Family Planning as Responsible Parenthood

by

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FAMILY PLANNING AS RESPONSIBLE PARENTHOOD

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Durban
January 1999
DECLARATION

"I declare that this dissertation 'Family planning as responsible parenthood' represents my own work and that all the sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references".

S. NAIDOO
Durban
January 1999
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DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my parents.
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The aim of this study was to investigate Indian parents' responsibility with regards to family planning.

From the literature study it became clear that the needs of children can only be adequately met by parents in a well planned family. Responsible parents will sensibly plan to only have as many children as they can afford. Parents must be able to meet the physical, psychological, social, moral and spiritual needs of their children. A child needs both parents to create an atmosphere of security that will give him the confidence he needs to give meaning to the world. Providing a harmonious and healthy family environment does not rest with only one of the parents, but is the outcome of a shared parenting task and responsible parenthood from both parents.

Responsible parenthood entails the acceptance of responsibility for the adequate upbringing of the child. Parents should have no uncertainties as to their responsibilities as parents. They should be fully aware of their role, purpose and task, as well as the possibilities and limitations of their activities concerning the education of their children. The relationship between parent and child must be based on trust, understanding and authority with the specific aim of educating the child.

For the purpose of the empirical investigation a self-structured questionnaire was utilized. An analysis was done of 123 questionnaires completed by both parents of Indian families from a randomly selected sample. The data thus obtained was processed and interpreted by means of descriptive statistics.
In conclusion a summary was presented and based on the findings of the study the following recommendations were made:

- Urgent attention should be given to the implementation of programmes which will assist parents in establishing a positive parental attitude towards responsible family planning.

- Media-based parent education programmes must be introduced to help parents in adequate child rearing.
Hierdie studie was daarop gerig om ondersoek in te stel na Indiëër ouers se verantwoordelikheid in gesinsbeplanning.

Uit die literatuurstudie het dit duidelik geblyk dat die behoeftes van kinders alleenlik bevredig kan word in 'n gesin wat deur verantwoordelik ouers beplan is. Verantwoordelike ouers sal deur verstandige beplanning tot 'n besluit kom om slegs soveel kinders te hê as wat hulle kan bekostig. Ouers moet in staat wees om toereikend in die fisiese, psigiese, sosiale, morele en geestelike behoeftes van elkeen van hul kinders te voorsien. 'n Kind benodig albei ouers om 'n geborge ruimte te skep wat aan hom die nodige vertroue sal gee om die wêreld te wil ontdek. Die skep van 'n gesonde familie berus nie slegs by een van die ouers nie, maar is die uitkoms van verantwoordelike ouerskap deur beide ouers.

Verantwoordbare ouerskap behels die aanvaarding vir die verantwoordelikheid vir die doeltreffende opvoeding van die kind. Ouers behoort geen twyfel te hê wat betref hul ouerlike verantwoordelikheid nie. Hulle behoort ten volle bewus te wees van hulle rol, doel en taak asook die moontlikhede en beperkings van hulle aktiwiteite in die opvoeding van hul kinders. Die verhouding tussen die ouer en kind moet op vertroue, begrip en gesag gegrond wees en gerig wees op 'n spesifieke doel, naamlik die opvoeding van die kind tot volwaardige volwassenheid.

Vir die doel van die empiriese ondersoek is gebruik gemaak van 'n selfgestruktureerde vraelys wat deur albei ouers van Indiëër gesinne uit
'n Willekeurige steekproef voltooi is. Die data wat uit die voltooide vraelyste verkry is, is verwerk en met behulp van beskrywende statistiek ontleed. Bevindings het bevestig dat ouers 'n belangrike rol speel in gesinsbeplanning. Ter afsluiting is 'n opsomming van die bevindings van die navorsing aangebied en is die volgende aanbevelings gemaak:

1. Daar moet dringend aandag gegee word aan die daaarstelling an programme wat ouers sal help om 'n positiewe siening ten opsigte van gesinsbeplanning te ontwikkel.
2. Media gebaseerde opvoedingsprogramme vir ouers moet ingevoer word om hulle te help in die toeriekende opvoeding van hulle kinders.
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CHAPTER 1

ORIENTATION

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Having children has traditionally been regarded as "the fulfilment of a marriage, if not the primary reason for the marriage" (Papalia & Olds, 1992:415). In pre-industrial societies large families were a necessity. Children helped with the family's work and eventually cared for ageing parents, and because the death rate in childhood was high, fewer children reached maturity (Dingwall, Eekelaar & Murray, 1993:14). Traditionally economic and social reasons for having children were so powerful that parenthood had a unique aura. Today, however, these considerations have lessened or even been reversed. In modern societies advanced technology needs fewer workers and because of modern medical care most children grow to maturity (McDonald, 1988:24). Overpopulation is also a major problem in some parts of the world, and children represent an expense rather than an economic asset (Kapp & Levitz, 1995:58).

Rosenmond (1992:12) says the desire for children is almost universal. Preston-Whyte (1988:13) points out that there is continuing cultural pressure to have children, on the assumption that all people want them. Responsible parenthood, therefore, means having only as many children as a couple can cope with and afford. Madeiros, Porter & Welch (1993:44) say couples must be able to adequately meet the physical, psychological and financial demands and challenges of parenthood.
1.2 ANALYSIS OF THE PROBLEM

The world is in turmoil. Poverty, famine, malnutrition, disease and social degeneration are wide-spread, especially in developing countries. In the midst of worldwide violence, unrest, riots, political conflict and power struggles, man tends to lose sight of the most serious problem threatening his survival, namely the alarming rapid growth of the world’s population. John F Kennedy said: "If man does not halt population growth, population growth will halt man" (Blignaut, 1993:8). An ecological catastrophe faces the world in this decade if something drastic is not done to curb population growth. Verme, Harper, Misra & Neamatalla (1993:5) caution that if the world, especially Africa and Southern Asia, does not succeed in reducing its population growth rate, a decade of unprecedented social decay is imminent. Experts on population growth warn that it is crucial to reduce family size to keep the population growth within acceptable limits. Blignaut (1993:8) emphasises the fact that there is a strong correlation between population growth, development and the standard of living of people.

Mentz (1991:30) maintains that the primary responsibility of the individual with regards population growth relates to responsible parenthood. In this respect, however, it must be emphasized that it is regarded as the fundamental right of each individual and each couple to decide on the number of children they wish to have. Family planning is the key to viable families and communities. Ferreira (1990:48) says that you can’t talk about a healthy family life without talking family planning.

The family provides the main basis for bringing up children and it is the parent’s responsibility to provide adequate care and education for the child (Pringle, 1987:158). The responsibility of parents towards their
children should prevail over all other considerations in determining the number and spacing of births in the family. Blignaut (1993:9) says the idea of being able to plan parenthood assumes certain conditions, choices, rationality and means: there must be permitting circumstances, necessary life opportunities and facilities. When parents plan their family, economic, social and educational needs must be taken into consideration. Van Vuren (1990:17) maintains that although family planning is a national priority and as such one of the functions of the Department of National Health, the primary responsibility for family planning lies with the parents.

1.3 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

In essence the problem evolves around family planning as the primary responsibility of parents. The study will be approached from a psychopedagogic perspective and will centre around, *inter alia*, the following questions:

- What are the parents' responsibility with regards family planning?
- What are the consequences of unplanned families on the immediate participants i.e. parents and children?
- Can parents adequately meet the individual needs of the child in an unplanned family with a large number of children?
1.4 ELUCIDATION OF CONCEPTS

In the interest of clarity and understanding, important concepts in this study need to be elucidated. Regarding the gender issue it must be noted that when reference is made to a child as 'he, him or his' (male) it also implies 'she or hers' (female).

1.4.1 Education

Education is the practice, the educator’s concern in assisting the child on his way to adulthood. Education may be defined as the conscious, purposive intervention by an adult in the life of a non-adult to bring him to independence (Van Rensburg, Landman & Bodenstein, 1994:366).

Education as pedagogic assistance is the positive influencing of a not-yet adult by an adult, with the specific purpose of effecting changes of significant value. Du Toit and Kruger (1994:5) contend that education refers to the help and support which the child receives from an adult with a view of attaining adulthood.

1.4.2 Family

The term "family" implies the smallest most basic unit in society, united by blood relationship, marriage or adoption (Sprinthall & Sprinthall & Oja, 1994:401). The composition of a family is often determined culturally and can include uncles, aunts and grandparents besides the nuclear family. Van den Aardweg and Van den Aardweg (1988:89) describe the extended family as consisting of more members than just mother, father and siblings. Other members may include grandparents, both paternal and maternal, aunts, uncles, sons-in-law, daughters-in-law and so on. Today in many cultures, including the Indian culture, the extended family
is gradually becoming a thing of the past and is replaced by the nuclear family which consists of father, mother and siblings. This is caused largely by social and economic pressures on families and movement to the urban areas.

Gittens (1987:12) says the outcome of family planning is a healthy and normal functioning family. A stable, closely knit family is characterised by the following (Le Roux, 1992:112):

- family members continually communicate appreciation and affection towards one another;
- they spend a great deal of time together and enjoy one another’s company;
- they enjoy adequate verbal communication;
- they are intensely committed to the promotion of each other’s happiness and welfare;
- their life-style is devout and this enables family members to be more purposeful, patient and forgiving towards one another; and
- they rely on mutual trust in handling family crises.

