose of this research authoritarian parenting styles will be discussed. The characteristics of an authoritarian parent are extremely restrictive and demanding rules. Parents who utilize this style tend to hamper children's autonomy

and force them to follow stringent rules by threatening harsh punishment (Marsiglia., 2007).

The use of punitive and forceful measures to enforce proper behavior causes anger, resentment, and deceit and impairs wholesome parent-child relationships (Bettelheim, 1985). In Baumrind's 1967 research, preschoolers with authoritarian parents are withdrawn and unhappy. They appear anxious and insecure with peers and react hostilely if frustrated. Baumrind's 1971 research shows girls to be dependent and lacking in motivation and boys much more likely to be angry and defiant. In addition, children of authoritarian parents are less likely to internalize (accept as their own standard) society's unacceptable behaviors (Grusec and Goodnow, 1994) and are more likely to have low self-esteem (Coppersmith, 1967). These children often model their parents' inflexible thinking (Dekovic, Genis, and Janssens, 1991).This type of parenting may lead children to believe they are not responsible for their actions; by contrast, when actions are questions they assume it is not their fault. According to numerous psychological theories parent-child relationship can generate psychological disorders such as anxiety, identity confusion and conduct disorder (Dwairy, 2006).

Hoeve. Et. al. (2008) concluded from their study a strong link between parenting styles and delinquency; therefore, they recommended future research include parenting styles in measuring serious behaviors which are classified as conduct problems. Parental psychopathology and parenting behavior may be potentially important risk or protective factors in developmental outcomes for these children

with concurrent conduct problems. Parental stress and maladaptive parenting may foster the development of Conduct problems (Johnson & Mash, 2001) as cited by (Chronis., 2007). The link between exposure to violence in the home and community is a crucial risk factor for conduct disorder according to research by (Elze. I., 1999; Fergusson & Horwood, 1998; Jouriles., 1989; Kaplan., 1998) as cited in (McCabe., 2005). Violence exposure can take place in many places within the child's environment including: (1) victimization and witnessing child abuse; (2) community violence; (3) parental abuse (McCabe., 2005).

The influences of individual factors are multifaceted and confusion. Family dysfunction is repetitively identified as one of the crucial factor for Conduct problems in adolescence. Poor parental supervision is the preeminent predictor of violence and vandalism committed by boys. Psychosocial disturbances in children and adolescence bring together a comprehensive range of research to shed light on these young people who become parents of tomorrow; these parents who were diagnosed with conduct disorder predispose their child to the same disorder (Pearce, 1996). Low socioeconomic status and the number of siblings in the home are associated with higher probability of children exhibiting CD (Stevenson, 1999).(Somerstein ,2007) reveals the common family dynamic in many individuals' histories of male terrorist is authoritarian parents. Milkie, and Mattingly (2002) saw PS at different viewpoint indeed; they assessed how ideals and realities in child-rearing practices influence parental well-being.

Findings revealed that more women than men feel that ideally, parents should share child rearing. In actuality, mothers are more actively involved in several dimensions— disciplining children, playing with children, providing emotional support, and monitoring children's activities. Mothers' well-being was adversely affected when fathers did not achieve the mothers' expectations.

William Bor; Matthew R. Sanders, (2004), had studied the authoritarian style of parenting in a study titled correlates of self-reported coercive parenting of preschool- aged children at high risk for the development of conduct problems. This study examines the correlates of coercive parenting in a high-risk sample of 305 three-year-old children likely to develop later conduct problems. As parental coercion (authoritarian) has been identified as a significant risk factor for future psychopathology, the study sought to identify modifiable inter and intra-personal factors most closely associated with coercion (Anne Thompson, 2003). Key variables known to place young children at future risk, such as maternal mood states, current child behavior problems, demographic characteristics such as low income, past mental health problems and parents' sense of competence, were analyzed based on parent-report measures and clinical interviews. Correlation and hierarchical regression analysis identified key predictors of coercion. The result was. Three variables emerged as the strongest predictors of maternal coercion: self efficacy, child behaviors and maternal depression. Demographic factors contributed little to the model.

Researchers concluded that Enhancing parental self-efficacy, especially specific

parenting tasks with disruptive young children has the potential to make a significant contribution toward prevention of future conduct problems. Researchers J. Hutchings, et.al,(2004), in their evaluation of the Webster-Stratton group parenting programme with parents of 'at risk' pre-school children in sure start centers across Wales for parent support research programme, University of Wales Bangor concluded that: maternal mental health problems are strongly associated with child conduct problems, with 50% of children with conduct disorders having parents with significant mental health problems, particularly depression (Alpern & Lyons-Ruth, 1993; Hutchings, 1996a, 1996b).   There are differences in the behaviour of depressed mothers towards their children from early in their child's lives (Loeber, 1990) if these persist they may contribute to the development of conduct disorders (Patterson, 1982).

2.10.1.1 Parent-child interaction

It is important to identify how mothers and fathers are affected by their child's Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD) for several reasons. According to the ecological systems approach to studying the family, (sometimes referred to as family systems theory) a change or difficulty xperienced by one family member ultimately impacts the entire family unit and creates the need for family adjustment or adaptation (Seligman and Darling, 1989). The ecological systems approach also suggests that parents have a significant influence on the behavior exhibited by their child and that a child's conduct has a mutual or reciprocal influence on parenting behavior (Bernier and Siegel, 1994; Bubolz and Whiren, 1984; Elgar et al., 2004).

This sub-title of such importance if the researcher conceptualizes it from the family system point of view, a study titled: Pathways Between Profiles of Family Functioning, Child Security in the Interparental Subsystem, and Child Psychological Problems: by Patrick T. Davies, E. Mark Cummings, and Marcia A. Winter, (2004) This study was designed to delineate pathways between systems profiles of family functioning, children's emotional insecurity in the interparental relationship, and their psychological adjustment in a sample of 221 children and their parents. Consistent with family systems theory, cluster analyses conducted with assessments of marital, coparental, and parent–child functioning indicated that families fit into one of four profiles:

A- Cohesive families, characterized by warmth, affection, and flexible well-defined boundaries in family relationships;

B- Disengaged families, reflected in high levels of adversity and low levels of support across family subsystems;

C- Enmeshed families, evidenced by high levels of discord and weak maintenance of relationship boundaries in the family unit; and

D- Adequate families, defined by elevated parental psychological control within a larger family context of low discord and high warmth. Research has suggested that parents of children with Conduct problems frequently lack several important parenting skills. Parents have been reported to be more violent and critical in their use of discipline, more inconsistent, erratic, and permissive, less likely to monitor their children, as well as more likely to punish pro-social behaviors and to reinforce negative behaviors. A coercive process is set in motion during which a child

escapes or avoids being criticized by his or her parents through producing an increased number of negative behaviors. These behaviors lead to increasingly aversive parental reactions which serve to reinforce the negative behaviors. When summarizing the results of the previous study, the following findings could be obtained: the present findings support the utility of understanding children's emotional security in the interparental relationship in the context of broader family relational patterns encompassing the marital, coparenting, and parent–child subsystems. Supporting predictions, specific onfigurations of family functioning characterized by enmeshment and disengagement were especially robust predictors of children's emotional insecurity and psychological symptomtalogy. Furthermore, children's difficulties preserving their security in the interparental relationship partially explained why family disengagement and enmeshment were associated with greater psychological problems in children. (Patrick T. Davies, E. Mark Cummings, and Marcia A. Winter,2004). Differences in affect have also been noted in conduct disordered children. In general their affect is less positive, they appear to be depressed, and are less reinforcing to their parents. These attributes can set the scene for the cycle of aversive interactions between parents and children (Webster-Stratton & Dahl, 1995).

2.10.2 Literatures addressed parenting effects on emotional development

The diagnostic criteria for the childhood disorders specifically require that symptoms first appear at some point during childhood. Adults may find themselves relating to some of the symptoms characteristic of one or more childhood

disorders, but unless those adults first experienced their symptoms as children themselves, whatever it isthat they may have will not be a childhood disorder, but instead, some other adult diagnosis (Dombeck, 2008). Many childhood disorders are often labeled as developmental Generally, when we speak about childhood disorders, we are referring to mental and emotional problems that most often occur and are diagnosed when children are school aged or younger. Usually, symptoms start during infancy or in early childhood, although some of the isorders may develop throughout adolescence (Dombeck, 2008). In studying early childhood emotional and social development: as a key for emotional expressiveness and understanding, and to emphasize the relation between emotional health and prosocial development, (Angela Oswalt, 2008), first defined that emotional intelligence" is term used to describe someone's ability to express his or her emotions appropriately, to correctly interpret other people's emotions, and to understand the triggers and outcomes of certain emotions. Children with high levels of emotional intelligence are also skilled in their ability to cope with their own or other people's emotions in a way that creates positive social connections. During early childhood, most children show great gains in each of these developmental skills. Advancing in emotional intelligence is lifelong goals that can help people maintain emotional health and prosocial, cooperative behaviors. (Gaspar, et al, 2001) found that, The use of positive discipline and supervision by parents of children from low socio economic status, SES only is significantly associated with the development of child prosocial competence and the inconsistency in disciplinary practices acts as a risk factor to development in this

group alone. Additionally only for this group, is lower use of appropriate discipline a risk factor for the development of difficulties. The use of positive discipline and supervision by parents of children from low SES only is significantly associated with the development of child prosocial competence and the inconsistency in disciplinary practices acts as a risk factor to development in this group alone. Additionally only for this group, is lower use of appropriate discipline a risk factor for the development of difficulties.

2.10.3 Literatures addressed parenting impact on preschoolers' prosocial behavior.

In a topic parents, peers, and prosocial behavior by (P.C. Broderick, P Blewitt 2006) When studied social emotional development, self-esteem and identity, temperament and personality, they began an examination of parenting behaviors and of the development of self-control, compliance, prosocial behavior, and conscience in infants and preschoolers. they observed that these aspects of moral development are, on the whole, most effectively launched when parents are authoritative in their style, on one hand, warm, responsive, and sensitive in their caregiving and, on the other hand, demanding, requiring that children live up to standards and values appropriate to their level of maturity (Baumrind, 1989, 1993; Maccoby & Martin, 1983).

The methods of control that seem to foster internalization of those standards and values in the long run involve mild power assertion, sufficient only to capture the

child's attention but not to arouse a lot of anxiety, and induction (explaining why it is important to share, for example). It should be noted that parents who are demanding without warmth and sensitivity (the authoritarian style) may actually interfere with prosocial development. At least for toddlers, this parenting style has been associated with reductions in children's empathic responding (Robinson, Zahn-Waxler, & Emde, 1994). Extremes of negative parenting, resulting in child abuse, seem to suppress prosocial responding to others' distress and promote more negative responding, such as aggression. Finally, providing children with opportunities for prosocial action seems to help encourage a commitment to altruistic action. (Eisenberg and Fabes ,1998) call this "the foot in the door effect." For example, (Eisenberg, Cialdini, McCreath, and Shell, 1987) found that starting in middle childhood; children who are encouraged to donate in one context are more likely to engage in helping behavior later in another context. This was mostly true for children who valued being consistent. It may be that once children begin to form a stable self-concept, they are more likely to value consistency, and that practicing prosocial behavior then fosters further prosocial activities as children seek to maintain a coherent self-concept. But there are probably other benefits to practice in some contexts, such as gaining increased feelings of competence and obtaining social approval (P.C. Broderick, P Blewitt ,2006) and (Angela Oswalt, 2008) identifies that Language can also allow children to better regulate their feelings, self-soothe in response to negative feelings, and exert some control over emotion-provoking situations. For example, very young children may run away or hide from a person who makes a scary face. In contrast, older children can tell the

same person that his faces are scary, ask him to stop making faces, and/or remind hemselves that, that person is trying to be silly rather than mean. In addition, as older children develop the ability to take other people's viewpoints, they can start to change or stop their behaviors that might hurt someone else's feelings. Sharon L. Chlipala, (2008) from Western governors university, concluded that. The ability to communicate, problem solving and a good moral character, making sound moral decisions, are skills or personal capabilities that contribute to positive social development in a wide range of life's social roles and responsibilities. The family environment is extremely important in development of children's skills and capabilities. A strong link can be found between healthy family relationships, i.e. a highly cohesive, idealized and democratic family and greater social skills development in children.

2.10.4 Literatures addressed parenting effects on peer problems.

A recent and compelling study entitled "Neurons to Neighborhoods", conducted by the Board on Children, Youth, and Families of the Institute of Medicine (USA) calls attention to the importance of early emotional development in young children. Based on acareful review of neuroscience and developmental science, it highlights compelling evidence that a child's earliest experiences and relationships set the stage for how he or she manages feelings and impulses, and relates to others (Raver & Knitzer, 2002). Karen, and Stephen, (2006) found that, under optimal conditions, children learn core social-emotional skills during the preschool years that enable them to establish and maintain their first friendships and get along well as members

of their peer communities. Children who are delayed in their acquisition of these social-emotional competencies are at heightened risk for significant peer problems and behavioral difficulties when they enter grade school, which can escalate to more serious emotional difficulties and antisocial behaviors in adolescence. Hence, promoting social-emotional development during the preschool years is a priority. (Karen, and Stephen, 2006), suggest at the end of their research that, social-emotional competencies can be taught via the systematic use of:

1) Instructions, models and rationales to illustrate skill concepts;

2) Multiple opportunities to practice skills with guidance and support;

3) Performance feedback, including specific praise and redirection to enhance self-monitoring and social awareness; and: 4) support for the generalized use of skills in peer settings.12 Randomized trials suggest these techniques can promote social-emotional competencies and positive peer relations when used as part of universal classroom programs taught by teachers, and/or indicated programs designed for children with existing peer problems. In another study by (Karson and Parke, 1996) about the relationship between preschool children's peer competency and the exchange of reciprocal negative affect displays during physical play with parents was examined.