1.4.3 Family planning

Tomaszewski (1993:62) defines family planning as a conscious action by a couple to control their own reproductive ability, in other words, an
action aimed at preventing a pregnancy, or to promote a pregnancy. Keyser (1992:5) says the purpose of family planning is to enable parents (couples) to decide whether or not they want children and if they decide to have children, when and how many. Marital partners should be equally involved in deciding whether or not to have children, the number of children they want and the age spacing between adjacent children. The following are important facets concerning family planning (CHD, 1995:1):

1. Family planning is having children by choice and not by chance.

2. It means delaying your first pregnancy until you have established your marriage.

3. Spacing children so that parents and children have their own special time together.

4. It means being happy with every new child born into the family.

5. The number and spacing of the children must be according to the family’s socio-economic potential.

1.4.4 Responsible parenthood

According to Van den Aardweg and Van den Aardweg (1990:198) the term ‘responsible’ implies being answerable, accountable, having a charge, a trust. Van Rensburg, Landman and Bodenstein (1994:518) describe the term ‘responsibility’ as a pledge, a promise, morally
answerable for the discharge of a duty or trust; that for which one is answerable; ability to meet obligations or to act without superior authority or guidance.

The helplessness and limitations of a child place a heavy responsibility on the parents. They must be able to provide a caring, loving home to the child. Each child’s physical, affective, cognitive, social, moral and religious needs must be adequately met by parents (pringle, 1987:15). Parenthood is synonymous with the acceptance of responsibility for the procreation and rearing of one’s child. Parents remain an important influence towards the child’s realization of the goal of becoming.

1.4.5 Theory of parenthood

Van Rensburg, Landman and Bodenstein (1994:554) describe the concept “theory” as a plan or scheme existing in the mind only but based on principles verifiable by experiment and observation; a proposed explanation designed on account for any phenomenon. According to Van den Aardweg and Van den Aardweg (1990:250) theory is a mental view formulated to explain a behaviour. Based on research a theory attempts to create some order, pattern or generalization to explain a phenomenon. A theory, therefore, is scientifically arrived at and presents a unified system of principles, definitions, postulates and observations organised to most simply explain the relationships around variables.

When a child is born to, or adopted by a couple, parenthood comes into being. Theories of parenthood can be seen as attempts to explain why people have a desire to have children, why they want to become parents. According to Papalia & Olds (1992:416) psychoanalytic theorists maintain that women have a deep instinctual wish to bear and nurture
infants, that they thus replace their own mothers. Ego psychologists see generativity, a concern with establishing and guiding the next generation, as a basic developmental need. Functionalist sociologists attribute reproduction to people’s need for immortality, achieved by replacing themselves with children. In a study of married couples Luster and Okagaki (1993:39) found that the chief motivation for parenthood was the wish for a close relationship with another human being and the desire to care and educate a child.

The theory of parenthood will be discussed in more detail in chapter 2.

1.5 AIMS OF THIS STUDY

The aims of this study are:

- To pursue a study of relevant literature, in order to identify family planning as characteristic of responsible parenthood.

- To undertake an empirical investigation by means of a structured questionnaire to establish parents’ views on their responsibility in family planning.

- To provide certain recommendations and guidelines so that accountable support can be instituted in order to meet the possible needs parents may have with regards to family planning.

1.6 METHOD OF RESEARCH

Research with regard to this study will be conducted as follows:
A literature study of available, relevant literature.

An empirical survey comprising a structured questionnaire to be completed by both parents in a family.

1.7 FURTHER COURSE OF THIS STUDY

Chapter 2 will focus on responsible parenthood.

In chapter 3 the planning of the research will be outlined.

The research data will be analyzed and interpreted in chapter 4.

Chapter 5 will comprise of a summary and recommendations.

1.8 SUMMARY

An exposition of the problem, statement of the problem and the aims of this study were given in this chapter. The method of research was explained and certain relevant concepts were elucidated.
# CHAPTER 2

## RESPONSIBLE PARENTHOOD

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CHAPTER 2

RESPONSIBLE PARENTHOOD

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Parents should have no uncertainties as to their responsibility as parents. According to Sprinthall, Sprinthall & Oja (1994:31) parents, as the child’s primary educators, are responsible for the adequate upbringing of their children. The purpose of the child’s upbringing is not only adequate support and guidance towards adulthood, but also optimal realization of the child’s unique potential (Van Rensburg, Landman & Bodenstein, 1994:366). No fixed pattern, formula or method can be prescribed to parents in regard of their responsibilities as parents (Griessel, 1991:7; Le Roux, 1993:18).

The child’s welfare (physical, emotional, intellectual, volitional and spiritual) must be high priorities in their parents lives. Parents must be fully aware that their child has to be guided, protected, and safeguard in a responsible manner (Luster & Okagaki, 1993:13). The potentials and limitations of their child have to be taken into consideration on all his niveaux of becoming. Pringle (1987:40) is of opinion that the limitations of a child impose a greater responsibility on his parents. In an unplanned family, which most of the time consists of more children that parents can adequately cope with, it is not always possible for the parents to take into account to what extent children with limitations require special attention without being detrimental to other children in the family (Circirelli, 1992:34; Graham, 1989:67).

In this chapter responsible parenthood will be discussed with reference to the different roles fathers and mothers play in the upbringing of the child and the
importance of the parent-child-relationship. The focus will be on the planned family with responsible parents, with the number of children which they can adequately support, help, lead and accompany toward adulthood.

2.2 PARENTHOOD

Parenthood comes into existence when a child is born or adopted in a family and the parents accept the responsibility for the adequate upbringing of the child (Seefalot & Barbour, 1986:9). The word parenthood is synonymous with the acceptance of responsibility for the procreation and rearing of one's child (Heterington & Parke, 1986:12).

The family situation is one in which parents and children encounter one another. In families with a large number of children adequate individual encounter is not always possible which may have a negative influence on the becoming of the children. The parents are the adults who must accompany their children to adulthood. Parents educate their children so that they can become fully fledged members of their society (Forfar, 1988:9). Parenthood implies specific demands made of parents. One of the demands is that the parents themselves should be proper adults and must be aware of the requirements of adulthood (Munnik & Swanepoel, 1990:3; Michael & Goldberg, 1988:11).

According to Pringle (1987:37) the family is a typically normative, ethical or loving community united by mutual ties of solidarity, unity being the hallmark of the normal family. Members are bound by ties of blood in the most intimate way and in a happy home there is a feeling of interdependence and intimate solidarity. The members of the family enjoy one another's company, differ lovingly and live in harmony because on the whole they share the same view
of life and the world. The latter is, however, not always possible when a family is unplanned and consists of a too many members (Morgan, 1985:81). According to Campion (1985: 34) the members of a planned family are able to enjoy one another’s company, differ lovingly, live in harmony and preserve unity among themselves.

A child is a human being, a person. He is born weak, unable to help himself, but he has a great deal of potential for maturity. To mature in a specific culture, the child needs to be educated (Rice, 1992: 11; Doyal & Cough, 1991:12). In its purest and most original form education is characterized through the mother’s intimate involvement with her child. The mother gives birth to the child and creates security for him by establishing for him an intimate and safe space at home. Education at home, according to Griessel, Louw & Swart (1993: 8), constitutes the primary educative milieu (environment). The safe space at home becomes the springboard for the child in his exploration of reality surrounding him. Because of an intuitive feeling for the child’s need — a need based on the fact that the child knows and acknowledges his dependence on an adult who calls upon him to realize himself — the mother gives herself unconditionally (Vrey, 1990: 22-24).

A child needs a mother as well as a father to provide him with enough self-confidence to lead him to extend the horizons of his life-world and simultaneously to accept his task as co-designer of a world of human co-existence. Practising a particular occupation, the father leaves the intimate atmosphere of home every day to earn a living in the outside world, and the child experiences this world as alien and threatening. In this way the father provides for the living needs of his family, and for the child he becomes the trusted symbol constituting a bridge between the known (home) and the unknown (world of adults). Thus he not merely represents the unknown living
space, but he provides a glimpse of the future for the child (Kruger, 1992: 56; Griessel, Louw & Swart, 1993: 8-9).

2.2.1 Parenthood embraces changed attitudes

Parenthood implies in all circumstances changed attitudes among the members of the family concerned, but more particularly the parents (Lamanna & Riedman, 1994:23). Even before the birth the attitude of the mother changes when she experiences the baby as a reality. After the baby’s birth her attitude changes to one of gratefulness and she welcomes this unique little being as a new member of the family (Vrey, 1990: 95-96; Dreyer & Duminy, 1990:37).

To the father the baby only becomes a reality when he is physically in the world. After the birth the father is grateful that everything has gone well and experiences an overwhelming feeling of responsibility towards mother and child (Le Roux, 1992:55). When it is a first child the addition of a third person to the family, where initially there were only two persons dependent on each other, requires a change of attitude. The parents realise that now they are not living for each other but that they have and want to live for the baby as well (Baldwin, 1993:36). If the new baby is unwanted or unplanned parents seldom feel grateful but experience strain which may result in negative parental attitudes with regards the upbringing of the child. Broderick (1988:274) says bringing an unwanted baby into the world forces a burden and reordering of all the basic resources of the family, namely space, time, energy and money.

2.2.2 Parenthood implies child-rearing

The family is regarded as the primary environment for rearing the child
(Beatrice, 1993: 54). Conscious of his vocation, the parent concentrates on the child in order to equip, mould, lead him to, and convince him of meaningful, conscious, voluntary and responsible acceptance of his task in life. The child on the other hand is a not-yet adult who requires assistance, advice, guidance and moulding from the adult to enable him as a responsible person to fulfil his vocation (Finch & Mason, 1993:134-135). The more children in the family the more assistance will be required from parents and children become a burden and are not a joy to the parents (Stewart, 1990:34).