Teacher ratings of children's peer competency were obtained from children's preschools. Parents and children (41 families) were observed during a physical play paradigm called "the hand game" which permitted physically stimulating play, yet which also permitted clear recording of participants' facial expressions.

Interactions were coded second by second for 8 min using a system of 12 mutually exclusive and exhaustive codes to categorize the affect displayed by participants. Fathers who typically responded to their children's negative affect displays with negative affect of their own had children who shared less, were more aggressive, and avoided others.

2.10.5 Literatures addressed parenting impact on preschoolers ADHD

The main features of this disorder are inattention, hyperactivity and impulsivity. The impact of this disorder is widespread affecting not only schooling and academic performance but also home life, peer relationships and social-emotional development.The strong biological evidence in the genesis of ADHD in children suggests their predisposition for challenging behaviors, often seen as difficult temperament, together with a vulnerability to elicit more coercive interactive styles from adults.(Ayshe Talay-Ongan,2005). Among preschoolers referred for psychiatric evaluation, the most common psychopathology was Attention-Deficit/Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD) (86%), followed by disruptive behavioral disorder (61%), mood disorders (43%), and anxiety disorders (28%). Coexisting disorders were common (Wilens et al., 2002).

V. A. Harpin, (2005) conducted a study titled "The effect of ADHD on the life of an individual, their family, and community from preschool to adult life", it may affect all aspects of a child's life. Indeed, it impacts not only on the child, but also

on parents and siblings, causing disturbances to family and marital functioning. The adverse effects of ADHD upon children and their families changes from the preschool years to primary school and adolescence, with varying aspects of the disorder being more prominent at different stages. The author concluded that: ADHD may persist into adulthood causing disruptions to both professional and personal life. In addition, ADHD has been associated with increased healthcare costs for patients and their family members (V. A. Harpin, 2005).

In the other hand, child might influence his or her parent as well, in a study conducted in both USA and Canada by Patricia. E. Neff (2008), titled "Raising an ADHD Child: An Examination of Maternal Well-Being in Canada and the United States" questioned how mothers and fathers are affected by their child's Attention deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD) for several reasons. According to the ecological systems approach to studying the family, (sometimes referred to as family systems theory) a change or difficulty experienced by one family member ultimately impacts the entire family unit and creates the need for family adjustment or adaptation (Seligman and Darling, 1989). The ecological systems approach also suggests that parents have a significant influence on the behavior exhibited by their child and that a child's conduct has a mutual or reciprocal influence on parenting behavior (Bernier and Siegel, 1994; Bubolz and Whiren, 1984; Elgar et al., 2004).

2.11 Arab family values

Arab people live in 22 countries in North and East Africa and the Middle East. Compared to societies in the West, Arab societies tend to be collective and

authoritarian. The family (extended and nuclear) is more important than the individual. Children grow up with values of loyalty to and respect for their families. The socialization of children relies very much on punishment to enforce values, norms, and behavioral manners. Many studies have found that an authoritarian or abusive socialization style is adopted toward Arab children (Achoui,2003; Dwairy, 1997, 1998). Some reports indicate that physical and emotional abuse characterizes a widespread style of parenting in Egypt (Saif El-Deen, 2001), Bahrain (Al- Mahroos, 2001), Kuwait (Qasem, Mustafa, Kazem, & Shah, 1998), Jordan (Al-Shqerat & Al-Masri, 2001), and Morocco (Al-Kittani, 2000), especially among lower-class, uneducated parents and large or dysfunctional families. Along with the collective-authoritarian social system, Arab individuals possess a collective identity. The self is not completely individuated but rather the person continues to be enmeshed in the collective family identity. Self-concept is very much a reflection of family approval, and self-esteem is very much a reflection of the familial affiliation (Dwairy, 1997, 2002; Gregg, 2005). Arab culture, through a number of values, traditions and practices, places emphasis on the importance of the family's role as a basic unit and as the main structure for building society. It also gives emphasis to the importance of an individual as integral part of a family as well as complimenting that unit. Arab culture also gives the community an important and complimentary role in building and correcting the individual's character and in self fulfillment. (Marwan Dawairy, 2006).

Majeed, and El-Baqiry, (2005), in their attempts to clarify the concept of family in many Arab communities goes far beyond the narrow definition of parents and

children and engulfs the extended family comprising brothers, sisters, uncles and aunties as well as cousins. In tribal Arab communities, this definition extends beyond the immediate relatives to include distant ones as well. Arab culture places a lot of importance on close social relationships between family members and extends to include relatives, neighbors or friends. (Majeed, and El-Baqiry, 2005). These relationships are embodied in all kinds of support such as social and psychological and often go beyond that to include material support. One of the important principles upon which community relations in Arab culture are based is the principle of complete respect and total obedience by children towards their parents, older family and community members in general. It is also considered a sign of the family's ability to bring up its children in an appropriate manner and reflects upon the family's reputation in society. As the Arab society is collective, so too is Arab parenting, with fathers, mothers, and other adults taking part in child rearing and socialization. This collective educational unit is called *Ahel* and is responsible for caring for and disciplining Arab children and adolescents according to the collective paternal values (Weller, Florian, & ikulincer,1995). Marwan Dawairy (2006), had studied the Arab PS among Palestinians in a study titled Parenting Styles in Arab Societies, In contrast with reports on the effect of authoritarian parenting in the West, some studies indicate that Arab children and youth are satisfied with this style (Hatab & Makki, 1978) and do not complain of the abusive-aggressive behavior of teachers (Dwairy, 1998, pp. 43-61). Some other studies indicated that authoritarianism is not associated with any detriment to the mental health of Arab youth (Dwairy & Menshar, 2004). It seems that authoritarian

socialization has a meaning and effect different from that known in the West when it is applied within an authoritarian culture such as the Arab or Muslim. Within this culture, children consider application of the athoritarian style of punishment as the normal duty of parents and teachers (Dwairy, 1997).

Despite that the Arab society treats women more strictly than men Zakareya, (1999), Achoui (2003) found that male children undergo more physical punishment than female children in Saudi Arabia. Studies on Arab-Palestinian adolescents in Israel indicated that boys perceive their parents' style to be more authoritarian than girls do (Dwairy, 2004). Palestinian boys in the Gaza Strip also perceived both their parents as treating them more negatively than the girls did; they perceived their parents as being more strict in disciplining, more rejecting, and hostile than did the girls (Punamaki, Qouta, & El Sarraj, 1997). Similar results were reported in Algeria (Fershani, 1998; Zegheena, 1994).

A research study conducted in Egypt indicated an interesting interaction between sex and urbanization. Rural male adolescents reported a higher level of authoritarianism on the part of their parents than females, whereas urban females reported a higher level of authoritarian parenting than males parenting and self-regulation in preschoolers: a meta-analysis is a study conducted by Annemiek Karreman, Cathy van Tuijl, Marcel A. G. van Aken, Maja Dekovi, (2006). A meta-analysis of 41 studies was conducted to examine the strength of the relation between parenting (positive control, negative control and responsiveness) and self-

regulation in preschoolers. Parenting stress was significantly related to teacher ratings of social competence, internalizing behaviors, and externalizing behaviors, and the effects of parenting behaviour do not appear to mediate this relationship. Parenting stress was most strongly related to children's social competence. Parents' reports of expectations for their child's behavior appear to weakly moderate the relationship between externalizing behavior and parenting stress. This study suggests that examination of a parent's level of stress, in addition to parenting practices, may be important in research and interventions with preschool children's behavior and social competence. In those studies it was hypothesized that parenting styles vary across Arab countries (societies), with parenting styles in traditional countries such as Yemen and Saudi Arabia tending to be more authoritarian than parenting styles in modern countries such as Lebanon and Jordan; the parenting styles applied to girls tend to be more authoritative and less authoritarian than those applied to boys; parenting in rural areas tends to be more authoritarian; first-born children experience less authoritarian and more permissive parenting styles; and the socioeconomic level of the family has a positive correlation with permissive and authoritative parenting styles and a negative correlation with the authoritarian style.

2.13 Conclusion of chapter II

Today there is a great deal of research in the area of parenting styles and its impact on a preschool child development. This research has shown that parenting styles will impact an individual greatly not only in his childhood but the impact carries

well into adulthood. This study will seek to evaluate the research, theories, controversies, and worldview surrounding parenting styles and their impact in the various area of the preschoolers development. The point of contention **is** whether permissive and uninvolved are to be considered as one style or divided into two styles. In the case of this paper, three parenting styles will be considered, as they have been adopted by the researcher from Diana Baumrind work, (1966). The reason for this distinction is the characteristics of these styles and the relationship that is fostered between children and parents with these respective styles (Feldman, 2008). Neglectful parenting is a permissive form of parenting. 25% of all parents are permissive parents (Chao & Willms, 1998). Neglectful parents are parents who are uninvolved in their children's lives (Santrock, 2001). According to Strauss, neglectful parents are often: uncaring, neglectful, selfish, inconsistent, and sometimes abusive. The authoritative style is described in more positive terms by researchers. One of the terms used for this style is "democratic" (Ritter, 2006). The parents using this style strive to help the children achieve independence. This is accomplished by goal achievement and activities. These parents have high demands academically and socially. These parents provide a warm and nurturing environment showing interest in the children. Their children are taught to make logical decisions based on verbal interactions ("Introductory Concepts: Parenting Styles", 2007). The authoritarian parent style has been found to have many negative impacts upon childhood development. There are usually three responses from the child to authoritarian parenting. The first response may be called

submission in which the child seeks to obey the parent and maintain the peace. This child never questions direction.

The second response is open rebellion by the child resulting in open defiance. This child will verbally refuse to follow directions. The third response may be called dawdling in which the child is obedient in following directions but shows his rebellion by being slow to respond to the direction. In this response, the child is slow to complete tasks and achieve goals (Stein, Henry, 2008). These children were moderately successful in school with little or no behavioral problems but they had poor social skills, lower self esteem, higher levels of depression, more aggression among boys, less independence for the girls, greater discontentment, and lower intrinsic motivation (Marsiglia, 2007).The third style for discussion is the permissive style. In this style, parents are very warm but very undemanding. Children, especially teens, are allowed to make very important life decisions with little or no parental input (Kopko, 2007).

There are few if any requirements on the children from these parents. For the most part, these parents refuse to take responsibility for how their children turn out. These parents show warmth towards their children giving them a great deal of freedom in their behaviors and choices ("Introductory Concepts: Parenting Styles 2007). The image used to describe this stage depends on the parental attitude. If the parent is over-indulgent, the child has material possessions and services poured out upon him in a flood. The parents pour out gifts and services with little regard for the child's actual needs. The parents are treated like slaves and the child

expects all his desires to be fulfilled with little regard for others (Stein, Henry, 2008). These parents rarely make rules and the rules which are made are not consistently enforced. These rules have no clear boundaries or clear consequences if those ambiguous parameters are violated. These parents want to give their children a great deal of freedom in making choices even if the children have not matured to a point to make good decisions (Iannelli, Vince, 2004).

Chapter. III

3.0 Methodology

3.1 Study sample

This study is considered as analytical descriptive type, consisted of 393 children of 4-6 years who had been selected randomly from the total of 251 kindergartens (KG) were put into clusters in every region then were chosen systematically every other 7th KG. Percentage of each cluster was obtained and the final sample of each KG had been given the two scales to be filled by parents. E.g. number of KG in north Gaza is 56; percentage is 22.3 of total 251 KG, the percentage of pre school children in this region is 30.13 of total population of the preschool children. Equivalent numbers of questionnaires were given to them which were 118. And so on, this procedure was repeated with each region and computing the equivalent representing sample. Researcher used some assistants from Kindergartens to help in distribution and collecting the questionnaires. Responding rate was 91%, which corresponds to 361 questionnaires. Sample represents 1.4% of the total population of the total pre school age children which according to PCBS, (2009-2010) was 24911. Both PAQ and SDQ sheets were completed by parents.

3.2 Study design

The study design is a descriptive analytical, which tried to answer the study questions about parenting styles and behavioral problem of preschool children in Gaza strip governorates. It had been selected because this method is useful for

descriptive analysis of study variables. Also, this type of study is easily applicable, economical and cost effective.

3.3 Period of the study

The study was conducted in the 4th quarter of the year 2010. Ethical letter was sent to the general director of MOHE, in July 2010. Then a pilot study had been started at the beginning of October 2010. Actual data were collected from October, 15th then the Questionnaires were examined for completeness, then coding and entering onto the Computer during the last week of October. Data analysis was completed by the end of October.

3.4 Inclusion criteria

1-   Children's age between 4-6 years old, boys and girls.

2-   Children who are registered in KGs, either KG1 & KG2, in the Scholastic year 2010-2011.

3.5 Exclusion criteria

No exclusion criteria applicable. All children and their parents who have been selected were welcomed to fill the Questionnaires.

3.6 Limitation of the study

1- Time limitation.

2- Uncooperative parents, some not completed one questionnaire, while some of them not completed Socio-demographic data.

3- Frequent cut-offs of the electric current.