Child rearing in its true form must therefore answer to specific norms. This is only possible in a well planned family, and the parents’ task in rearing the child includes the following (Munnik & Swanepoel, 1990: 5-7; Griffiths & Hamilton, 1994:27):

- to win the child’s confidence;
- to show faith in the child;
- to show acceptance of the child;
- to show interest in the child, cares for the and to be sympathetic towards the child;
- to make the child feel safe and secure;
- to build up a stable, affective relationship with the child;
- to support the child in his educational need;
- to show an understanding of the child;
- to exercise authority over the child (set requirements and limits);
- to set norms and values for the child.

From the first moments of the child’s existence in the world, he announces that he is someone who will take part in the world, a taking part which continues to the end of his life. Because of the child’s openness and directedness to the world, from the beginning he is actively busy actualising
his given possibilities and this means that he is busy changing. The child’s becoming involves a progressive and continuous movement in the direction of the life-world of the adult (Griessel, Louw & Swart, 1993: 4-5). Becoming, as the necessary change which must arise in the child’s life, is directed to becoming a proper adult. This means that a child must and should become different. Because the child is a human being, he is someone who himself will become (change). As given possibilities, the structure of his psychic life disposes the child to become grown up. Because of this, the child is able to take an active part in his becoming. It is also an irrefutable fact that a child, because of his essential nature, needs the help and support of an adult. Without upbringing the child cannot become a responsible adult.

2.3 CHALLENGES OF PARENTHOOD

Parents remain an important influence on the child’s cognitive, conative, social, affective, aesthetic, moral, religious and physical development towards the realization of the goal of becoming - which is adulthood (Van den Aardweg & Van den Aardweg, 1990:60). The foremost challenge of the parents, is to adequately provide in the needs of the child; needs that are not always adequately met in large or unplanned families. The child’s need for love, acceptance, security, belonging, confidence, discipline, new experiences, praise and recognition, and responsibility have to be met by the parents to ensure the optimal becoming of the child (Clark, 1989:67).

2.3.1 Physical needs

Man’s existence in the world is a physical existence and the body makes it possible for man to live in this world, to perceive things, and to encounter others (Kibel & Wagstaff, 1991:32). The body makes it possible for the child
to orientate himself in the world, to move and explore the world, to give meaning and find meaning in reality, to live in the world and come to self-realisation (Arnold, 1990:34). Man’s body is indispensable to him and full-fledged physical maturity constitutes an important aspect of adulthood (Drescher, 1991:84).

Life makes demands on the child in respect of physical strength, stamina and essential skills. According to Gouws and Kruger (1994:19) it is extremely difficult or almost impossible for a person to fulfil his adult task in society if he is not physically capable of doing so. In the unplanned and consequently dysfunctional family, the neglect of the child also includes inadequate physical care (Blake, 1989:54). The parents are not able to ensure that the child has sufficient practice in the essential body skills; that he learns to care for his body properly and that he acquires sound hygienic habits (Du Plooy, Griessel & Oberholzer, 1987:147). In families with inadequate resources the physical onslaught on the child includes, inter alia, the following (Le Roux, 1992:101):

- inability to support healthy eating habits;
- children are expected to fend for themselves in the provision and preparation of meals;
- children are more prone to illnesses as a result of an unbalanced diet; and
- malnutrition effects learning; the child who is undernourished is unable to pay attention and to realize optimal achievement in the learning process.

2.3.2 Psychological needs

The child’s psychological capacity enables him to form relationships by means
of which he orientates himself in the world (Vrey, 1990:67). The psychological capacity of the child matures through development and effective interrelationships with the world in which he grows up (Du Toit & Kruger, 1991:32). The psychological needs of the child includes, *inter alia*, the child’s affective and cognitive.

(1) **Affective needs (Emotional needs)**

The child’s affective needs is concerned with those aspects pertaining to the emotions, feelings, passions, moods, sentiments and whims (Van den Aardweg & Van den Aardweg, 1990:15). Affective qualities accompany the child’s memory, thoughts, concepts, ways of thinking, responses, association of impressions and experiences and are inseparably joined by every perception, conscious or unconscious, physical or intimately personal (Vrey, 1990:23-24). The child’s affective experiences, which may range from pleasant to very unpleasant, determine his involvement or indifference in the world, his giving meaning to objects, the relationships he forms, and the life-world he constitutes for himself (Du Plooy, Griessel & Oberholzer, 1987:148). The affective development of the child effects the total becoming of the child - physical, psychological, social, moral and religious.

Research has shown that children who are not adequately cared for, for example in families with a large number of children, often have affective problems (Harrison, 1992:56). Anxiety, tension, aggression, fear and other signs of affective lability occur more in neglected children than in children who are well cared for. A further characteristic of the neglected child’s affective development is that the defence mechanisms which they employ against negative experiences are more primitive and rigid, and therefore more difficult to eliminate than those in normal children (Kapp, 1991:307). Neglect of the
affective aspect of the child may have serious consequences on the adequate becoming of the child. If the affective needs of the child such as acceptance, trust, love, care and respect are not sufficiently met, it has as outcome affective lability (Duck, 1992:9).

Acceptance. To be accepted is one of the most basic needs of every child (Harrison, 1992:8). Every child is longing for the acceptance, loving care and spontaneous affection of adults. Vrey (1990:62) maintains that the child needs to experience belonging to significant other - parents, other family members, relatives, teachers and peer groups. Lamprecht (1991:27) says children will become aware at an early age of loneliness, unfriendliness and the feeling of being excluded. Acceptance and approval by others are essential for the child’s development of self-approval and self-acceptance.

Trust. Van Rensburg, Landman and Oberholzer (1994:511) emphasize the fact that trust is a fundamental characteristic of the child’s way of being in the world - a basic pre-requisite for sound and satisfactory interpersonal relations. Harrison (1992:8) points out that a lack of trust is characteristic of the child who was not well cared for. If the child’s trust in his parents is shattered by their failure to adequately meet his needs, the child will manifest a feeling of mistrust in all adults. According to Wolff (1989:44) and Hanna (1991:51) parents can show their trust by conveying the following message to the child:

- You can count on me because I will always be available if you need me.
- You can rely on me in good, as well as in bad times.
- I am looking for the best in you, and not the worst.
I want you to be successful and not a failure.
I will be there if you need me, even if it is difficult for me because I must sacrifice other important things.
If you are in distress because of the actions of other people, I will be available to support you.

Discipline. One of the prerequisites for all children is that they need to learn how to behave at home and in school and in the community (Berns 1985:16). The child needs to learn that certain behaviours are permissible in one situation but not in another. Du Toit & Kruger (1994:124) say through discipline the child realizes the necessity for order in the world around him and that to maintain a certain order some behaviours are abhorred whilst other behaviours are praised. Children need to adhere to the family’s code of conduct which should always been spelled out clearly and consistently and fairly upheld (Pringle, 1987:37). In most large families discipline is autocratic. Parents in these families are not only tired or have limited time to tolerate behaviour that is contradictory to their rules, but also exercise autocratic discipline out of necessity - too control many children (De Witt & Booyesen, 1995:33). These parents are overwhelmed by the size of their family and they become authoritarian in their parenting style. This feeling of overwhelmingness sometimes leads to the child receiving very little love and attention from the parents because their only effort is to control he child (Sprinthall, Sprinthall & Oja, 1994:577).

Love. A child must know that his parents love him and consider him important; that he and his affairs matter to them (Vrey, 1990:77). The child needs loving caring adults who provide security and a feeling that he is valued. Le Roux (1992:29) regards parental love as education’s
most steadfast category. The need for love is met by the child experiencing from birth onwards a stable, continuous, dependable and loving relationship with his parents, who themselves enjoy a loving relationship with one another (Pringle, 1987:34). The relationship between parent and child is based on love and forms the basis of all later relationships, not only with family, but with friends, colleagues and eventually his own family (Dunn, 1993:25).

Security. Security needs are satisfied when the child experiences an awareness that he is accepted by significant others. Hence the parents are paramount to met the child’s need for security. Doyle and Gough (1991:204) maintain that first and foremost, the child’s need for security is met by a family with stable relationships where attitudes and behaviour are consistent and dependable, the safety of a familiar place and the security of a known routine. All this make for continuity and predictability in a world which the child has to explore and orientate himself to so much that is new and changing.

(2) Cognitive needs

Adequate cognitive development depends on the efficiency of meeting the child’s needs for learning. Although the child’s basic or potential cognitive ability is hereditarily determined, research has found that the child’s cognitive ability is significantly influenced by the way in which parents meet the child’s cognitive needs (Vrey, 1990:99). Cognitive development is also dependent on parents’ assistance with homework, sharing the child’s failures and successes, and support and encouragement that will incite the child to participate more fully (Van Niekerk, 1991:110). In the family that is not functioning well because of irresponsible family planning by parents, the child does not receive
the necessary support and guidance to meet his cognitive needs (Smith, 1995:14; Mitchell & Brown, 1991:43). According to Vrey (1990:99) serious and prolonged deprivation of learning opportunities, especially in early childhood, seem to result in permanent damage to cognitive development, which even a rich environment in later years can only partially improve. Even though children are usually in formal school by six years of age, the best school cannot make up for the earlier serious deprivation caused by incapable parents who did not adequately meet the cognitive needs of the child.