3.7 Measures

3.7.1 Socio-demographic data:

Contains parent age, gender, education level, family size, place of residence and family income.

3.7.2 (PAQ)

Parental Authority Questionnaire: A questionnaire was developed for the purpose of measuring Baumrind's (1971) permissive, authoritarian, and authoritative parental authority prototypes. It consists of 30 items per parent and yields permissive, authoritarian, and authoritative scores for both the mother and the father; each of these scores is derived from the phenomenological appraisals of the parents' authority by their son or daughter. The results of several studies have supported the Parental Authority Questionnaire as a psychometrically sound and valid measure of Baumrind's parental authority prototypes, and they have suggested that this questionnaire has considerable potential as a valuable tool in the investigation of correlates of parental permissiveness, authoritarianism, and authoritativeness.(Buri 1991).

The PAQ is designed to measure parental authority, or disciplinary practices, from the point of view of the child (of any age). The PAQ has three subscales:

 Permissive (P: items 1, 6, 10, 13, 14, 17, 19, 21, 24 and 28),

 Authoritarian (A: items 2, 3, 7, 9, 12, 16, 18, 25, 26 and 29), and

 Authoritative/flexible (F: items 4, 5, 8, 11, 15, 20, 22, 23, 27, and 30).

Mother and father forms of the assessment are identical except for references to gender.

Scoring: The PAQ is scored easily by summing the individual items to comprise the subscale scores. Scores on each subscale range from 10 to 50.

3.7.2.1 Interpreting questionnaire results (PAQ)

Most parents will find that their score for one section is clearly higher than the other two. This indicates your parenting style. It is very common to have a mixed parenting style and the most common style mixes are also listed for you: Section 1 score above 20, other scores 10 or below: Authoritative parent style Section 2 score above 20, other scores 10 or below: Authoritarian parent style Section 3 score is 20 or above, other scores are 10 or below: Permissive parent style

3.7.2.2 Common mixes of parenting style

Authoritarian-Directive: Highly controlling and intrusive in their use of control

Democratic: A mix of Permissive & Authoritative parenting. This is very common

in a two working-parent family, where time limits the level of input the parent has in the family relationship.

3.7.2.2.1 None- Authoritarian-Directive: an authoritative style with more parentally centered control, but not autocratic or intrusive. Very common for parents of younger children where the child's input into family issues is limited.

3.7.2.2.3 Permissive-directive parent.

Permissive parents who are approaching the Authoritative style.

3.7.2.2.4 Permissive-nondirective: Very permissive, the most liberal and hands—off of the permissive styles.

Uninvolved: the classic 'neglectful' parents. They score very low on all sections; they probably wouldn't be doing the questionnaire in the first place R30.(John R. Buri, 1991). Researcher could not find the PAQ- self assessment, so he modified the 30 questions which were examining the child point of view toward parental styles, researcher with the valuable supervision from his advisor succeeded to accomplish the present form which, after modification and redirection of questions became PAQ self reported form.

3.7.3 - (SDQ) Strengths and difficulties questionnaire

The SDQ is a screening measure for early detection of behavioral problems and strengths in children and adolescents. Topics addressed by SDQ subscales include

emotional symptoms, conduct problems, hyperactivity/inattention, ADHD, peer relationship problems, and pro-social behavior. The SDQ is designed to include both positively and negatively worded items, completed by parents or teachers.

The SDQ is a brief behavioral screening questionnaire for children and teenagers aged 3 to16 years. It was first tested in the United Kingdom and copy-righted by Goodman in 1997. Several versions are available and each version may include one to three of the following: a) 25-item psychological attributes, b) 5-question impact supplement, and c) seven follow-up questions. The measure is based on the concepts that underpin the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (4th Ed.) and the ICD-10. For example, items in the SDQ Hyperactivity/Inattention scale were selected because they reflect key symptoms for a DSM-IV diagnosis of ADHD or ICD-10 diagnosis of hyperkinesis (Goodman & Scott, 1999).

3.8 Pilot study

Pilot study has been conducted on 30 preschool age children and their parents from the middle region. The PAQ and SDQ sheets were completed by parents. Data entry and analysis using (SPSS- PASW/ V. 18) and results were recorded bellow. The pilot sample will be excluded from the final 393 subjects. The researcher did the pilot study by applying it on 30 pilot subjects.

The piloting technique used to estimate and discuss the validity and reliability of the instruments used for the current study.

1-Parenting Authority Questionnaire (PAQ)

2-The Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire (SDQ).

Main statistical tests to be used in this research are: t test, one-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA), means, P value and percentage. The t-value will be positive if the first mean is larger than the second and negative if it is smaller. Once you compute the t-value you have to look it up in a table of significance to test whether the ratio is large enough to say that the difference between the groups is not likely to have been a chance finding. To test the significance, you need to set a risk level (called the alpha level). In most social research, the "rule of thumb" is to set the alpha level at P<0 .05

This means that five times out of a hundred you would find a statistically significant difference between the means even if there was none (i.e., by "chance"). You also need to determine the degrees of freedom (df) for the test. In the t-test, the degree of freedom is the sum of the persons in both groups minus 2. Given the alpha level, the d.f, and the t-value, you can look the t-value up in a standard table of significance (available as an appendix in the back of most statistics texts) to determine whether the t-value is large enough to be significant. If it is, you can conclude that the difference between the means for the two groups is different (even given the variability). Fortunately, statistical computer programs routinely print the significance test results and save you the trouble of looking them up in a

table. The t-test, one-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) are mathematically equivalent and would yield identical results (William M.K. Trochim, 2008).

3.8.1. Validity and reliability

3.8.1.1 -Validity / Internal consistency of (PAQ)

To compute the internal consistency of the parenting Authority Questionnaire PAQ; the researcher calculated the correlation coefficients of every item (10 items) of the scale with the total scores of every scale.

Table: (3.1) Internal consistency of (PAQ) subscales

Sub-Scales	item No	Corr. Coeff. ®	Sig. Level	Sub- Scales	item No	Corr. coeff. ®	Sig. Level
1-Permissive parenting	1	0.423	0.020*	Authoritarian parenting	16	0.310	0.095
	6	0.577	0.001**		18	0.328	0.076
	10	0.531	0.003**		25	0583	0.001**
	13	0.523	0.003**		26	0.565	0.001**
	14	0.575	0.001**		29	0.611	0.000**
	17	0.528	0.003**	3 Authoritative parenting	4	0.574	0.001**
	19	0.754	0.000**		5	0.412	0.024*
	21	0.613	0.000**		8	0.884	0.000**
	24	0.570	0.001**		11	0.768	0.000**
	28	0.623	0.000**		15	0.718	0.000**
2-Authoritarian parenting	2	0.591	0.001**		20	0.433	0.017*
	3	0.759	0.000**		22	0.841	0.000**
	7	0.600	0.000**		23	0.628	0.000**
	9	0.724	0.000**		27	0.574	0.001**
	12	0.563	0.001**		30	0.676	0.000**

*p< 0.05   **p< 0.01

As shown in table (3.1), the researcher found that the items of PAQ had good levels of Internal consistency validity, where the correlation coefficients for the

three sub-scales(permissive, authoritarian, and authoritative parenting) ranged between R=(0.310-0.759); and significant at P< 0.01.

Table (3.2): Internal consistency of sub-scales with total scores of PAQ

Subscale	Corr. Coeff.	Sig. Level
1. Permissive parenting	0.923	0.000**
2. Authoritarian parenting	0.911	0.000**
3. Authoritative parenting	0.913	0.000**

*p< 0.05   **p< 0.01

The table (3.2) shows that all of the sub-scales have a great levels of Internal consistency validity with total scores, where the correlation coefficients ranged R= (0.911-0.923); and significant at 0.001.

3.8.1.2 Reliability of the (PAQ): To calculate the reliability of the Parenting Authority Questionnaire, the researcher used the following two tests:

3.8.1.2.1 Split half method

The Researcher calculated the reliability of the Parenting Authority Questionnaire by using split half method (part1 = 15 items & part2 = 15 items); where the Pearson's correlation coefficient was (R_1 = 0.877) and by using the spearman-brawn equation to correct the length of the scale (R_2 = 0.935).

3.8.1.2.2 Cronbach's alpha equation

The Researcher estimated the reliability of the Parenting Authority Questionnaire by using the equation of Cronbach's alpha (No. of items = 30); where the value of alpha = (0.917). The Parenting Authority Questionnaire is valid and reliable for data collection.

Chapter four (IV)

Results

this focuses on the main results concerning the two major parts of this study regarding parenting styles and children behavioral problems according to parents perspectives. The results are presented as follows:

The first section consists of the description for the main socio-demographic variables of the whole sample.

The second section consists of children emotional problems from the parent perspectives and its relation with socio-demographic variables.

The third section consists of the major parenting styles (PS) and its relation with socio-demographic variables and children emotional and behavioral problems.

4.1 Socio-demographic variables:

Statistical analyses were performed due to the quantitative nature of the study. And they were performed with the statistical program (SPSS. PASW Statistics18.) Descriptive statistics were used to analyze and interpret the research results. Socio-demographic data reflected that the participating families were relatively representative of the households in Gaza Strip from which our sample was drawn.

4.1.1 Characteristics of the sample

When data collection of the sample had been obtained it provided the researcher with the parents gender, age, economical status, educational level, family size, and the area where they live. It also provide data about the child gender and age.

Bellow are the details about socio-demographic data in terms of frequencies and percentage.

(4.1): Characteristics of the sample

Variable	frequency	percent %
Parent sex		
father	153	42.4
mother	208	57.6
Parent age		
less than 30 years	166	46.0
30 – 40 years	168	46.5
41 – 50 years	22	6.1
more than 50 years	5	1.4
Parent education		
Illiterate	1	.3
Basic Education	47	13.0
Secondary	154	42.7
Diploma	40	11.1
University	104	28.8
Higher education	15	4.2
Family size		
1 – 3	48	13.3
4 - 7	226	62.6
more than 7	87	24.1
Family income		
less than 1000 IS	114	31.6
1000 – 2000 IS	121	33.5
2001 – 3000 IS	78	21.6
more than 3000 IS	48	13.3
Place of residency		
North Gaza	96	26.6
Gaza	99	27.4
Middle zone	81	22.4
Khanyounis	30	8.3
Rafah	55	15.2
Child sex		
male	198	54.8
female	163	45.2
Child age		
4 – 5 years	182	50.4
5 – 6 years	179	49.6

Table (4.1) shows that; children coming from North Gaza were 96 children (26.6%), from Gaza 99 children (27.4%), from middle area 81 children (22.4%), from Khan Younis 30 children (8.3 %), and from Rafah 55 children (15.2%). Total numbers of children selected for the current study were 361 child and their parents (fathers and mothers). The total numbers of males (fathers) were 153 (42.4 %); the total numbers of females (mothers) were 208 (57.6%).It showed that 166 of the parents (46%) less than 30 year; 168 (46.5%) between 30 and 40 year; 22 from the parents (6.1%) between 41 and 50 year; and 5 (1.4%) more than 50 year. The total numbers of children selected for the current study were a 361 child (girls and boys). The total numbers of males (boys) were 198 (54.8%); the total numbers of females (girls) were 163 (45.2%). And about preschoolers age, it represent that the children selected from two different age group the first 183 (50.7%) were aged between 4 to 5 years and the second group 178 (49.3%) were aged between 5 to 6 years.

About parents level of education, the table shows that; 1 of the parents of children were illiterate (0.3%), 48 parents were educated to basic education (13.0 %), 154 parents were educated to secondary level (42.7 %), 40 parents were educated to diploma (11.1 %), 104 parents were educated to university level (28.8%), and 15 parents were educated to the higher education 4.2%. table (4-1): shows that; 49 of children had 1 to 3 family members (13.6 %), 226 of children had 4-7 family members (62.6 %), and 86 of children had 7 and more family members(23.8%). It , shows that; concerning level of income that: there were 114 of the children had family income less than 1000 NIS (31.6 %), 121 family had family income ranged

between 1001-2000 NIS (33.5 %), 78 of children have family income ranged between 2001-3000 NIS (21.6 %), 48 families have family income more than 3000 NIS (13.3%).

4.2 Response of study participants on SDQ scale (total)

Response	Frequency	Percent
Not true	163	45.2
Somewhat true	77	21.3
Certainly true	120	33.2

As shown in the above table 45.2% of parents answered not true, while 21.3 of parents answered somewhat true, and 33.2 of them answered certainly true to the 25 items of SDQ. Total number of the respondents were 360.

4.3- Response of study participants on SDQ subscales

Response	Frequency	Percent
Emotional problems		
Not true	97	26.9
Somewhat true	55	15.2
Certainly true	209	57.9
Prosocial behaviour problems		
Not true	231	64.0
Somewhat true	66	18.3
Certainly true	64	17.7
Hyperactivity problems		
Not true	240	66.5
Somewhat true	52	14.4
Certainly true	68	18.8
Peer relationship problems		
Not true	98	27.1
Somewhat true	89	24.7
Certainly true	174	48.2
Conduct problems		
Not true	153	42.4
Somewhat true	62	17.2
Certainly true	146	40.4

Table: (4.3), describes the participants response to the SDQ 25 item, where the highest percent for the choice (not true) for hyperactivity problems which actually represents the development of the preschool age group, where the lowest percent of answers for the same choice went for the emotional problems. The highest percent was for the choice (true) among the participants went to emotional problems 57.9%, while the lowest was for the subscale prosocial behavior problems.

4.2 Relation between the Five types of emotional and behavioral problems and Socio-demographic variables:

After the completion of SDQ sub-scales by parents regarding their preschool children's emotional and behavioral problems, the next results could be detected starting with the Frequency of parents reporting, examining the relation of SDQ sub-scales against parent's sex, family size, place of residence, and family income.

4.2.1 Relation of emotional problems to parent gender

To investigate how sex differences of parents influence SDQ subscales of children. T test was used to show that relation.

Table (4-4): t-test comparing means of SDQ subscales according to parent gender

SDQ subscale	Parent gender	N	Mean	t-value df = 359	Significance level
Emotional problems	Fathers	153	4.2549	2.15	0.032*
	Mothers	207	3.8744		
Conduct problems	Fathers	153	5.5163	-1.26	0.206
	Mothers	208	5.7596		
Hyperactivity /inattention	Fathers	153	4.6732	-0.632	0.528
	Mothers	208	4.7740		
Peer problems	Fathers	153	4.9346	-2.27	0.024*
	Mothers	208	5.3221		
Prosocial behavior	Fathers	153	3.6797	1.43	0.153
	Mothers	208	3.3846		
Total	Fathers	153	23.0588	-0.072	0.943
	Iothers	207	23.0966		

* Probability for Emotional problems (Two-Tailed): 0.032223

* Probability for Peer problems (Two-Tailed): 0.023800

In order to test the gender difference for the parents means against the children's emotional and behavioral problems we performed t-independent test. As shown in the table 4-4, the results showed that there are significant differences between the means of emotional symptoms toward fathers and peer problems toward mothers according to the gender. But there are no significant differences between the means of conduct problems, hyperactivity/ inattention, and prosocial behavior according to the parents gender.

4.2.2 Relation between emotional problems and children gender

To investigate the relation between children gender and the means of emotional and behavioral problems , t test was performed as follows.

Table (4.5): Differences in SDQ subscales related to children gender

Subscale	Gender	N	Mean	S. Deviation	t	P value
Emotional problems	Male	198	3.3384	2.24663	.774	.440
	Female	163	3.1605	2.07294		
Prosocial behaviour	Male	198	6.0354	1.70808	.536	.592
	Female	163	5.9383	1.71109		
Hyperactivity problems	Male	198	4.7727	1.94176	.869	.386
	Female	163	4.5963	1.87876		
Peer relationship problems	Male	198	3.5253	1.74428	-.722	.470
	Female	163	3.6605	1.79428		
Conduct problems	Male	198	3.1768	1.74928	.605	.545
	Female	163	3.0556	2.04984		
Total score	Male	198	14.3081	5.67487	.625	.532
	Female	163	13.9379	5.46659		

Table (4.5) shows the differences in emotional and behavioral problems related to children's gender, where the sample consists of 198 males and 163 females. When t test was used to test that relation, it shows that males score higher means than females in all behavioral and emotional problems except for the prosocial subscale, it was for the females favor. But the table does not show any significant relation between the five subscales and children gender at all. In a study titled **"Differences in emotional problems related to children gender"** conducted by Verhulst FC, Akkerhuis GW. 1986, on Dutch children aged 4-12 years old,   specific behavioral-emotional problems reported by teachers in a representative sample of 1,162 children used researchers used the Achenbach Teacher's Report Form.   Boys

obtained higher scores than girls. Boys obtained higher scores on concentration, inattention and hyperactivity problems. This corresponds to the current result, boys score higher than girls in all subscales except for the pro-social activity.

4.2.3 Relation between emotional problems and children age

To investigate the relation between age of preschool children and their emotional and behavioral   problems, next test was used.

Table (4.6): Differences in SDQ subscales related to children age

Subscale	Age	N	Mean	S. Deviation	t	P value
Emotional problems	4-5	181	3.2597	2.11449	.024	.981
	5-6	177	3.2542	2.24059		
Prosocial behaviour	4-5	181	5.9724	1.80256	-.246	.806
	5-6	177	6.0169	1.62535		
Hyperactivity problems	4-5	181	4.7127	1.93658	.464	.643
	5-6	177	4.6193	1.86317		
Peer relationship	4-5	181	3.6961	1.81090	1.155	.249
	5-6	177	3.4802	1.72248		
Conduct problems	4-5	181	3.2652	1.90507	1.658	.098
	5-6	177	2.9379	1.82831		
Total score	4-5	181	14.4530	5.42978	1.228	.220
	5-6	177	13.7273	5.73855		

When T test was used, to test differences in emotional problems related to children age. No relation between age of children and the five subscales of SDQ. In a study titled "Differences in emotional problems related to children gender" conducted by Verhulst FC, Akkerhuis GW. 1986, on Dutch children aged 4-12 years old, age showed no significant effect on total problem score, although older children scored higher on a number of items associated with academic, somatic and social functioning and with emotions related to inner feelings. Although the researchers

used different scales, Achenbach Teacher's Report Form (TRF), while the current research used SDQ, it shows that no relation between the two variables.

In the next step as in table (4.7) to detect the differences in SDQ subscales according to parents age, one-way ANOVA will be performed.

Table (4.7): Differences in SDQ related to parents age (one-way ANOVA)

SDQ subscale		sum of squares	df	mean square	F	P value
Emotional problems	Between Groups	18.136	3	6.045	1.290	.277
	Within Groups	1672.418	357	4.685		
	Total	1690.554	360			
Prosocial behaviour problems	Between Groups	3.088	3	1.029	.351	.789
	Within Groups	1047.909	357	2.935		
	Total	1050.997	360			
Hyperactivity problems	Between Groups	4.524	3	1.508	.411	.745
	Within Groups	1306.251	357	3.669		
	Total	1310.775	360			
Peer relationship problems	Between Groups	21.468	3	7.156	2.313	.076
	Within Groups	1104.532	357	3.094		
	Total	1126.000	360			
Conduct problems	Between Groups	14.899	3	4.966	1.400	.243
	Within Groups	1266.492	357	3.548		
	Total	1281.391	360			
Total score	Between Groups	201.306	3	67.102	2.179	.090
	Within Groups	10962.817	357	30.794		
	Total	11164.122	360			

In the above table (4.7): using one-way ANOVA no relation could be detected between parents age and children behavioral problems. Statistically, no significant P value could be found, where the lowest P went for the subscale peer relation problems with P= 0.076

4.2.4 Emotional and behavioral problems and family size:

Family size as one of the important socio-demographic variables, was tested as indicated in this research questions as the following tables show: by one-way ANOVA, and as a result, when there is a relation between any of the mentioned variables, post- hoc analysis test is used consequently, to compare the means of certain variables. Family size was categorized into three parts: 1-3, 3-7, and more than 7 members.

Table (4.8): Differences in SDQ related to family size One-way ANOVA

SDQ subscale		sum of squares	df	mean square	F	P value
Emotional problems	Between Groups	98.830	3	32.943	7.389	.000 *
	Within Groups	1591.724	357	4.459		
	Total	1690.554	360			
Prosocial behaviour problems	Between Groups	21.188	3	7.063	2.448	.063
	Within Groups	1029.809	357	2.885		
	Total	1050.997	360			
Hyperactivity problems	Between Groups	43.604	3	14.535	4.083	.007 *
	Within Groups	1267.171	357	3.559		
	Total	1310.775	360			
Peer relationship problems	Between Groups	23.917	3	7.972	2.582	.053
	Within Groups	1102.083	357	3.087		
	Total	1126.000	360			
Conduct problems	Between Groups	28.457	3	9.486	2.703	.045 *
	Within Groups	1252.933	357	3.510		
	Total	1281.391	360			
Total score	Between Groups	734.968	3	244.989	8.363	.000 *
	Within Groups	10429.154	357	29.295		
	Total	11164.122	360			

To compare the differences between emotional and behavioral problems according to family size. One-way ANOVA has been used as shown in table (4.8): three significant differences were detected with F = (7.389) for emotional problems with (P value 0.00) followed by F = (4.083) for hyperactivity problems with (P value 0.007). third significant P value were recorded toward the subscale conduct

problems with P = (0.045), and F= (2.703).The impacts of family size "1-3 members, 4-7 members, and more than 7 members" on SDQ sub-scales. This result need further treatment to investigate the significant differences of emotional symptoms, and hyperactivity problems and conduct problems according to specific family size. That treatment using post-hoc as seen in the next table (4.8). However, the results show that there are no significant differences among the means of conduct problems, hyperactivity/inattention, and peer problems according to the family size.

Table (4.9): Mean scores of study participants on SDQ scale according to family size

Subscale	Family size	Mean	SD
Emotional problems	1 – 3	4.5208	2.05239
	4 – 7	3.1637	2.12597
	More than 7	2.7931	2.09727
Prosocial behaviour problems	1 – 3	5.3958	1.99723
	4 – 7	6.0664	1.68655
	More than 7	6.1494	1.53660
Hyperactivity problems	1 – 3	5.5000	1.48754
	4 – 7	4.6018	1.94154
	More than 7	4.4767	1.94469
Peer relationship problems	1 – 3	4.2083	1.54312
	4 – 7	3.5265	1.85513
	More than 7	3.3678	1.58565
Conduct problems	1 – 3	3.8333	2.05595
	4 – 7	3.0442	1.92245
	More than 7	2.9425	1.60925
Total score	1 – 3	17.6875	4.73177
	4 – 7	13.7301	5.70557
	More than 7	13.1860	4.93132

The above table denotes the mean scores of participants on the SDQ subscales according to family size, We notice the differences in means of hyperactivity, emotional and in conduct problems. For further treatment of this result a post-hoc

test will be done next to determine the specific family member group with relation to the above mentioned subscales.

Table (4.10): Mean differences in SDQ related to family size (Post hoc)

SDQ subscale	Family size	Mean differen	P value
Emotional problems	$(1-3)-(4-7)$	1.3571	.000 *
	$(1-3)-$ (more than 7)	1.7277	.000 *
Hyperactivity problems	$(1-3)-(4-7)$	.8982	.009 *
	$(1-3)-$ (more than 7)	1.0233	.008 *
Conduct problems	$(1-3)-(4-7)$	.7891	.025 *
	$(1-3)-$ (more than 7)	.8908	.025 *
Total score	$(1-3)-(4-7)$	3.9574	.000 *
	$(1-3)-$ (more than 7)	4.5015	.000 *

* = significant at 0.05

A post- hoc test will be needed to compare the main effect means associated with the significant F. as shown in table (4.10). Post –hoc analysis test was done using Scheffee test to compare the means of SDQ subscales according to family size "1-3", "4-7", and more than 7". The results found that the parents reported emotional and behavior more frequently among those who have family members of "1-3". Where mean difference favors emotional problems = (1.3571), with P=(0.00) and (1.7277), with (P=0.00) and favors hyperactivity problems when compared to the other two groups of mean difference of (0.8982) with P= (0.009) and mean difference of (1.0233), P=(0.008), and favors the same group of 1-3 members when compared to means conduct problems with the score of (0.7891) and P= (0.025)

and means difference of (0.8908), and P= (0.025) respectively. While the total scores shows significant relation with P= (0.00). Conclusion of the previous test confirms the significant relationship between family group (1-3) and the above three SDQ subscales.

4.2.5 Emotional and behavioral problems and place of residence:

To investigate the relation between preschool emotional problems and place of residence, first to use One-way ANOVA. For further verification with post hoc.

Table (4.11): Differences in SDQ related to province of residency

SDQ		sum of sqr	df	MS	F	P value
Emotional problems	Between Groups	99.476	4	24.869	5.564	.000
	Within Groups	1591.078	356	4.469		
	Total	1690.554	360			
Prosocial behaviour problems	Between Groups	55.771	4	13.943	4.987	.001
	Within Groups	995.226	356	2.796		
	Total	1050.997	360			
Hyperactivity problems	Between Groups	8.751	4	2.188	.596	.665
	Within Groups	1302.024	356	3.668		
	Total	1310.775	360			
Peer relationship problems	Between Groups	72.066	4	18.016	6.086	.000
	Within Groups	1053.934	356	2.960		
	Total	1126.000	360			
Conduct problems	Between Groups	51.994	4	12.999	3.764	.005
	Within Groups	1229.396	356	3.453		
	Total	1281.391	360			
Total score	Between Groups	859.121	4	214.780	7.399	.000
	Within Groups	10305.001	356	29.028		
	Total	11164.122	360			

As shown in the table, (4.9): One-Way ANOVA was used to study the differences between emotional and behavioral problems according to the place of residence "North Gaza, Gaza, Middle area, Khan Younis, and Rafah". As shown in the table; (4-11) there are significant differences among the means of emotional symptoms (f=5.564; P < 0.00), for the subscale prosocial activity (f= 4.987; P< 0.001). However, the results show that there are no significant differences among the means of hyperactivity/inattention (f= 0.596; P<0.665) according to the place of residence. For the subscale peer relation problems the previous table shows a significant relation toward place of residence with F= 6.086 and (P< 0.00). For conduct problems it shows also a significant relation with the variable place of residence with F=3.764 and (P<0.005).Finally for total score it shows a significance value F=7.399 with (P<0.00). the ANOVA test does not show which region favors what problem unless we perform another test to verify those variables more precisely,

Table (4.12): Mean scores of participants on SDQ scale according to provinces

Subscale	Province	Mean	SD
Emotional problems	North Gaza	3.1354	2.31071
	Gaza	2.7273	1.89961
	Middle area	4.0494	2.35001
	Khanyounis	2.6000	1.35443
	Rafah	3.6000	2.08700
Prosocial behaviour problems	North Gaza	6.1354	1.65192
	Gaza	6.3737	1.54250
	Middle area	5.3457	1.90500
	Khanyounis	6.3667	1.51960
	Rafah	5.8364	1.64163
Hyperactivity problems	North Gaza	4.5833	2.12091
	Gaza	4.5306	1.83440
	Middle area	4.9259	1.75198
	Khanyounis	4.8000	2.04096
	Rafah	4.7636	1.83549
Peer relationship problems	North Gaza	3.4792	1.74705
	Gaza	3.0404	1.59027
	Middle area	4.0370	1.85368
	Khanyounis	3.2667	1.79911
	Rafah	4.2182	1.65206
Conduct problems	North Gaza	3.0313	1.90541
	Gaza	2.7172	1.79023
	Middle area	3.7778	2.07364
	Khanyounis	3.1000	1.53914
	Rafah	3.0727	1.70896
Total score	North Gaza	13.6667	5.75768
	Gaza	12.3571	4.74342
	Middle area	16.4074	6.58365
	Khanyounis	13.0667	4.27449
	Rafah	15.3091	4.25081

In table (4.12), when comparing the mean scores representing the five governorates, we could compare and determine the differences toward which area accordingly.