2.3.3 Moral needs

Moral needs is concerned with learning to distinguish between right and wrong, good or bad, acceptable or unacceptable behaviour within a particular society in which the child lives (Van den Aardweg & Van den Aardweg, 1990:148). Parents are the most influential agents in meeting the child’s moral needs. Parental attitudes and behavioural responses to right and wrong, and good and evil, set the tone and direction of the child’s development of morals (Du Toit & Kruger, 1994:64). The moral needs of the child, which relates to his actions, attitudes, aspirations and volition, virtues and vices, values and judgements, are not sufficiently met by parents who cannot cope with the number of children in a large, unplanned family. Such parents fail in the successful introduction of the child to the society’s rules of behaviour, to which its members are expected to adhere and conform to ensure the safety of its members, and the nurturing of healthy relationships (Wilson, 1990:23).

2.3.4 Social needs

The child is a person, a human being, and as such, he has essentially human personal needs and aspirations, such as the need to be esteemed, accepted
and recognised, all of which can only be fulfilled within the human context. He also has essentially human social needs, such as human togetherness, communication and belonging (Louw, 1992:45). The family as a natural human situation is the first form of community the child encounters, and in the family he soon learns to take into account the demands of others, his fellow man. Of the first human relationships formed by the child, the child’s relationship with his parents is the most important, since it serves as a frame of reference for the forming of other social relationships (Crompton, 1992:32). The child’s social frame of reference which he forms in family context, is the point of departure for his socialization with others.

2.3.5 Religious needs

Religious needs refer to the spiritual relationship with a divine power, a belief in, a reverence for, a desire to please, and also perhaps the exercise of rites and rituals (Van den Aardweg & Van den Aardweg, 1988:194). A given religion is a feature of a given culture or like-minded group, and so differences in the practice of religion is to be expected. The child needs a personal religion; a faith and hope to which he can cling during uncertainties and vicissitudes in his becoming (Graham, 1991:47).

Gouws and Kruger (1994:128), Coetzer and Le Roux (1996:79) and Circirelli (1992:54-58) maintain that in modern society parenthood becomes a challenge due to the following reasons:

- Parents are required to master attitudes and techniques that differ considerably from the ones they learned from their parents.
- Today parents rear their children in a pluralist society, characterised by diverse and conflicting values. Often alien
values which they have to observe and conduct their lives accordingly in order to guide the child effectively.

Parents have to compete with several other factors that may influence the child, for example the school, church, peers, television, movies and books. The mass media confront children with attitudes, values and usages that are completely different from those adhered to by their parents.

Sexual attitudes are changing everywhere and even in South Africa, too, signs of greater sexual freedom and a new morality that is not always compatible with parents' values and principles, are evident.

2.4 PARENTAL ROLES

Parenting and the parental roles involve many different factors and processes. The child needs a responsible adult to care for him, protect him and orientate him to the rules of the group or society in which he lives. Although parental roles may vary from society to society parents need to be (Lamanna & Riedman, 1994: 102; Campion, 1985:71):

- adequate facilitators of the child’s intellectual and social development;
- reasonably secure in the adult role and in their separate sexual identities;
- able to offer their children a reasonable realistic view of the world which implies that their communication with their children needs to be clear, unambiguous and consistent; and
- able to withstand the emotional pressures associated with child-rearing i.e. to set sensible limits and to accept the child’s
occasional angry response.

2.4.1 The role of the father

The father's part in fostering the child's becoming is primarily a two fold one. Firstly he provides the child with security as breadwinner and principal disciplinarian as head of the family. Secondly he provides the child with an adult model so that he can identify with a member of his own sex, if a boy, and also learn at first hand about the behaviour and attitudes of the opposite sex, if a girl (Freude, 1991:43; English & Foster, 1988:61). According to Le Roux (1992:61) the responsibility the father has in the family can be considered with respect to his position as the head of the family, the breadwinner and the guarantor of security.

(1) Head of the family

Traditionally the man is considered the highest authority in the family, but that his wife should assist him in as far as possible (Griessel, 1991:29; Mwamwenda, 1995:34). To see the father as head of the family could also be attributed to the man's physical dominance over the woman. He can perform certain physical tasks which the mother and children cannot do. His masculinity, strength, size and deep voice are some of the characteristics which command authority to the extent that he is respected within the family set-up. As an adult the father has at his disposal knowledge, skills and experience of the broader society which the child must still acquire.

The father as head of the family designates him as the protector of the interests of his wife and children (Campion, 1985:42-43). He establishes the sphere of security which enfolds his wife and children, and by so doing
assures the stable and harmonious existence of the family. Even if their father is not physically present the children know that he has their interests at heart and cares for their wellbeing (Clark, 1989:185: Griffore & Boger, 1986:34).

The role of the father in modern society is certainly not the same indisputable and sole ruler of the traditional patriarchal family of earlier times (Prinsloo & Beckman, 1995;59). The patriarchal family set-up is being increasingly replaced by a type of partnership in which the children, and especially the mother are often consulted. Pringle (1987:62) refers to the democratic family as one where each member of the family take an active part in all matters concerning the family. Although the contemporary father in a democratic family setting enforces his control over family members with ‘less’ authority, he still remains the identifiable head of the family. He is expected to have more power and control as the leading member of the family (Circirelli, 1992:32; Steyn, Van Wyk & Le Roux, 1988:67).

The extent to which the father functions as the responsible head of the family is co-determined to a large extent by the size of the family and the extent to which he succeeds in providing in all the needs of the family (Biller, 1991:51). In larger families (or unplanned families) the father often fails to provide the necessary physical and financial security that is needed. This has a direct bearing on the adequate upbringing of the children in the family.

(2) **Breadwinner**

The financial provision of the family is considered to be one of the main responsibilities of the father (English & Foster, 1988:44). The father’s position in society is generally determined more by his position and success in the professional world than by his success as a father at home. Prinsloo and
Beckman (1995:48) maintain that the degree to which a father feeds, clothes and provides in his family’s financial needs determines his success as a father in the eyes of the general public.

The career that the father pursues determines the social and economic position of the family (Gilbert, 1985:72). His earnings determines the nature of his children’s recreation, their hobbies, participation in sport, cultural activities and extra-mural activities such as music, art, ballet, etc. (Luster & Okagaki, 1993:87). The residential area and house the family can afford is also conditional to the income of the father.

The child who experiences financial and emotional security, realizes that the father is concerned with the family’s wellbeing and that he has everyone’s interest at heart (Mitchell & Brown, 1991:41). However, being excessively occupied with providing for a large family can divert the father’s attention from his family and can also hinder him in the fulfilment of his educational responsibilities (Smith, 1995:33).

(3) Guarantor of security

Le Roux (1992: 61) maintains that the father’s responsibility entails more than merely providing for the family’s financial needs. He is expected to guarantee the family’s needs in other areas too. In comparison to the mother whose main function it is to care for the family, the father’s main responsibility is to protect the family. This applies to the physical, psychological and spiritual needs of the family.

On account of the father’s physical size, greater physical power and especially his expansive nature, the father is expected, if needs be, to protect his wife
and children with his life and property (English & Foster, 1988:67). Although this was often the case in earlier times and war, even in modern society the father is prepared, or rather considers himself duty-bound, to guarantee the safety of his family. He is also the guarantor and protector of the intimate relationship between mother and child; a guarantee that may cease to exist when there is a mother with a large number of children.

In a changing society, characterised by multiplicity and relative norms and values, the father also has a duty to protect his family’s mental health and spiritual wellbeing. A duty which the father cannot adequately fulfil if his family is too large (Pringle, 1987:157).

2.4.2 The role of the mother

Despite the changing role of fathers today, the primary responsibility for the children still remains with the mother in our society, whether she stays at home or works outside home (Baldwin, 1993:130). Because of the number of children in a family the mother often has to increase her participation in the industrialized society and her competitive role in the labour market, and children have to create their own “motherless” milieu’ (Smit & Le Roux, 1991:90). Inadequate provision of maternal care can be the result of a mother having too many children. This will have a correspondingly harmful effect on the child’s development towards adulthood. In unplanned families with insufficient maternal care children do not experience adequate security, safety and acceptance (Beatrice, 1993:89; Phoenix, Woollett & Lloyd, 1991:17).

1) Guarantor of safety

Du Toit and Kruger (1994:14) maintain that from the very beginning the child
is imbued with the feeling of safety (security) that is indispensable for his existence as it is provided by the protecting influence of his home and family. Vrey (1990:22) states that for the infant this security consists in the intimate relationship with his mother, by means of which he acquires his first knowledge of reality. Van den Aardweg and Van den Aardweg (1990:200) say the very fact that a child is accepted and cared for by the mother is a reassuring experience, a safe experience, in a strange, changing world. Unplanned (unwanted) children, often the result of irresponsible family planning, are often not accepted by the mother and they do not experience security in the family.

For his adequate becoming the child requires a relationship of trust, understanding and authority. The mother is important as a person who can arouse the child’s possibilities for forming confident relationships with other people and things (Le Roux, 1992:31). The cherishing care of the mother creates space in which the child feels at home. In the presence of the mother the child is safeguarded and from this place of safety he can venture out and explore the world under the watchful eye of the mother. From this space of safety the larger world becomes accessible to the child (Ferreira, 1992:9-10). The mother is the ever-present, the security and certainty of human relationships, the protection from danger and the restfulness of tranquil existence. Vos (1994:98) says: "Mother-love can be taken for granted. It serves best for cuts and bruises and falls on slippery floors. Mother-love is sheltering arms." A lack of loving association with a parent, especially the mother, which may occur in a large family implies inadequate realization of the child’s emotional life.
(2) Child's first educator

Man cannot acquire knowledge of the world except through concrete human relationships. For the child this progress starts with the aid of a single loved person, and the mother as a rule is the first educator who creates a sphere of security which eventually invites the child to venture into the world (Du Plooy, Griessel & Oberholzer, 1987;89). The mother is the first embodiment of the world to the child. Vrey (1990:22) sees a harmonious mother-child-relationship as a prerequisite for sound relationships with the world of things. This relationship is both cognitive and affective. Child and mother get to know each other and the relationship is characterised as pleasant or unpleasant, affectionate, caring, or the neglect thereof. As the child grows the activities composing his relationship with his mother are experienced as acceptance or rejection (Ferreira, 1992:28).