Table (4.13): Mean differences in SDQ related to province of residency

	Province	M.difference	*P* value
SDQ total score	(M. area) – (North Gaza)	2.740	0.008 *
	(M. area) – (Gaza)	4.050	0.000 *
	(Middle area) (Khanyounis)	3.340	0.039 *
	(Mid.area) – (Rafah)	1.098	1.000

* = significant at 0.05

Post –hoc analysis test was done using Scheffee test to compare the means of SDQ subscales according to place of residence "North Gaza, Gaza, Middle area, Khan Younis, and Rafah". When compared middle area to Gaza children it favors mid-area,for emotional problems, and also mid-area when compared to north area , Khanyounis and Rafah it favors mid-area for the same subscale. But when compared the means of the five areas regarding prosocial activities it favors both north area and Gaza, with significant P value of 0.036 and 0.002 respectively. Post hoc verified the relation of emotional problems to middle area children, and the prosocial behavior to the Gaza children, but did not find significant value for conduct problems.

4.2.6 Emotional problems and family income

One-Way ANOVA was used to study the differences between the means of emotional and behavioral problems according to the family income.

Table (4.14): Differences in SDQ related to monthly income (One-Way ANOVA)

SDQ subscale		sum of squares	df	mean square	F	P value
Emotional problems	Between Groups	14.315	3	4.772	1.016	.385
	Within Groups	1676.239	357	4.695		
	Total	1690.554	360			
Prosocial behaviour problems	Between Groups	13.960	3	4.653	1.602	.189
	Within Groups	1037.037	357	2.905		
	Total	1050.997	360			
Hyperactivity problems	Between Groups	3.741	3	1.247	.340	.797
	Within Groups	1307.034	357	3.671		
	Total	1310.775	360			
Peer relationship problems	Between Groups	14.000	3	4.667	1.498	.215
	Within Groups	1112.000	357	3.115		
	Total	1126.000	360			
Conduct problems	Between Groups	1.959	3	.653	.182	.908
	Within Groups	1279.432	357	3.584		
	Total	1281.391	360			
Total score	Between Groups	55.090	3	18.363	.588	.623
	Within Groups	11109.032	357	31.205		
	Total	11164.122	360			

As shown in the above table; (4-12) no significant differences were detected among the means of emotional symptoms, conduct problems, hyperactivity/inattention, peer problems, and prosocial behavior according to the family income. So family income doesn't have impact on SDQ subscales of the preschool children.

Table (4.15): Mean scores of study participants on SDQ scale according to income

Subscale	Income (NIS)	Mean	SD
Emotional problems	Less than 1000	3.4825	2.08336
	1001 – 2000	3.1818	2.21736
	2001 – 000	3.2821	2.30695
	More than3000	2.8542	1.98922
Prosocial behaviour problems	Less than 1000	6.1140	1.64429
	1001 – 2000	6.1653	1.59346
	2001 – 3000	5.7308	1.71072
	More than 3000	5.7292	2.07046
Hyperactivity problems	Less than 1000	4.6930	1.97384
	1001 – 2000	4.5667	1.82758
	2001 – 3000	4.8333	1.79767
	More than 3000	4.7708	2.16588
Peer relationship problems	Less than 1000	3.8158	1.77777
	1001 – 2000	3.5950	1.80083
	2001 – 3000	3.2821	1.71243
	More than 3000	3.4583	1.72538
Conduct problems	Less than 1000	3.2193	1.83746
	1001 – 2000	3.1240	1.91298
	2001 – 3000	3.0513	1.92656
	More than 3000	3.0208	1.91844
Total score	Less than 1000	14.6228	5.27037
	1001 – 2000	14.0500	5.51827
	2001 – 3000	13.9615	5.98362
	More than 3000	13.4167	5.81573

When getting into the last result which states that "Family income doesn't show any significant impact on emotional and behavioral items included in SDQ, according to the study. If we compare it to the result obtained by Maria Filomena Gaspar and Paula dos Santos. E. Paiva, (2004), with a study titled Parenting Practice and Children's socio emotional development, which was carried at Portuguese children. Shows a totally different outcome: The use of positive discipline and supervision by (authoritative) parents of children from low SES only is significantly associated with the development of child prosocial competence.

The cause appeared to be related to methodology, they used longitudinal study type, which includes more interventions and follow up with parents and children. Although in the previous study N=363, current study N=361.a second reason could be related to SES between the two countries.

Low socioeconomic status and the number of siblings in the home are associated with higher probability of children exhibiting Conduct problems (Stevenson, 1999).this result contradicts current result, while in this study the result shows ther is no relation between low economic status and behavioral problems. But when compare it to the existing local environment; the low income level doesn't alone increase the probability of children exhibiting Conduct problems. Stevenson combined another important factor: number of siblings in the home, which is another variable named, family size, which according to this research impact both emotional and prosocial of the preschool children. Other causes, such that parents who live in lower socioeconomic areas but who have higher education levels example is our sample, which display more effective parenting behaviors than parents living in similar areas with lower levels of educational attainment (Fox et al., 1995; Jackson et al., 2000; Johnston et al., 2002). Meanwhile, Researchers in Latin cultures report that authoritarian parents are more likely to have kids with low social competence (Martinez et al 2007; Garcia and Gracia 2009).

When discussing the result: Family income doesn't show any significant impact on emotional and behavioral items included in (SDQ), according to the study.

Although, many studies show totally different results, J. Hutchings, et al. (2003), evaluated the impact of poverty on (Conduct problems), "Socio-economic disadvantage has long been associated with child conduct disorders, subsequent delinquency and adult mental health problems", (Farrington,1995; Kazdin & Wassell, 2000). Research indicates that major life stressors such as poverty, unemployment, cramped living conditions and illness have a negative impact on parenting and are related to many childhood problems including conduct disorders (Kazdin, 1995; Patterson, 1992). The defense for research result is that could be the impact of cultural and religious factors that been ignored in the J. Hutchings, et al. (2003) study but could influence the impression of parents in this current study on low income family impact on conduct problems. Other local factors that could influence relation between low income and behavioral problems of Palestinian children, the political issue specifically, the presence of occupation on Palestinian land, could have positive impact toward the national sense and commitment parents report the symptoms of their kids, one famous saying usually heard "Poverty is not a Shame". The extended family type could play a certain influence over children, in where significant others interfere in parenting process during preschool period in Palestinian community. Another study conducted by Cathy Huaqing Qi and Ann P. Kaiser, (2002) in Vanderbilt University, titled: Behavior Problems of Preschool Children From Low-Income Families: concluded that: Children from low socioeconomic status (SES) backgrounds were found to have a higher incidence of behavior problems as compared to the general population.

Table (4.16): Differences in SDQ related to level of education,

SDQ subscale		sum of squares	df	mean square	F	P value
Emotional problems	Between Groups	7.384	4	1.846	.390	.815
	Within Groups	1683.170	356	4.728		
	Total	1690.554	360			
Prosocial behaviour problems	Between Groups	33.627	4	8.407	2.942	.021 *
	Within Groups	1017.371	356	2.858		
	Total	1050.997	360			
Hyperactivity problems	Between Groups	15.366	4	3.841	1.053	.380
	Within Groups	1295.409	356	3.649		
	Total	1310.775	360			
Peer relationship problems	Between Groups	9.773	4	2.443	.779	.539
	Within Groups	1116.227	356	3.135		
	Total	1126.000	360			
Conduct problems	Between Groups	40.045	4	10.011	2.871	.023 *
	Within Groups	1241.346	356	3.487		
	Total	1281.391	360			
Total score	Between Groups	202.214	4	50.553	1.637	.164
	Within Groups	10961.909	356	30.879		
	Total	11164.122	360			

* = significant at 0.05

In the above table (4.16): (one-way ANOVA) was done to test the relation between parents level of education and behavioral problems of their preschoolers, significant differences were detected within means of prosocial behavior with F= 2.942 and (P<0.021), and within preschoolers conduct problems where F=2.871 and(P<0.023). but no significant relation in the total score for the SDQ subscales.

Table (4.17): Mean scores of study participants on SDQ scale according to education

Subscale	Education	Mean	SD
Emotional problems	Basic	3.3958	2.11116
	Secondary	3.2857	2.20728
	Diploma	3.5000	2.35339
	Bachelor	3.0673	2.08678
	Post graduate	3.1333	2.13363
Prosocial behaviour problems	Basic	5.9583	1.51529
	Secondary	6.1818	1.59433
	Diploma	5.2250	1.81853
	Bachelor	6.1058	1.75111
	Post graduate	5.5333	2.32584
Hyperactivity problems	Basic	5.1064	1.93631
	Secondary	4.5260	1.79396
	Diploma	4.8250	2.19425
	Bachelor	4.6442	1.91528
	Post graduate	5.0667	2.15362
Peer relationship problems	Basic	3.8542	1.78635
	Secondary	3.6299	1.77474
	Diploma	3.6750	1.91335
	Bachelor	3.3558	1.67748
	Post graduate	3.4667	1.92230
Conduct problems	Basic	3.7708	2.19516
	Secondary	3.1039	1.86880
	Diploma	3.0000	1.90815
	Bachelor	3.0673	1.76407
	Post graduate	2.0000	1.13389
Total score	Basic	15.7872	5.99977
	Secondary	14.0130	5.33087
	Diploma	14.6000	5.95194
	Bachelor	13.5673	5.37843
	Post graduate	12.7333	6.52979

The above table is to compare the means score of the participants fine subscales of the SDQ according to parents educational level. As seen above its obvious that high scores go for hyperactivity problems where means range between 5 to 4. with SD ranges between 2.19425 to 1.79396. post-hoc test is needed to verify more details about the direction of the relation between the five subscales according to level of education.

Table (4.18): Mean differences in SDQ related to level of education (Post hoc)

SDQ subscale	Level of education	Mean difference	*P* value
Prosocial behaviour problems	(secondary) – (diploma)	0.9568	0.016*
Conduct problems	(basic) – (post graduate)	1.7708	0.015 *

* = significant at 0.05

In the table (4.18), when comparing secondary education level to diploma holders it favors secondary level holders with mean difference of 0.9568 for prosocial behavior and significant at (P<0.016), but when comparing basic level and post graduate level it favors the basic educational level and has got significant relation of mean difference for conduct problems equals 1.7708 and significant at (P<0.015). so it is concluded that secondary level education has got a significant relation with prosocial behavior and basic level education has got a significant relation with conduct problems of the preschool children.

4.3 Parenting styles (PS)

4.3.1 Types of (PS):

Table (4.19): Mean scores of study participants on parenting style subscales

Subscale	Mean	S. deviation
Permissive	32.5180	4.58140
Authoritarian	32.1440	4.89061
Authoritative/flexible	38.3989	4.92402

Table (4-19) shows that the highest score for authoritarian style (38.3989) followed by permissive (32.5180) and authoritarian has scored (32.1440).These results are totally inconsistent with those of a results of resent study conducted by Al-

Qrenawi. (2010) of " Parenting styles and fear among children in Gaza Strip governorates ", Al Qrenawi found that: The highest parenting style used by parents is the dismissing parent with 70.8% followed by disapproving parent with 67.3% and laissez-faire parent with 65.3% and the lowest one was emotion-coaching parent with 56.6%. Latouf (2008) indicated that the authoritative parenting style was the mostly used by the parents of the five-year old group and that this parenting style tends to lead to more acceptable social behaviour among the five-year olds. While, the study results of Dwairy et al (2006) found that all parenting styles differed across Arab societies, where the Arab societies have mixed parenting styles for their children and they responded differently to every parenting style. However, Dwairy et al (2006c) indicated that authoritative parenting was associated with a higher level of connectedness with the family and better mental health of adolescents. The study results of Dwairy et.al, (2005) indicated that authoritarian parenting within an authoritarian culture is not as harmful as within a liberal culture. The results can be attributed to the high education level of parents, where a parents with high school level represented 42.7%, and university level was 44.0% for parents study sample. Media influence could be another factor to be considered.

4.3.2 Parenting styles (PS) according to gender

To investigate the relationship between PSs and parents gender, and to find answers to research questions, the following t-test was performed for this purpose.

Table (4.20): Differences in parenting style between fathers and mothers

parenting style	category	N	Mean	S. Deviation	t	P value
Permissive	father	153	32.451	4.721	- 0.238	0.812
	mother	208	32.567	4.486		
authoritarian	father	153	32.065	5.004	- 0.262	0.794
	mother	208	32.201	4.816		
authoritative	father	153	37.712	4.930	- 2.285	0.023*
	mother	208	38.903	4.869		
Total score	father	153	102.228	10.875	- 1.266	0.206
	mother	208	103.673	10.594		

Significant at (P= 0.05)   * Probability (Two-Tailed): 0.022896

In order to test the sex difference for the parents (father/mother) against parenting styles (PS), When there are only two means to compare, the T-independent test was performed as in: table (4.20), the results showed that there are significant differences between the means of authoritative parenting style toward mothers and according to parent's gender where t scores (-2.285), with (P<0.023). But there were no significant differences between the means of (permissive parenting and authoritarian parenting) according to the parents' gender.

4.3.3 Parenting styles according to age

To detect any Differences in PSs related to parents' age, the following application was used for this purpose. At the end of results, related results of previous studies were compared for more convenience.

Table (4.21): Differences in parenting style related to parents' age

Parenting style		sum of squares	df	mean square	F	P value
permissive	Between Groups	20.786	3	6.929	0.328	0.805
	Within Groups	7535.347	357	21.107		
	Total	7556.133	360			
authoritarian	Between Groups	11.265	3	3.755	0.156	0.926
	Within Groups	8599.245	357	24.088		
	Total	8610.510	360			
authoritative	Between Groups	116.570	3	38.857	1.611	0.187
	Within Groups	8611.990	357	24.123		
	Total	8728.560	360			
Total score	Between Groups	262.813	3	87.604	0.760	0.517
	Within Groups	41131.846	357	115.215		
	Total	41394.659	360			

Significant at (P= 0.05)

According to Table (4-15): (after one-way ANOVA has been applied to test (PS) against parents age), no significant correlation could be found. So, the variable "parents age" has no influence over (PS) practiced by parents in the time of data collection. A recent study of the acceptability of physical punishment of children (authoritative style) in 14 countries in the European Union found that higher levels of acceptability were reported among men, older parents and less educated parents (Gracia and Herrero, 2008). Comparing the results in the table 4.14, when examining differences in parents' age in relation to (PS), no significant relation could be observed, while in the study of Gracia and Herrero, there were relations

between authoritarian style adopted by parents and their age, gender and level of education.

4.3.4 PS according to parent education

To investigate differences in PS related to parent education one-way ANOVA was used.

Table (4.22): Differences in (PS) related to parents' education

Parenting style		sum of squares	df	mean square	F	P value
permissive	Between Groups	94.39	2	47.19	2.264	0.105
	Within Groups	7461.74	358	20.84		
	Total	7556.13	360			
authoritarian	Between Groups	180.25	2	90.12	3.827	0.023*
	Within Groups	8430.25	358	23.54		
	Total	8610.51	360			
authoritative	Between Groups	55.95	2	27.97	1.155	0.316
	Within Groups	8672.60	358	24.22		
	Total	8728.56	360			
Total score	Between Groups	95.85	2	47.92	0.415	0.660
	Within Groups	41298.80	358	115.36		
	Total	41394.65	360			

When examining (PS) against parents education, using one-way ANOVA, only Authoritarian Style was found to be of significant value, where F = 3.827, P= (0.023). While no significant relation could be detected between permissive parenting and authoritative parenting and parents' level of education. Parents who

believe that parenting positively affects child outcomes are less likely to adopt coercive strategies (authoritarian style), as a discipline response. Generally, it is less-educated parents who use physical punishment more (Durrant *et al*, 1999). Researcher's opinion is that, parents who think that positively toward parenting role should not be authoritarians. In a research by X. Chen et al. (2000) and Xu et al. (2005), the education levels of Chinese mothers were found to be positively associated with authoritative attitudes and more reasoning strategies. This difference may be because mothers with high educational levels are more likely to be exposed to and understand the importance of inductive parenting for social and cognitive development in children. The majority of the mothers in the present study had college degrees or higher. The possible cause of this diversity between the two results could be due to the higher educational level of the Chinese mothers and the low sample number N= 33, as compared to the current study sample with N= 208.

Table (4.23) Mean Differences to parents level of Education

SDQ subscale	Group	Mean Difference	Significance
authoritarian	(basic) - (secondary)	1.630	0.128
	(basic) – (university)	2.208	0.023*

Post hoc Scheffe test was used, as in table (4.23) for further treatment to verify the differences which resulted in the table (4.22); it's obviously related to the

authoritarian parents with significant P value of 0.023 toward basic education level, which means the basic level holders tend to use authoritarian PS.

4.3.5 Relation between PS and monthly income

To find any differences in PS related to monthly income, One-way ANOVA was used, and the Following results could be seen. Socio economic status SES is the term used in previous studies to investigate the relation between SES and PS.

Table (4.24): Differences in parenting style related to monthly income

Parenting style		sum of squares	df	mean square	F	P value
permissive	Between Groups	138.79	3	46.26	2.227	0.085
	Within Groups	7417.34	357	20.77		
	Total	7556.13	360			
authoritarian	Between Groups	184.54	3	61.51	2.606	0.052
	Within Groups	8425.96	357	23.60		
	Total	8610.51	360			
authoritative	Between Groups	5.51	3	1.83	0.075	0.973
	Within Groups	8723.04	357	24.43		
	Total	8728.56	360			
Total score	Between Groups	484.30	3	161.43	1.409	0.240
	Within Groups	40910.35	357	114.59		
	Total	41394.65	360			

One-way ANOVA was used to study the differences in (PS) according to monthly income, no significant relation was found between (PS) and monthly income, as shown in table (4-24), that could be related to parents answer as people of Gaza

strip- like the people of other communities- don't favor this type of such questions, or deal with as invading their privacy.

4.3.6 Relation between PS and family size

To find any differences in (PSs) in relation to family size, by using One-way ANOVA, the following results were seen.

Table (4.25): Differences in parenting style in relation to family size

Parenting style		sum of squares	df	mean square	F	P value
permissive	Between Groups	50.51	2	25.25	1.205	0.301
	Within Groups	7505.61	358	20.96		
	Total	7556.13	360			
authoritarian	Between Groups	54.62	2	27.31	1.143	0.320
	Within Groups	8555.88	358	23.89		
	Total	8610.51	360			
authoritative	Between Groups	63.44	2	31.72	1.311	0.271
	Within Groups	8665.11	358	24.20		
	Total	8728.56	360			
Total score	Between Groups	28.47	2	14.23	0.123	0.884
	Within Groups	41366.18	358	115.54		
	Total	41394.65	360			

One-way ANOVA, was used to examine the differences between (PS) sub-scales against family size. No significant differences was detected at all. This indicates

as shown in table (4.25), that family size does not have any impact on the type of (PS) practiced by parents.

4.4 Correlation between (PS) and emotional and behavioral problems:

To investigate the relationship between PS and behavioral problems of the preschool children, a correlation matrix was done to find that relation. The Importance of this relationship summarizes the whole research, as indicated through its title.

Table (4.26): Correlation between parenting style and emotional problems

SDQ		Permissive	Authoritarian	Authoritative
Emotional problems	R	0.076	0.056	- 0.067
	S	0.152	0.288	0.202
Prosocial behaviour	R	- 0.027	- 0.006	0.087
	S	0.607	0.906	1.000
Hyperactivity problems	R	- 0.045	0.059	- 0.004
	S	0.394	0.265	0.934
Peer relationship	R	0.013	0.075	- 0.136
	S	0.806	0.153	0.010 **
Conduct problems	R	- 0.015	0.057	- 0.153
	S	0.778	0.277	0.004**
Total score	R	0.011	0.109	- 0.152
	S	0.832	0.039 *	0.004 **

   * = significant at 0.05   ** = significant at 0.01

The following are the results on the correlation between parenting styles and the behavioral problems of the children:

1- A negative correlation between authoritative (PS) and conduct problems, at significance level (P < 0.004) with a Pearson correlation coefficient of - 0.153.

2 -A negative correlation between authoritative parenting and peer relations at significance level (P< 0.010) with a Pearson correlation of -0.136.

3 -A negative correlation between authoritative parenting in total score where

R - 0.152 and at significant level (p<0.004)

4- A positive correlation between authoritarian style in total score where R = 0.109 at significant level (p< 0.039).

Also there is a positive correlation between authoritarian (PS) and conduct problems, at significance level of P<0.027 with Pearson correlation of 0.116. This means that authoritarian (PS) could be one of the factors that lead to conduct problems. In study done by Callaway, et al (2003), from Huntington university tried to explore the relationship between authoritarian style and preschoolers' impulsivity, no significant relationship was found between more authoritarian parenting and higher impulsivity in children. This result is likely to be strongly related to the methodology, namely the sample chosen. Had the sample been more diverse and numerous, a significant result may have been found. (N = 4, probably because of the methodology, a experimental type). Another study was done by (Thompson, 2003), examined the associations, and possible causal relationship, between mothers' authoritarian attitudes to discipline and child behavior using cross-sectional and prospective data from a large population sample surveyed in the 1970 British cohort study. Results show a clear linear relationship between the degree of maternal approval of authoritarian child-rearing attitudes and the rates of conduct problems at age 5

and age 10. This association is independent of the confounding effects of socio-economic status and maternal psychological distress. Maternal authoritarian attitudes independently predicted the development of conduct problems 5 years later at age 10. The results of this longitudinal study suggest that authoritarian parenting attitudes expressed by mothers may be of significance in the development of conduct problems, which is in agreement with the current study.

Another study related to our discussion was done by Sailor, (2006), titled, Effects of Parenting Styles on Children's Behavior, concluded that: Authoritarian parenting and the use of punitive and forceful measures to enforce proper behavior causes anger, resentment, and deceit and impairs wholesome parent-child relationships. As shown, these symptoms, been impacted by this (PS), represent conduct problems which agree with the discussed result so far. In Baumrind's 1967 research, preschoolers with authoritarian parents are withdrawn and unhappy. When discussing the impact of authoritarian on preschoolers emotional problems, they appear anxious and insecure with peers and react hostilely if frustrated. Baumrind's 1971 research shows girls to be dependent and lack motivation and boys much are more likely to be angry and defiant. In addition, children of authoritarian parents are less likely to internalize (accept as their own standard) society's unacceptable behaviors (Grusec and Goodnow, 1994) and are more likely to have low self-esteem (Coppersmith, 1967). These children often model their parents' inflexible thinking (Dekovic, et al, 1991).

When comparing the research results to the previous studies on authoritative parents, who are nurturing and set, discuss, and enforce developmentally appropriate limits are the most successful in helping their children become autonomous, independent, self-controlled, self-confident, and cooperative (Grusec and Lytton, 1988; Baumrind, 1969; 1971). These children also are more likely to have high levels of competence and high self-esteem during middle childhood and adolescence (Coppersmith, 1967; Loeb, Horst, and Horton, 1980). They also have internalized moral standards (Holmbeck, et al, 1995) and their academic performance in high school is superior to that of children from either authoritarian or permissive homes (Dornbusch, 1987) or (Steinberg, et al, 1992). And that last result corresponds to current study result, which says: "A Positive correlation between authoritarian (PS) and Conduct problems". Comparing the last result with what William and Sanders, (2004), this showed that preschoolers are influenced by authoritarian style, "describing them as likely to develop later conduct problems". A second result to be discussed which is consistent with the findings of the current study is that there is a negative correlation between authoritative parenting and emotional symptoms. Kaufmann, et.al, (2000), of there study on the relationship between parenting style and children's adjustment found that The parents' perspective authoritativeness was associated negatively with emotional and behavioral problems in children and positively with healthy adjustment. This corresponds to the current result. McLeod, et al, (2006) at Virginia commonwealth university, and university of California, Los Angeles, and Harvard university, USA, examined the association between parenting and

childhood anxiety: A meta-analysis, to help clarify the role parenting plays in childhood anxiety. After the analysis of 47 studies testing the association between parenting and child anxiety. They found that parenting accounted for only 4% of the variance in child anxiety, that's a negative correlation between Parenting and child anxiety, which represent the emotional problems in the current study.Bor; and Sanders, (2004), had studied the authoritarian style of parenting in a study titled Correlates of self-reported coercive parenting of preschool- aged children at high risk for the development of conduct problems. This study which examined the correlates of coercive parenting in a high-risk sample of 305 three-year-old children found that children are more likely to develop later conduct problems. In another study by Keown, et.al. (2006), in their study on: Preschool Boys with Pervasive hyperactivity: early peer functioning and mother–child relationship influences, they found that: children without hyperactive behavior problems may be less demanding, making it easier for parents to anticipate misbehavior and employ proactive strategies to minimize the occurrence of problem behavior. They may also be more competent and rewarding social partners, making it easier for their mothers to engage in more synchronous interactions with them (Mize & Pettit, 1997).

4.5 Summery for chapter four:

After completing data analysis here you find the main results:

1- Children gender does not have relation with emotional and behavioral problems of the pre school children as reported by parents.

2- Parents reported both emotional and behavioral problems, hyperactivity, and conduct problems of the children more frequently among those who have family members "1-3"

3- Family size does not have impact on prosocial behavior problems, and peer relation problems.

4- Family size does not have any impact over the type of PS practiced by parents.

5- Middle area has significant relation with emotional, peer relation, conduct, and with prosocial, but does not have significant relation with hyperactivity problems where $F=0.596$ and $(P<.665)$.