One of the primary tasks of the mother as first educator is to provide the child with impressions of the world that are appropriate for the child to copy (Baldwin, 1993:16). This means guarding and protecting the child from sensory overload in a world unknown to him. The child should be surrounded with experiences that teach him about the world in a gentle way by letting them do things directly themselves and later act them out in play (Herholdt, 1991:34; Sonnekus, 1985:34).

2.5 PARENT-CHILD-RELATIONSHIP

Van den Aardweg and Van den Aardweg (1990:193) say the bond formed in the parent-child-relationship is both cognitive and affective. Parent and child get to know each other and the nature of the relationship is affective in quality: love, care, trust, respect, acceptance, security, rejection, concern and
interest (Yonge, 1990:22). The relationship is also cognitive in quality concerning perception, memory, differentiation, understanding and knowledge (Clark, 1989:121).

The parent-child-relationship affects the physical growth, personality and intellectual development of the child (Ferreira, 1992:3). The way the child develops a sense of competence and self worth is related to the way in which he is treated and evaluated in the family. To the child the knowledge of love and being loved is vital. This means that a healthy parent-child-relationship is founded in love (Gouws & Kruger, 1994:12). Parents, as primary educators, display their love for the child which is constantly recognisable as acceptance, affection, rapport and self-sacrifice.

Baldwin (1993:3) says that children who do not receive love and respect from parents experience the world as harsh and unforgiving, with the result that they display resentment against anything and everything from an early age. Parents of large (unplanned) families cannot always meet the individual needs of their children. Children who cannot rely on parental love do not feel free to take risks, to explore, find themselves, try out their abilities, develop decision-making powers and openly compare alternatives (Craig, 1992:107; Vrey 1990:174). In large unplanned families parents are often unable to give each child the necessary attention for their adequate becoming. A child who does not receive love and care from parents is likely not to have the necessary respect for them and may well extend this perception of adults to all other people of authority in his life, including his teachers and school itself (Mwamwenda, 1995:312).
2.5.1 **An intimate relationship between parent and child**

The associative relationship between the parent and the child forms the pre­formed field for the educational relationship. It should always be possible for an intimate relationship to emerge from the parent-child-relationship (Hamachek, 1985:94). The intimate parent-child-relationship, however, does not always materialise in families where the number of children is too large because family planning was not opted for by the parents. According to Le Roux (1992:62) the following are prerequisites for an intimate parent-child-relationship:

(1) **Mutual dependence**

From the time of birth the child is completely dependent on his parents (Papalia & Olds, 1992:80). They are responsible for his having come into the world and they must accept the responsibility for his becoming. The child is human and as such a person who is endowed with the same dignity as an adult. The child is born weak, unable to help himself, but he has a great deal of potential abilities for reaching adulthood (Vrey, 1990:11). In order to actualise his potential of becoming an adult the child is dependent on adults as educators to educate, help and support him in his progress towards adulthood. The parents are also to a certain extent dependent on their child (Pringle, 1987:21). Parents often experience the justification and confirmation of their own existence in the "bringing into the world" of a child of their own. During the child's growing up and becoming an adult the parents often experience fulfilment, meaning, and a sense of purpose in their own lives (Sprinthall, Sprinthall & Oja, 1994:150).
(2) Communication

Van den Aardweg and Van den Aardweg (1990:45) define communication as the sharing, verbally and non-verbally, of experiences, happenings, knowledge, opinions, ideas and it is affectively coloured. In communication the adult and the child are in a specific relation to each other. The adult (leader) and the child (being led) are connected existentially with each other and communication is effected. Yeats (1991:10) describes communication as:

- a process of making known, imparting, transmitting, transacting;
- an interchange of thought and ideas;
- a system of sending and receiving messages;
- the making of a connection; and
- a channel of conduit for information.

The vehicle through which the pedagogic relationship is strongly manifested and unfolded on a basis of talking-to-each-other, is the inter-human-communication between the parent (educator) and child (educand). Through authentic communication the "I" and "You" meet each other, so that a true "We"-relationship emerges (Van Niekerk, 1991:114). The atmosphere in which communication takes place should be unaffected, open-minded, spontaneous and trusting. In such an atmosphere each party can relax and be spontaneous, without constantly having to "weigh" what he is thinking, saying or doing, or without wondering what the other party is thinking of, or saying and doing to him.

In large families parents have limited time for contact (communication) with their children and the child's need for communication remains unfulfilled. As a result, the child experiences stress, frustration, fear, confusion, loneliness.

(3) **Co-existence**

The term co-existence refers to a person’s existence with others in the world. Co-existential involvement will therefore form the basis of the intimate relationship between parent and child (Van Rensburg, Landman & Bodenstein, 1994:339). People have an important place and part in the lives of other people, especially as regards the mutual existential corrective.

As the home-maker the mother plays an important role in determining the climate of co-existence in a educational relationship in the home (Pringle, 1987:59). The father can also play a decisive role in the co-existence between parents and children. The father’s career determines the socio-economic status of the family, how often they must move, resettle and adjust once more to new surroundings and new friends. Such a situation need not necessarily be detrimental to the relationship if the father is home regularly and is available for his wife and children (Baldwin, 1993:18).

(4) **Acceptance**

Acceptance is an essence by which the relationship of trust between parent and child is co-instituted (Van Rensburg, Landman & Bodenstein, 1994:304). Acceptance is not primarily a consciously or rationally planned act but the favourable, willing acceptance of a person as he is. The parent encounters the child lovingly on the basis of a natural, spontaneous affection. Parents accept with humility that it is their task to take the child as non-yet adult by the hand and to guide him so that he can accept his own becoming towards adulthood as a task (Vos, 1994:108-109). The child accepts the guidance of his
parents because of his need for help and his own desire to become someone.

Van den Aardweg and Van den Aardweg (1990:7-8) confirm the importance of mutual acceptance as one of the characteristics of the educative situation. If acceptance between parent and child is absent, minimal or inadequate the parent (educator) will be unable to assist the child on his way to adulthood. If the child does not experience acceptance he will feel rejected and be hindered or prevented from reaching responsible adulthood (Möller, 1990:347).

When there is a large number of children in a family an individual child may experience a feeling of non-acceptance; a feeling of not being a welcome addition to the family. The child experiences inadequate communication with his parents and also receives limited attention from them and he is therefore forced to 'make do' from a very young age. This means the child develops a superficial independence which is more pretence than ability (Freude, 1991:39).

2.5.2 An educational relationship between parent and child

In the education situation, the educator (parent) and the educand (child) are related in a special way (Du Plooy & Kilian, 1990: 66). The bond formed in this relationship is both cognitive and affective. Yonge (1990:119) says parent and child get to know each other well and the relationship should be caring, loving, trusting and accepting. The quality of the relationship has a direct influence on the success or otherwise of the upbringing of the child. Hurlock (Le Roux, 1992:44) maintains that poorly adjusted children are usually the product of unfavourable parent-child relationships. In large families children who are deprived of attention and affection from parents are hungry for affection; they are afraid of being left out. These children are overwilling
to please and to do things for others; all which is a form of compensation and an attempt to buy affection at any cost. Parent and child become involved in an education relationship, of which the most important aspects are trust, understanding and authority. If these aspects are not adequately realised education cannot be fully actualised.

(1) Relationship of trust

To become an adult, a child must learn to explore his life-world and come to know it. If the child does not feel secure, he will be reluctant to venture into the unknown and his learning will cease to progress adequately. This confidence and security are experienced by the child when the adult accepts the child as he is, and the child trusts and accepts the adult as a guide to and an image of his own future. This resulting sense of confidence and security promotes the child’s readiness and willingness to explore and to learn (Du Toit & Kruger, 1994: 11).

From the above, it is evident that the relationship of trust is significantly pathetic/affective in nature. It is primarily within this relationship that the trusted adult accompanies the trusting child and provides emotional support. The quality of the relationship of trust, or affective guidance, is directly related to the quality of the child’s learning (Sonnekus, 1986: 51; Vrey, 1990: 24).

Whatever the parent and child accomplish during their educative encounter, there is a specific goal, and that is that the events are aimed towards a future about which the child is still uncertain. Since his future actually represents a greater existential venturing than in the present, he needs someone he can trust. In this way he will gain a foothold or ‘anchorage’ in life, today, tomorrow and in the days to follow. He wants to be certain that life (with his
parent) is meaningful, and that his participation in life and in reality is not without significance. He hankers after safety and security and once he has acquired this, he experiences emotional security (Du Plooy, Griessel & Oberholzer, 1987: 95).

A trusting sphere in which the child and the parent accept each other as persons who are bearers of human dignity is necessary to constitute the education relationship. In accepting the child, the parent must accept him as he is, but also as he wants to be, must be and should be. The mutual involvement of the parent and the child is indicated in the adult’s (parent’s) accosting of the child as a ‘child’. In calling out the name ‘child’ the parent concurs that he accepts the existence of an ontic bond between himself and the child. This ontic bond is a pre-condition for the constitution of a co-existential world as life-world in which the child can trust the parent as someone who welcomes him on the grounds of his indisputable human dignity (Yonge, 1990: 114; Drescher, 1991:45).

The child should not be viewed in a cold and unsympathetic manner as is often the case in a family that is too large because it was not planned. He should be lovingly accepted by the parent as a fellow human being (Kruger, 1992: 54). Since one is concerned here with the mutual involvement of parent and child, it is also of great importance for the child to trust the adult. The child’s trust in a parent is shown by his willingness to accept and realise the norms himself that are exemplified through the parent’s life. The relationship of trust as a pre-condition for education implies active and meaningful involvement of parent and child. In actually calling to the child, the parent exhibits his trust in the child; he shows his trust in the child to lead a life which is worthy of being human. In his being together with the child in trust, the parent is presently related to the child in the education situation on account of his faith
in the child's potential to become that which he ought to be through increasing humanisation (Kilian & Viljoen, 1990:169).

A child has expectations of "his world" which, although still very much founded in the present situation, are also to a great extent future directed. There is enough evidence to prove that the child that is neglected because of family size develops inadequately and that his orientatedness in his life-world remains relatively undifferentiated and unrefined (Smith, 1995: 11). The crucial point of the problem is the under-development of the child’s feelings which are not only weakened, but are mainly directed at satisfaction on the sensory level.

(2) Relationship of understanding

The child desires to be someone and also needs to and wants to know and understand. In order to adequately actualise his abilities the child relies on the accompaniment or guidance of a trustworthy as well as an understanding adult (parent). This accompaniment of the child by the parent towards increasing knowledge and understanding not only requires that the parent generally understands the nature of children and the role of education in their becoming, but also the uniqueness and particularity of this child in his actuality and potentiality. This understanding should also reflect a respect for the dignity of the individual child (Grobler & Möller, 1991: 42-43). The child’s acceptance of such accompaniment emanates from his belief and trust in the parent as someone who offers advice and knowledge worth following. This implies that the child regards the parent as someone who understands him well and is always ready to be there for his benefit. Because the child wants to become independent, he has a perceptive understanding that he is directed towards adulthood. In this way the child’s willingness is impelled to explore and learn
to understand the life-world as learning content (Smit, 1990:362). Although, basically speaking, this relationship may revolve around unequal interpersonal understanding between the parent and the child, it also embraces understanding of certain aspects of the child’s life-world. This means that the relationship of understanding implies a relationship of exploration within the education situation (Chess & Thomas, 1987: 61; Van Niekerk, 1987: 46). It becomes the duty of the parent to support the child in this exploration towards a knowledge of the life-world as learning content.

The relationship of understanding is a condition for creating and maintaining a healthy relationship between parent and child. An adequate relationship of understanding depends on the extent of the mutual knowledge and understanding between the parent and the child. In learning to know the child well, the parent has to acquaint himself well with the child’s capacity of being educable, and who the child is. The child also has to learn to know the parent as educator and his expectations of him. On the strength of their mutual knowledge, they both establish the education relationship which either of them can initiate (Yonge, 1990:123; Berns, 1985:67). The importance of the relationship of understanding between parent and child is that it is characterised by trust. The parent endeavours to teach the child that each one of his actions (as self-becoming action) is in accordance with behavioural expectations; as educative events aimed at influencing and improving. They also mark an extension of the horizons of the child’s life-world. Because of the invaluable help, support and guidance of the familiar educator (parent), the child acts with great discretion after making responsible decisions befitting the norms of adulthood. His action is essentially the design of a significant world as ‘home’ for him (Du Plooy, Griessel & Oberholzer, 1987: 98-100).

To begin with, the child does not understand himself, because the horizons of
the situation in which he finds himself are still diffused. It is for this reason that the parent must continuously explicate the as yet unknown reality to the adult-in-the-making (child) (Pretorius, 1988:79). However, in explaining reality to the child, the parent should simultaneously call on the child to participate to enable him to start giving personal meaning to reality in order to get to know himself. The child on his own cannot get to know himself or life reality without the expert guidance of the parent who helps to show him the way (Vorster & De Meillon, 1991:45).

It is imperative for the child to give meaning to reality and his own reality-related position. Meaning-giving is very important for knowing reality as life reality, and must be done willingly by every human being (child). Children often experience it as problematic in giving meaning to their own position within a large family which is dysfunctional (Freude, 1991:37).

(3) **Relationship of authority**

Authority cannot be imposed on children, but can be acquired or developed through interaction between the parent and the child in a spirit of mutual trust, respect and understanding. The parent as a symbol of authority, has to display certain qualities in his inter-personal relationships or contact with the child in order to get him to accept and respect his authority (Grobler & Möller, 1991: 35-36; Ferreira, 1994: 66).

According to Nel & Urbani (1990: 15) educational authority differs from all other forms of authority because it has roots in love. Love is the most important attribute of the parent-child-relationship. The components of this parental authority are knowledge, care, respect, responsibility and trust (Griessel, Louw & Swart, 1993: 137-138).
An educator (parent or teacher) can only be entrusted with educational authority if he displays love for the child, concern for his well-being and a genuine interest in his progress. This implies an affective disposition that indicates a feeling of mutual attraction, affection and closeness and sacrifice between the adult (parent) and the child. But before authority can succeed, there must be mutual understanding between the parent and the child. If the parent does not understand the child well to impart the norms and values inherent in the societal code of conduct, then the progress of authority may flounder. The bond of mutual acceptance between parent and child may be weak. Through respect the parent and the child will accept each other just as he is; as a unique person in his own right. The child has to perceive the parents demeanour as reliable, consistent and trustworthy before he can submit himself to the parent’s guidance, and attach appropriate meanings to what is wrong and what is right (Drescher, 1991:103).

In the course of the child’s becoming and learning there are many areas of emotional development that may be effected. Du Toit & Kruger (1994: 90) observe that although discipline is essential, it is unnecessary to exercise rigidity and excessive strictness in the name of authority. A child who is intentionalised towards success in attaining the accepted standard of adulthood, may rebel against too much authority and regard it as suppressive of his personality or actualization of his possibilities if there is no parental love displayed. According to Nel & Urbani (1990: 16) parents may teach children verbally to be non-violent but can at the same time demonstrate the exact opposite by the instrumental violence of physical (corporal) punishment as an authoritative figure. Physical punishment is often accompanied by verbal communication which justifies the parent’s behaviour and along with it violence or the germ of violence. The best predator of future violence has a history of past violent behaviour. Without the child being thwarted in his
journey of exploration towards his future, he should through parental love learn from an early age to obey rules and show deference to authority. When strict discipline by parents is accompanied by emotional rejection and an atmosphere of animosity, the dividing line between discipline and violence may indeed be blurred (Vrey, 1990: 94; Du Toit & Kruger, 1994: 61-62).

It is also noteworthy that the source of the parent’s authority is not invested in the parent as such, but in his observance of the norms and values to which he as an adult is committed (Ferreira, 1994: 60-62). These norms and values are exemplified to the child by the parent’s word and deed in a trusting and understanding way. In this manner within the relationship of authority, the child experiences what in psychopedagogics is called “sympathetic and authoritative guidance”. The establishment of authority as one of the major aspects of all education is so paramount that Du Plooy, Griessel & Oberholzer (1987: 107) believe that if there is lack of authority and sympathetic, but authoritative guidance, adulthood can never be attained. This manifests that the relationship of knowing and the relationship of trust are pre-conditions for the existence of the relationship of authority (Kilian & Viljoen, 1990: 171; Griessel, Louw & Swart, 1993: 138-140).

Large families are often characterised by intolerant or authoritarian parenting because of the large number of children that have to be controlled (Campion, 1995:51). The I-You relationship between the strict parent and the child leaves much to be desired (Ferreira, 1992:80). There is a considerable psychological distance between the parent and child and limited intensive communication takes place. Rigid discipline and a strict policy of punishment characterize this type of upbringing, which is hierarchical in nature. Children from large families with authoritarian parents generally manifest one of the following behavioural patterns (Le Roux, 1992:48):
They are troubled by feelings of inadequacy, inferiority and shame.

A possible pattern of development for these children is that they rebel against their parents' strong authority, especially during adolescence.

As for affective social personality traits, these children are inclined to a specific emotionalism characterised by emotional lability, emotional vulnerability and a negative self-concept.

They are often uncertain people who rigidly cling to conventions and customs.

2.6 EDUCATIVE ASSISTANCE BY PARENTS

Educative assistance is unique to both parent (educator) and child (educand). The assistance given by the educator in his intervention consists as much in opposing the child's wilful marring of his own humanisation as in giving his blessing to whatever spontaneous acts are in the child's own interests (Van den Aardweg & Van den Aardweg, 1990:73). Parents as educators create an intimate educational relationship and provide protective guidance and orientation to the society (Robinson, 1987:34).

Van Rensburg, Landman and Bodenstein (1994: 370) consider parents as the most important educative foundation and the parental home as the primary educative milieu in which human educative activities take place. Educative activities entail the exercising of authority, language instruction, order and prohibition, reprimand and admonition, encouragement, consent, consolation, etcetera. No fixed pattern, formula or method can be prescribed for responsible educative assistance because every type of situation calls for its own specific method.
2.6.1 Preparing the child for going out into the world

Education is directed towards the child’s achievement of moral independence and the ability to determine his personal responsibilities; towards the child’s constructive participation in social life; and towards facilitating the child’s acceptance of a system of values (Zastron & Ashman, 1993:37; Drescher, 1991:89). Socialization therefore constitutes the essence of the child’s upbringing by his parents. Lamprecht (1991:50) maintains that shaping the child’s conscience and guiding him towards accepting his responsibilities in a personal and social sense, are primarily his parents’ task. This is leading the child towards co-existence and it entails the establishment of a social conscience in him to ensure that he is eventually able to live effectively as an adult with his fellow human beings in every social context, without self denial (Raune, 1986:78).