6- Parents age has no significant relation with preschoolers behavioral problems.

7- Family income doesn't show any significant impact on emotional and behavioral problems included in SDQ, according to the study.

8- No significant relation was found between PS and family monthly income.

9- Authoritarian Style was found to be of significant value, where $P= 0.023$. While no significant correlation could be detected between permissive parenting and authoritative parenting with parents' level of education.

10- No significant relation could be found between "parents age" and PSs practiced by parents in the time of data collection.

11- When comparing secondary education level which represents(42.7%) of the study sample, to diploma holders (42.7%), it favors secondary level holders with mean difference of 0.9568 with prosocial behavior and $(P<0.016)$, but when comparing basic level (13.0%) and post graduate level (4.2%), of the study

sample it favors the basic educational level and has got significant relation of mean difference 1.7708 and (P<0.015) with conduct problems.

12- There are significant differences between the means of authoritative parenting style toward mothers and according to parent's gender where" t" scores (-2.285), with (P<0.023).

13- Fathers reporting significant differences on "emotional symptoms", mothers reporting significant differences on "peer problems". But there were no significant differences among (conduct problems, hyperactivity/ inattention, and prosocial behavior) according to the parent's gender.

14- No significant relation was found between (PS) and monthly income,

15- Family size does not have a significant relation with the type of (PS) practiced by parents.

16- A negative correlation between authoritative (PS) and conduct problems, at significance level (P < 0.004) with a Pearson correlation coefficient of - 0.153.

17- A negative correlation between authoritative parenting and peer relations at significance level (P< 0.010) with a Pearson correlation of -0.136.

18- A negative correlation between authoritative parenting in total score where r - 0.152 and at significant level (p<0.004) with conduct problems.

19- A positive correlation between authoritarian style in total score where R = 0.109 at significant level (p< 0.039).

Chapter V

5.0 Conclusion and Recommendation

5.1 Conclusion:

A child is similar to a pure picture, which reflects the beauty of being. He is a white sheet of paper, which accepts all forms and colors and is the foundation stone of human society. He is the leader of the future within which all forms of renewal are embodied Khairy Majeed (2005). So how do parents maintain the beauty of this pure picture and what are the shapes and colors with which we can fill the pages of his future life? What have we done to prepare him to carry out his expected role with other members of the society? What forms of discipline should we follow to motivate him to recreate and invent? Many parents in all places and times ponder these questions.

If we take the authoritarian style of child discipline as an example, we find that such a style implies physical punishment, which is one of a number of common styles that are socially and legally acceptable in many cultures and communities including Arab communities. This style is, however, unacceptable in many modern communities and most of them have banned the use of unreasonable force in disciplining children. Child protection societies, international agreements, studies and research and child psychologists encourage parents to use alternative methods of discipline to physical punishment, which the

researcher hopes, will be the benefit of this humble study. The current research results show that there is a positive relation between (PS) and behavioral problems of preschool children. Authoritative style has a significant positive relation with emotional, conduct and peer relation problems. Also the authoritarian style has got to have a positive relationship with conduct problems. Parents age does not show any significant relation with emotional problems of the preschoolers too. Preschoolers age also does not get any significant relation with behavioral problems. But, parent's education has got a significant relation, with the authoritarian parenting style. Secondary level education has got a significant relation with prosocial behavior and basic level education has got a significant relation with conduct problems of the preschool children. Parent's gender was found not to have a significant relation with parenting style.. Other excerpts of research concluded that parent's age and monthly income don't have an impact on parenting styles. Also the research has found a relationship between the five subscales of (SDQ) and the items of Socio-demographic data, particularly: parent's gender with behavioral problems. Fathers have got a significant relation with emotional problems and mothers have got a significant relation with peer relations of the preschoolers. Children age does not have relation with behavioral problems as indicated by parents' answers. Place of residence has also got a significant relation between children "of middle region and emotional and prosocial" and "children of Gaza governorate with conduct problems". About family size: Parents reported both emotional and behavioral problems, hyperactivity, and conduct problems of the children more frequently

among those who have family members "1-3". A negative correlation between authoritative parenting in total score with conduct problems. A negative correlation between authoritative parenting and peer relations.

Based on the results of this study, and the correlations between parenting and emotional and behavioral problems in preschool children, researcher recommends the following hints: community needs more orientation in the impacts of parenting, especially regarding the childhood in the following areas:

5.2 Recommendations

1- Emphasize the importance of parents role in reducing the impact of psychological problems related to peers.

2- The use of certain (PS), I.E. authoritative style, might reduce the chance of emotional impact on children.

3- The necessity of providing KGs with social services &/ or psychosocial services for the target children.

4- According to MOHE, most of the visited KGs don't meet the license criteria for safety. I.e. one meter square for every child inside the class, and 2 square meters in the playground.

5- The vital role of the play in the preschooler's life for normal development.

6- Orientation programs through meeting with parents in KGconducted via specialists using simple resources i.e. pamphlets.

7- At least one specialist should be available per KG. I. e. mental health assistant.

5.2.1 Recommendations for Improved Parenting Skills:

There is the need to bring up children that are well-adjusted. To assist parents meet their responsibilities, the following strategies are recommended:

- Parents should display proper role model for children to emulate;

- They should show enough affection to their children.

- They should Endeavour to stop perpetuating abusive parenting that they themselves went through.

- Parents should find time to talk with their children and also listen to them in order to get into their innermost feelings, thoughts and emotion and guide them properly.

- Children should be helped to develop the sense of self worth and positive self concept.

This is because the way the child judges himself determines how balance his personality - Clear consistent boundaries should be set for children. These help to guide children on the acceptable behaviour by parents.

- There should be regular monitory of what children do.

- Parents should create a secure environment where peace, love and harmony prevail.

5.3 Suggested Future Studies

1- Impact of (PS) on children's academic achievement.

2- Impact of (PS) on preschoolers' separation anxiety.

3- Studies based on clinical experience, not only descriptive studies.

4- Attachment impact on preschoolers.

5- Relation between parenting styles and attachment in preschool children.

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Annex-1   Socio-demographic data

بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم

أخى الفاضل ُ أختى الفاضلة : السلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته :

أمامك استبانه لتحديد نـوع **التنـشئة الوالديـة** و أخرى لتحديد نوع الاضطراب الذى قد يكون تأثر به

طفلك وهما جزء   من بحث بعنوان **التنشئة الوالدية وأثرها على المشاكل العاطفية و السلوكية**

لأطفال ما قبل المدرسة

لنيل درجة الماجستير في الصحة العامة تخصص صحة نفسية مجتمعية من جامعة القدس أبو ديس

لذلك نأمل منك بعد قراءة فقرات الإستبانه قراءة متأنية الإجابة عليها بما يناسب طفلك مع مراعاة ما يلى:

١.   قراءة العبارات جيدا قبل البدء بالإجابة.

٢.   لا توجد إجابات صحيحة وأخرى خاطئة.

٣.   الإجابة على جميع الفقرات.

وضع (علامة ×) في الخانة التى تناسبك

نرجو التكرم بالإجابة على فقرات الاختبار بصراحة وصدق وأمانة

أن كل ما تذكرانه موضع سرية ولا يستخدم إلا للدراسة العلمية فقط ولادا عى لذكر الاسم

راجياً المولى عز وجل أن يحفظك ويرعاك

ملاحظة: إن المعلومات التى تصدر عنك ستكون في غاية السرية ولن تستخدم إلا لغرض البحث العلمى

فقط

نوع الوالدين	الأب ☐	الأم ☐	

عمرالآباء ☐	اقل من ٣٠ ☐	من ٣١ – ٤٠ ☐	من ٤١- ٥٠ ☐	أكثر مل☐٥ه

حجم الأسرة	١ — ٣ ☐	٤- ٧ ☐	كثر من٧ ☐	☐

تعليم الآباء ☐	أمي ☐	أساسي ☐	ثانوي ☐	دبلوم ☐ جامعي ☐	دراسات عليا ☐

المحافظة	قرية ☐	مخيم ☐	مدينة ☐	☐

مكان السكن ☐	شمال غزة ☐	غزة ☐	الوسطى ☐	خانيونس☐ رفح

الدخل الشهري	اقل من ١٠٠٠ شيكل ☐	من ١٠٠١- ٢٠٠٠ شيكل	☐
	٢٠٠١- ٣٠٠٠ شيكل ☐	اكثر من ٣٠٠٠ شيكل	☐

١٤٥

ANNEX-2 Parental Authority Questionnaires (PAQ)

استبيان السلطة الأبوية (للأب و الأم)

تعليمات : لكل واحد من الأسئلة التالية علم / ى الدرجة التى ترينها/تراها مناسبة

١-لا أوافق بشدة ؛ ٥-أوافق بشدة ؛

- الرجاء التفكير فى كل جملة و مطابقتها بما يتناسب معها عندما كان أطفالك يترعرعون فى ظل الأسرة ؛

- لا يوجد إجابات صحيحة و أخرى خاطئة فقط ما يهمنا هو انطباعك تجاه الإستبيان.

- للأهمية لا تلغى أي سؤال.

★ جميع الأسئلة تبدأ بالجملة التالية- عندما كان طفلك فى طور النمو

لا أوافق بشدة –١   لا أوافق–٢   لا أوافق ولا أعارض –٣   أوافق –٤   أوافق بشدة –٥

1	هل ترين أنه لكي يحيا حياة أفضل على الطفل أن يفعل كما فعلت فى الماضى؟	5 - 4 - 3 - 2 - 1
2	حتى لو لم يوافق الطفل فلا ضير لو أجبرته على تبنى ما ترينه مناسبا؟	5 - 4 - 3 - 2 - 1
3	هل توقعت من طفلك التقيد بأوامرك فورا و بدون معارضة؟	5 - 4 - 3 - 2 - 1
4	فى مرحلة تأسيس نظام العائلة هل ناقشت ذلك مع أحد أطفالك؟	5 - 4 - 3 - 2 - 1
5	هل شجعت طفلك على مناقشة أى من الضوابط الذى يعتقدها طفلك غير منطقية؟	5 - 4 - 3 - 2 - 1
6	هل شعرت أن لطفلك مطلق الحرية لعمل ما يحتاجه حتى وإن عارض ذلك رغبتك أو والده؟	5 - 4 - 3 - 2 - 1
7	هل تسمحى لطفلك مناقشة أى قرار اتخذته؟	5 - 4 - 3 - 2 - 1
8	هل وجهت نشاطات طفلك أو قراراته بشكل عقلانى ومنطقى	5 - 4 - 3 - 2 - 1
9	هل شعرت بأنه يجب دوما استخدام الإجبار لكون سلوك طفلك كما يجب؟	5 - 4 - 3 - 2 - 1
10	هل شعرت أن رفض طفلك بعض القواعد السلوكية سببه أن له موقف ضدك أو ضد والده؟	5 - 4 - 3 - 2 - 1
11	هل توقعت من طفلك أن يناقش أى مسألة لا تعجبه بحرية؟	5 - 4 - 3 - 2 - 1
12	هل شعرت أنه من الحكمة تذكير الطفل مبكرا من هو رب الأسرة؟	5 - 4 - 3 - 2 - 1
13	هل أعطيت طفلك نصائح و إرشادات سلوكية؟	5 - 4 - 3 - 2 - 1
14	هل تأخذين رغبات أطفالك فى الاعتبار عند اتخاذك قرارات عائلية؟	5 - 4 - 3 - 2 - 1
15	هل كنت ملزمة على تقديم إرشادات منطقية هادفة؟	5 - 4 - 3 - 2 - 1
16	هل كنت تفقدين صوابك لو حاول أحد الأطفال معارضتك؟	5 - 4 - 3 - 2 - 1
17	هل اعتقدت بأن جميع مشاكل المجتمع يمكن أن تحل لو لم يقيد الأبوان قرارات و رغبات	5 - 4 - 3 - 2 - 1
18	هل أعطيت طفلك الفرصة لتعلم السلوك المناسب وإن أخطأ تعاقبينه؟	5 - 4 - 3 - 2 - 1

1 - 2 - 3 - 4 - 5	هل سمحت لطفلك اتخاذ معظم قراراته بنفسه بدون تدخلات كثيرة؟	19
1 - 2 - 3 - 4 - 5	هل أخذت آراء طفلك في الاعتبار عند اتخاذك قرارات تخص الأسرة؟	20
1 - 2 - 3 - 4 - 5	هل تعتقدى بأنك مسئولة التوجه و الارشاد لأطفالك؟	21
1 - 2 - 3 - 4 - 5	هل لديك مقاييس لسلوك أطفالك في الست و مستعدة لتعديلها لمصلحتهم ؟	22
1 - 2 - 3 - 4 - 5	هل توجهين سلوك طفلك و تتوقعين استجابته . ومستعدة دائما للإنصات	23
1 - 2 - 3 - 4 - 5	هل سمحت لطفلك بتكوين وجهة نظر خاصة به و تسمحين له عادة بأن يقرر عمله ؟	24
1 - 2 - 3 - 4 - 5	هل اعتقدت دوما بإمكانة حل غالبة مشاكل المجتمع لو أن الوالدين تعاملا بحزم ؟	25
1 - 2 - 3 - 4 - 5	هل غالبا ما تخبرين أطفالك كما يجب عمله و أيضا بتوقعاتك بكيفية إنجاز تلك المهام ؟	26
1 - 2 - 3 - 4 - 5	هل تعطين أطفالك توجيهات واضحة بخصوص سلوكهم و تتفهمين موقفهم	27
1 - 2 - 3 - 4 - 5	هل شعرت بأنك لم تقومين بتوجه سلوك و رغبات أطفالك في الأسرة ؟	28
1 - 2 - 3 - 4 - 5	هل ما تتوقعينه من أطفالك وتتوقين إليه هو بساطة صعب المنال ؟	29
1 - 2 - 3 - 4 - 5	عندما كنت تتخذين قرارا يؤذى بشكل ما أحد الأطفال هل كنت على استعداد للمناقشة	30

استبيان السلطة الوالدية صمم لكي يقيس نوع السلطة الوالدية أو الممارسة التأديبية من وجهة نظر الوالدين. الاستبيان له ثلاثة مقاييس جزئية: مقسمة كما يلي

المتسامحة: الأسئلة (1,6,10,13,14,17,19,21,24,28)
الاستبدادية: الأسئلة (٢) 3,7,9,12,16,18,25,26,29,
المرنة: الأسئلة (4,5,8,11,15,20,22,23,27,30)

★ الدرجات في أي مقياس جزئي يتراوح بين 10-50

ANNEX -3   **Strength and Difficulties Questionnaires (SDQ)**

<div dir="rtl">

اسبيان مواطن القوة والصعوبة SDQ (٤-١٦سنة)
للوالدين

يرجى الإجابة على كل بند بـ :غير صحيح ,صحيح نوعا ما , أو صحيح بالتأكيد بوضع علامة صح تحت الإجابة المناسبة . حاول أن تكون دقيقا في إجابتك . سوف يساعدنا كثير اذا أجبت على كل بند حتى وان كنت غير متأكد أو ترى انه غير مناسب يرجى ان تكون إجابتك حول سلوك الطفل خلال الستة الأشهر الأخيرة أو هذه السنة الدراسية .