The child must have personal anchors as well as ‘social wings’ that will enable him to integrate with society but still maintain a critical distance. He must be capable of handling social situations proficiently, but also with dignity, so that in his co-existence with others he will be prepared, if needed, to stand alone in reconciliation with his conscience (Pretorius, 1988:27; Packard, 1989:56).

To bridge the gap between the intimacy of the family circle (primary milieu) and the unfamiliar external world the child needs parental guidance. It is the parents’ responsibility to protect the child from being inundated and overpowered by a profusion of social influences from secondary and tertiary milieus (Le Roux, 1992:67). Their task is to scrutinize all possible external influences and to exclude all aspects which jeopardize the child’s becoming (Saxton, 1990:54). When certain influences cannot be excluded, parents must support the child in assimilating these influences to accommodate them within
the accepted system of norms and values of the family, their language, church denomination and population group (Luster & Okagaki, 1993:44).

(1) **Selection of societal influences**

Sprinthall, Sprinthall & Oja (1994:158) say that the child is not always capable of distinguishing between the influences which are either beneficial or detrimental to his preparation for adulthood. According to Freude (1991:49) he still needs the support of someone with more knowledge, insight, expertise and skill who has the necessary experience and knowledge of life. The child needs a person who can guarantee his personal development in a reprimanding, encouraging and exemplary fashion and who direct him in a meaningful way. Parents are the best persons to fulfil this role. Le Roux (1992:67) formulates as follows: "In view of the child’s (initial) state of not-knowing and not-being-aware-of and therefore also of not-being-capable-of-choosing, but with due consideration to the necessity of being able to exercise choices in society as an adult, he needs an adult (father or mother) to choose for him initially, to choose with him later on, so that in the end he will be able to choose for himself".

Where preparation for co-existence has reference the parents can attempt to influence the child, whenever the opportunity arises, to participate in certain approved social activities. On the other hand, parents can also attempt to discourage participation in group activities which are not in accordance with the accepted family values, norms and habits (Smith, 1995:32).

(2) **Integration of societal influences**

Apart from the societal influences which parents can control, there are certain
influences, so-called ‘secret co-educators of the youth’, which parents are unable to control (Papalia & Olds, 1992:220). The child cannot grow up in isolation from the world and society and therefore the influence of the media, the entertainment world, advertising, fashion, the power of money, etcetera, cannot be controlled by the parents. Du Plooy, Griessel and Oberholzer (1987:150-151) view the socialization task of the parents as the scrutinizing of influences (positive and negative) infiltrating the educative occurrence, in accordance with their principles and philosophy of life, in order to evaluate them and place them in the correct perspective. Parents should not hesitate to introduce the child to the negative aspects of society (the sexy, simple, sad, sensational, sentimental and sadistic) as well. According to Packard (1989:61) and Scanzoni and Scanzoni (1988:9) desirable norms and values can be established so firmly in a child through repeated personal contact, that the corps of his existing cultural values is strengthened by selective perception rather than threatened when confronted with conflicting values.

2.6.2 Orientation regarding societal structures

According to Van den Aardweg and Van den Aardweg (1990:158) orientation is a modifying process to enable one to cope with or suit new conditions or situations. Orientation involves a careful examination of an acquaintance with a situation in an attempt to determine one’s position and action in reality. In a pluriform world where polyvalent values lead to a pluriform life, man must make a choice, take up a position, orientate himself and find his own way. The child must first of all get a foothold and from that stance determine his own position, that is to say, he must first belong somewhere before he can explore the unknown (Horton & Hunt, 1984:29). The parents must give the child opportunities to determine his relation to the world by entrusting certain duties to him and expect him to come to decisions. In allowing this the
parents give the child a chance to act freely and then he can cherish the expectation that the child will orientate himself in the world through constituting world as home (Van Rensburg, Landman & Bodenstein, 1994:573).

The process of beginning to feel at home and of becoming socially orientated in the world takes place in terms of a person’s basic principles and interests. The individual chooses his circle of friends, his social life, sports club, etcetera, but he is also chosen by society. The child’s involvement within societal groups depends largely on whether his individual principles, norms and behavioural codes correspond with those of a particular group. In this respect, according to Le Roux (1992:69) parents have a complex task, namely:

1. to demonstrate by their example, the principles and interests considered valuable within the family as a primary social unit, and to instill these in the child; and
2. to assist the child in selecting social contexts congruent with the principles and interests mentioned, and to subtly and sympathetically draw him into these social contexts, to incorporate him and to make him feel at home.

The school, church and political parties are some of the institutions of society in which the child must become socially involved, or at least orientated, and in which the parents have a special formative task (Graham, 1991:2).

(1) **School and social life**

Formal schooling is designed to satisfy the rapidly expanding requirements of society. Griessel, Louw and Swart (1993:49-50) say modern society has been
caught up in a process of rapid change and there is a demand for specialization, skills and knowledge in which the family as primary means of education are insufficient. The school with its complicated structure fulfils a particular function in every field. The child has no choice. School has been set on his road through life and he has to see it through (Smit, 1990:363).

The support which the child gets from his parents regarding his school life is crucial. Research has shown that a happy home environment is the one constant factor that repeatedly comes to the fore where success at school is correlated with external factors (Clark, 1989:56; Ferreira, 1994:71). Relevant matters which especially emphasize parents’ decisive role in the successful achievement of their children in school are the following (Le Roux, 1992:70):

1. The interest that parents take in, and the value they attach to the child’s schoolwork.
2. The parents can make the child’s school life meaningful by supporting him in his extra-curricular activities such as sport meetings and school functions.
3. The parents’ attitude towards the school and their explicit opinion about it as an educational institution and about the teachers as experts in their subject fields, can also contribute towards the child’s experience of school attendance as meaningful or meaningless.
4. The extent to which the parents can afford to keep the child at school, is also of the utmost importance for the child’s sense of belonging at school. This includes matters such as whether the child has enough time to do his homework, whether he has his own place to study, whether the parents can provide essentials for school.
(2) **Church and religious matters**

Man's religiousness means the enduring yearning for final stability, absolute peace and the most profound certainty (Du Plooy, Griessel & Oberholzer, 1987:155). The child finds certainty to a very great extent in the adult as an example of certainty and progress in life. Griffiths and Hamilton (1994:24) maintain that the child, in the presence of his parents (and other educators), becomes aware of certain actions, attitudes and practices in connection with a particular religion (Jarret, 1991:51). At first the actions are repeated ritualistically without any real understanding of their meaning. Through his participation in religious rituals as religious activities in his life-world the child experiences the need of existential need by, amongst others, a surrender to the transcendent, which to the Christian means God. This is dependent on the behavioural example of the parents and the religious experience of the child (Louw, 1992:112).

Parents must ensure that the child, through their setting of a good example, is orientated socially with regard to religion in general and to a specific church and congregation in particular. Parents can make a special contribution towards the child's continuing sense of belonging in the congregation if they talk to him regularly and with empathy about religious matters (Van den Aardweg & Van den Aardweg, 1990:194-195). Joint family devotions can be regarded as one of the most crucial family activities in supporting the child in church and religious matters (Baldwin, 1993:320).

(3) **Preservation of the national character**

To arouse the national sentiment in the child parents must make sure that he is familiar with the religion, traditions, customs and history of his people (Du
Plooy, Griessel and Oberholzer, 1987:154). Every nation observes its own hierarchy of values and as a member of his group the child must always choose the valid values and accept personal responsibility for his choice. By constantly deciding in favour of the same national values the child reveals anew each time that he accepts his nation and wants to be accepted as a member of the nation, and wishes to strengthen the national welfare as the embodiment of national descent (Turner & Helms, 1995:154)). As law-abiding citizens the parents can contribute a great deal to ensure that the child can also be incorporated in the bond with the nation and feel that he belongs (O’Donell, 1985:27). Parents must introduce the child to the national character of the nation, its language, history and heroes, its moments of glory and dark hours, its political and economic situations and aspirations. This can only be achieved by the parents’ active participation in national events and the example they set (Beatrice, 1993:98).

(4) Political life

Le Roux (1992:71-72) and O’Donell (1985:18) say the question is often posed whether political matters need really form part of the child’s upbringing. If we consider the fact that children are entitled to vote at the age of eighteen, it is certainly relevant to familiarize them with the opinions and aspirations of various political groups. News media also bring the political views of leaders into the home every day which can be confusing to the child. Therefore, Luster and Okagaki (1993:75) maintain that parents are probably the most appropriate persons to discuss political matters with the child in order to interpret and elucidate them. This implies that parents must ensure that they keep up with national and world events, otherwise the information communicated to the child will become irrelevant (Smit & Le Roux, 1991:92).
Labour system and professional life

For the child to be able to select a suitable career in a responsible and accountable way he must have an understanding of the essence of professional life in a social context and be prepared to accept career responsibilities (Biller, 1991:55). In order to make a responsible career choice, the child must have the ability to meet the demands of preparing for a career, and also those of the career itself. According to Baldwin (1993:134) it is imperative that the child has knowledge of which careers are available and what the basics of the prescribed curricula entail. The child must have a positive attitude towards work and be willing to meet the future with confidence. English and Foster (1988:43) say parents are the most suitable persons to acquaint the child to these career matters. In observing his parents in their occupations the child can notice their attitude to their daily tasks, the manner in which they express themselves about their work, their employers, employees, remuneration and other relevant matters (Rich, 1988:23). Equally important is the appreciative way in which parents talk about each others job in their absence.