العمر ☐ شهر ☐ ـــلة ☐   الجنس   ذكر ☐ انثى ☐   ☐ ☐

	غير صحيح بالتأكيد	صحيح نوعا ما	صحيح
كثيرا ما يشكو من صداع او آلام فى البطن او الشعور بالغثيان	☐	☐	☐
يقلق من اشياء كثيرة .كثيرا ما يبدو عليه القلق	☐	☐	☐
كثيرا ما يكون غير سعيد ,حزين او يبكى بسهولة	☐	☐	☐
عصبى او متشبث بالاخرين فى المواقف الجديدة .من السهل ان يفقد ثقته بنفسه	☐	☐	☐
يخاف من اشياء كثيره . من السهل تخويفه	☐	☐	☐
كثيرا ما تنتابة نوبات من الغضب الشديد أ و سريع الغضب	☐	☐	☐
مطيع على وجه العموم .عادة يفعل ما يطلبه منه الكبار	☐	☐	☐
كثيرا ما يتعارك مع الاخرين من نفس سنه او يستأسد عليهم	☐	☐	☐
كثيرا ما يكذب , يخدع او يغش	☐	☐	☐
يسرق من البيت او المدرسة او من اْماكن اخرى	☐	☐	☐

١٤٨

</div>

☐	☐	☐	**لا** يستطيع البقاء او الاستقرار فى مكان واحد . كثير الحركة
☐	☐	☐	يتململ او يتلوى باستمرار(جسمه فى حركه مستمره اثناء جلوسه)
☐	☐	☐	يتشتت انتباهه بسرعه وقليل التركيز
☐	☐	☐	يفكر قبل ان يتصرف
☐	☐	☐	يتابع اداء الواجبات حتى النهايه . لديه انتباه جيد
☐	☐	☐	يحب العزلة .يميل الى اللعب لوحده
☐	☐	☐	لديه على الاقل صديق واحد جيد
☐	☐	☐	فى الغالب محبوب ممن هم فى سنه
☐	☐	☐	يستهزأ منه او يستاسد عليه من هم فى سنه
☐	☐	☐	ينسجم بشكل اْفضل مع الكبار عنه مع الاطفال فى نفس سنه
☐	☐	☐	يهتم بمشاعر الاخرين
☐	☐	☐	يشرك الاخرين بسهولة فيما يخصه(لعب ,أقلام ,ألعاب ,حلويات..... الخ)
☐	☐	☐	يساعد الاخرين اذا ما حدث لأحدهم مكروه
☐	☐	☐	لطيف مع من هم أصغر منه
☐	☐	☐	كثيرا ما يتطوع لمساعدة الاخرين(الوالدين ,المدرسين ,الاطفال الاخرين)

ANNEX-4 Helsinki Committee Approval Letter

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Palestinian National Authority
Ministry of Health
Helsinki Committee

السلطة الوطنية الفلسطينية
وزارة الصحة
لجنة هلسنكي

التاريخ7/6/2010

Name:

الاسم: هاني محمد الحنفي

I would like to inform you that the committee
has discussed your application about:

نفيدكم علماً بأن اللجنة قد ناقشت مقترح دراستكم
حول:-

Impact of parenting styles on emotional and
behavioral problems of pre-school children in
Gaza Governorates.

In its meeting on June 2010

و ذلك في جلستها المنعقدة لشهر 6 2010

and decided the Following:-

و قد قررت ما يلي:-

To approve the above mention research study.

الموافقة على البحث المذكور عاليه.

Signature
توقيع

Member عضو   Member عضو   Chairperson

Conditions:-
* Valid for 2 years from the date of approval to start.
* It is necessary to notify the committee in any change in the admitted study protocol.
* The committee appreciate receiving one copy of your final research when it is
  completed.

annex

بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم

يقوم الباحث بأجراء دراسة ماجستير بعنوان:

" أثر التنشئة الو الدية وعلاقتها بالمشاكل الانفعالية و السلوكية لدى أطفال ما قبل المدرسة
في محافظات قطاع غزة"

**"Impact of Parenting styles on Emotional and Behavioral Problems
of Preschool children in Gaza Governorates"**

يهدف الباحث من خلال هذه الدراسة التعرف على أثر أساليب التنشئة الوالدية وعلاقتها

ببعض   المشاكل الانفعالية و السلوكية لدى الأطفال في مرحلة ما قبل المدرسة في

محافظات قطاع غزة. مستخدما لذلك نموذجين منفصلين أحدهما للأطفال وهو مقياس القوة

و الصعوبة و الثانى للآباء بخصوص أساليب التنشئة الوالدية. و النموذج الثالث للبيانات

الديموغرافية الاجتماعية يتم تعبئتها جميعا من قبل الآباء.

مع العلم أن:

البيانات التي يتم الحصول عليها سوف تستخدم لأغراض البحث العلمي فقط

وأن المشاركة فى البحث لن تعرض أى طفل للايذاء أو الاستغلال.

شاكرين لكم حسن تعاونكم ،،،، والله الموفق

الباحث

Annex (7)

Table (2.1) - Matrix of the four Parenting Styles (PS)

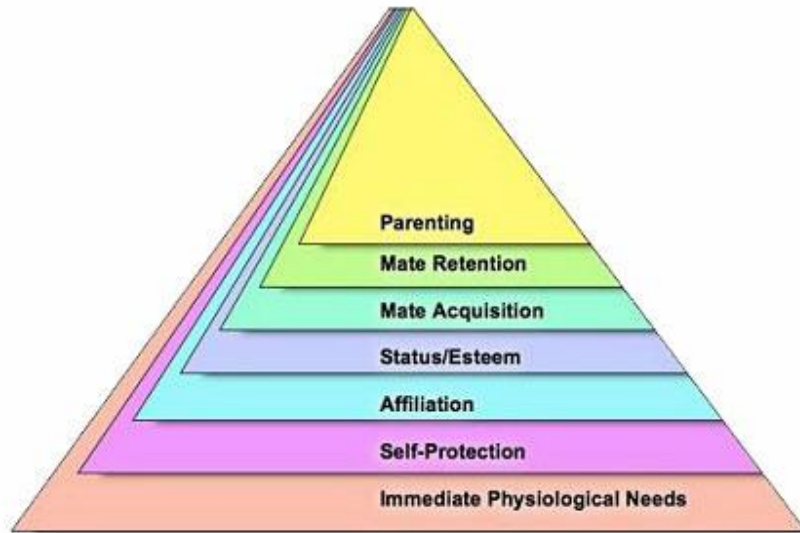|	**Demanding**	**Undemanding**
Responsive	**Authoritative** (Positive)**-** Democratic	**Permissive** (Indulgent)
Unresponsive	**Authoritarian** (Disapproving)	**Uninvolved** (Neglectful)

Source: E.E. Maccoby and J.A. Martin (1983) - with modification.

Annex(8)

Maslow's original pyramid of needs

Annex(9)

Revised pyramid of needs

Annex (10)

ملخص الدراسة

هدفت هذه الدراسة لاستكشاف العلاقة بين أساليب التنشئة الوالدية و أثرها في المشاكل السلوكية لدى أطفال ما قبل المدرسة و في الطريق لمعرفة ذلك تكون الدراسة أيضا قد زودتنا بمدى انتشار تلك الأساليب و شيوعها.و بعكس ما هو متوقع تبين أن الأسلوب الديمقراطي هو الأكثر بين المتوسطات الحسابية يليها النمط المتسامح فالتسلطي في مناطق القطاع الخمسة و ثبت أيضا وجود علاقة دالة إحصائيا بين الأساليب الوالدية الثلاث و بين المشاكل السلوكية لدى الأطفال المستهدفين بالدراسة.

هذه الدراسة ذات طابع وصفي تحليلي استهدفت ٣٩٣ طفلا و طفلة و والديهم حيث بلغت نسبة من استجابوا ٩١% بواقع ١٥٣ أب و ٢٠٨ من الأمهات ليعطوا انطباعاتهم نحاه ١٩٨ طفل و ١٦٣ طفلة لفئتين بعمر(٤– أقل من ٥سنوات) و بلغ عددهم ١٨٣ طفلا في مرحلة البستان، و من(٥– أقل من ٦ سنوات) و بلغ عددهم ١٧٨ طفلا،في مرحلة التمهيدي. و تراوحت الفئة العمرية الأكثر مشاركة من الآباء (٣٠– ٤٠) عاما بنسبة ٩٦.٥%. تم الاختيار بطريقة العينة العشوائية البسيطة و تم توزيع الاستبيانات حسب تمثيل كل عدد من النسبة الكلية بعد الاختيار العشوائي من العدد الكلى للرياض البالغ ٢٥١ روضة. بطريقة نظامية اخذين في الحسبان أن الأرقام المسجلة في وزارة التعليم العالي غير دقيقة.

تم توزيع استبيانين، الأول لتحديد نوع أسلوب التنشئة الوالدية بأنواعها الثلاث المتسامح والموثوق فالمتسلط وهذا المقياس يحدد النمط المتبع في التنشئة وغالبا تكون الأنماط مختلطة تتم الإجابة من خلال خمسة خيارات.والمقياس الثاني القوة و الصعوبة، والذي يقيس المشاكل لدى أطفال العينة على أساس خمسة مقاييس فرعية وهى المشاكل السلوكية و فرط الحركة وعلاقات الأقران وسوء السلوك و مقياس العطاء وكل مقياس منها يتكون من خمسة أجزاء يتم الإجابة عليها بثلاثة خيارات. بعد أخذ العينة الاستطلاعية على ٣٠ من الأطفال و والديهم و اختبار درجة الصدق و الثبات باستخدام برنامج التحليل الاحصائي SPSS-VERG -18. حيث تبين أن جميع المقاييس الفرعية الذي يشملها مقياس السلطة الوالدية لديه مستويات كبيرة من صحة الأنساق الداخلي. و المقاييس المستخدمة قد ثبت صدقها و ثباتها ومن ثم صلاحيتها للاستخدام.

أشارت نتائج الدراسة إلى وجود فروقات دالة إحصائيا بين الأطفال الذين يقطنون في المنطقة الوسطي من القطاع، بخصوص الأعراض الانفعالية و سوء التصرف وسلوك العطاء وكذلك علاقة الأقران بالمقارنة ممن يقطنون منطقة شمال غزة و لكن لم ترصد فروق بدلالة إحصائية واضحة لدى أطفال المنطقة الوسطي بشأن مقياس فرط الحركة و تشتت الانتباه. وبخصوص البعد المتمثل في حجم الأسرة تبين النتائج المستخلصة كما أجاب الأبوان من أسرة تتكون من ٣ أفراد بأن الأعراض الانفعالية و العطاء لدى الأطفال هو أكثر تواترا من الأطفال القادمين من أسر أكبر عددا. و بينت النتائج أيضا بأن حجم الأسرة لا يؤثر على سوء التصرف و فرط الحركة و المشاكل مع الأقران.و أخيرا يتضح من النتائج أن النمط الأبوي الموثوق المتبع في بعض المناطق هو نمط امن من حيث الأثر السلوكي على الأطفال.

و تبين أيضا عند أخذ مستوى التعليم أن التعليم الأساسي يرتبط بقوة دالة إحصائيا بالنمط التسلطي لدى الآباء.من الجدير ذكره أيضا إيجاد أثر العلاقة بين بعض العوامل الديموغرافية–الاجتماعية على المشاكل السلوكية بين الأطفال المستهدفين في الدراسة. وجدت النتائج أيضا و بصورة غير متوقعة عدم وجود علاقة دالة إحصائيا بين متغير الدخل الشهري و المشاكل السلوكية لدى الأطفال.