2.6.3 Child's acquisition of self-identity

According to Schaffer (1996:44) to be a child is to be somebody, to form a self-identity, to have satisfactory answers to the question: "Who am I?". Self-identity is congruent with an integrated whole which consists of the following (Vrey, 1990:45):

. the person's conceptions of himself;
. the stability and continuity of the attributes by which he knows himself; and
The agreement between the person's self-conceptions and that held of him by people he esteems.

The child has to form the concepts of himself in his association with other people. This integrated whole of self-concepts, this identity, must be stable and continuous in such a way that the individual may know himself and other people may know him (Pringle, 1987: 35,100).

The child's parents must also support him in the gradual acquisition and establishment of his self-identity. Parents (and other adults) confront the child with certain norms and values and by testing them the child gains more meaningful clarity and decides for himself to what extent he can or wants to identify with them (Woolfolk, 1990:103). The acquisition of self-identity entails the following (Le Roux, 1992:72):

1. The child must get to know his own personality and its consistency over a period of time.
2. He must gradually establish his own "inner forum" on which he can base the decisions about himself by himself.
3. He must begin to accept his own judgement as the norm for his decisions.
4. He must accept the fact that he exists and that he is what he is.
5. He must gradually realize that other people are taking note of his existence and of the way he is.

In assisting the child in the acquisition of identity it is essential that parents should allow the child the necessary "manoeuvring space" without making him feel guilty or that he is behaving improperly or badly every time he questions the values of the adult world, and of his parents in particular, in an
effort to establish his own identity. It requires sympathetic, authoritative guidance which is based on an absolutely mutual trust between parents and child (Van Niekerk, 1991:20). This acquisition of an identity takes place via the identification with meaningful persons of which the parents are in many ways the most important models for the child.

(1) **Sex role identity**

In most cultures a child is expected to look and act like a boy or like a girl. These behaviour differences are the result of socialization. Van den Aardweg and Van den Aardweg (1990:209) and David (1993:25) say that sex roles are largely learned and changes in society tend to negate many of the differences between sexes (unisex) and they are becoming involved in vocations, activities, sports and dress which were formerly reserved for one or other sex only. Basically, however, the male (father) is still the breadwinner and the female (mother), although often following a full-time job, is still the homemaker.

Sex role is fixed early in a child’s development and once established it is very difficult to change (Pringle, 1987:16-17). Both parents play an important but different role in the child’s acquisition of a sex role identity. The mother is a role model of an expressive leader and she plays the major role in acquainting the child with the tangible, concrete and realistic aspects of life. The father represents, as instrumental leader, the less tangible aspects, the existence of abstract concepts, and the invisible and idealistic side of life (Biller, 1991:74).

Brody & Steelman (1985:150) say it is obvious that the father plays a major role in the establishment of his son’s sexual role identity through his personification of male self-control, serenity, yet emotive sensitivity in a
demanding world. Through his personal interaction with his daughter the father can play an important role in the establishment of her sex role identity.

(2) Group and cultural identity

The child is born in a cultural-historic milieu which embraces all the accepted traditional customs, norms, values, moral attributes and behaviours practised by a particular group of people (Van den Aardweg and Van den Aardweg, 1990:56). Initially the child spontaneously accepts the fact of having been born into a specific cultural group, but as he grows up and has to make his own judgements, he has no alternative but to choose for or against the system of symbols of his group to establish his own identity (Wilson, 1990:62). The family is a major carrier of cultural tradition and the extent to which a child will become part of his cultural group and determine his position within the group, is largely dependent on parental guidance (Kapp, 1991:478; Dekker & Lemmer, 1993:29).

The child’s social position, expectations and aspirations are to a large extent determined by the socio-economic status of the family (Sprinthall, Sprinthall & Oja, 1994:88). Studies on milieu constraints and early school leaving have repeatedly shown that children are inclined to follow in their parents’ footsteps (Honig, 1990:34). Research also found that if the child’s identification with his parents fails, he often identifies with groups that are actually opposed to the parents (Packard, 1989:61).

2.7 ACCOUNTABLE CHILD REARING

According to Bettelheim (1987:98), Drescher (1991:39) and Walsh (1993:21) the following can, inter alia, be considered as skills needed by parents in the
adequate guiding of the child towards optimal self-actualization:

(1) **The creation of a family atmosphere**

In every family it is primarily the parent's task to make the child feel at home in the world - to prepare him for the demands of life which will be made on him. For this, a permanent space, a family space or home, is necessary, because education begins in the family. The family situation is a particular form of togetherness of people in a place of trust and intimacy, which may then be demarcated as our space. This caring space (home), is experienced by the child as a personal space, i.e. space for himself. Personal space is a space to which the child attributes certain meanings, certain values regarding his situatedness-in-the-world.

(2) **Physical care**

The parent's loving and personal physical care of the child, to provide for his bodily needs, is necessary for the child's physical well-being, a pre-requisite to the well-being of the child as totality. Adequate physical care by parents is the single most important requirement for the child's attachment to them. The child feels accepted, which is essential for the emergence of the relationship of trust. Proper physical care is experienced by the child as protective assurance, as well as an expression of parental affection. If the child's physical needs are sufficiently met, he is able to cope better with anxiety and conflict situations.

(3) **Concern and interest**

Parents should show genuine concern and interest towards the child's feelings
and needs. They should care about the child’s well-being, health, joys and sorrows. They should be interested in what is happening with the child and how the child is. Sincere concern and interest means: it hurts me when you get hurt, I feel and share your joy, your sorrow, your enthusiasm, your loss and your confidence - in fact, you matter to me.

(4) **Support and assistance**

The parent must render support and assistance to the child in such a manner that he feels safe and experiences acceptance. They must demonstrate a relationship of warm, emotional closeness to the child, and also show emotional involvement. In showing their willingness to help and support the child at any time, the child experiences security and feels accepted by his parents. Accountable support and assistance can only be rendered by parents who are always available to help the child, exercise strict disciplinary measures, are consistent in their actions, and are trustworthy.

(5) **Forming of relationships**

In initiating and building a harmonious relationship with the child, the parent creates an atmosphere suitable for upbringing which include education. All education can only be adequately realized within a relationship of trust, understanding and authority between parent (primary educator) and child (educand).

(6) **Affection**

In their actions, deeds and beliefs, parents can show to their children that they truly care for them. They can make their affection known to the child through
a loveable hug, in listening with interest to the child’s joys, sorrows, fears, disappointments, achievements, expectations, worries, etc.

(7) **Knowledge and understanding**

To understand and know the child is a condition for creating and maintaining opportunities to help the child on his way to adulthood. To be able to render adequate support to the child, the parents have to know and understand the child well, and to acquaint themselves progressively and more thoroughly with the child.

(8) **Discipline**

The code of conduct of the family should always be spelled out clearly and consistently, and held up fairly by the parents. Children like to know what they can and cannot do. In their disciplinary actions, parents must be firm, fair and consistent, but also allow for a certain degree of flexibility. Disciplinary actions should be taken as soon as possible after the offence, otherwise the child will lose respect for the parent as disciplinarian.

(9) **Regard for human dignity**

Regard for the dignity of the child must at all times be showed by parents. Parents that show reverence for their own human dignity, and strives towards the realisation of the demands of propriety, will also show regard for the dignity of their children and other fellow human beings.
(10) **Acceptance**

Acceptance of the child as an individual with needs and possible shortcomings, is essential for winning the child’s trust. This implies that the parent must accept the child as he is, and not as he should be. The parent has to accept, with humility, that it is his task to take the child by the hand, and to support and guide him towards responsible adulthood.

(11) **Morality**

Parents must aspire to arouse the aspirational life and appreciative life of the child to such an extent that he will at least sense the moral good, and obey the norms emanating from it. Moral guidance by the parent will amount to the appeal to the child to make his choices, and direct his actions in such a way that they are in keeping with the requirements of propriety. To ensure that the child increasingly obeys moral norms, parents should prescribe norms for themselves, and live up to these norms in actual educative situations.

(12) **Religious guidance**

In their exemplification, support and guidance, parents can help the child in the assimilation of a religion. The religious beliefs of the child depends largely on the behavioural example of his parents and the religious experiences in the family.

2.8 **SUMMARY**

From the above it is clear that parenthood entails the acceptance of responsibility for the procreation and upbringing of the child. Parenthood
implies a whole series of attitudes, actions and inclinations that have to be changed or acquired. The relationship between parent and child is based on parental love and care, acceptance, trust, understanding, and most important, ties of blood. This relationship forms the foundation for the adequate realization of the educational relationship. As head of the family, the father should be the undoubted figure of authority.

Educative assistance given by the parents consist as much in opposing the child’s wilful marring of his own humanisation as in giving their blessing to whatever spontaneous acts are in the child’s own interest. Educative activities involve the exercising of authority, order and prohibition, reprimand and admonition, encouragement, consent, consolation, etc. Parents as educators prepare the child for going out into the world in providing protective guidance and orientation regarding societal structures.

Throughout this chapter it was pointed out that an unplanned family, with more children than the parents can adequately care for, creates numerous social and educational problems. Parents may find it difficult to provide essential amenities such as housing with sufficient living space for each family member, food and clothes, recreation and education.

The criteria for responsible parenthood discussed in this chapter will form the basis for the questionnaire to be utilised in the empirical research of this study. The following chapter will describe the planning of the empirical investigation.
## CHAPTER 3

### PLANNING OF THE RESEARCH

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CHAPTER 3

PLANNING OF THE RESEARCH

The research in the preceding chapter on responsible parenthood, was conducted by means of available relevant literature. In order to further investigate the findings in the literature study it was necessary to undertake an empirical survey to establish parents' views on their responsibility in family planning. Data was collected by means of administering a self-structured questionnaire to randomly selected parents (father and mother) from Indian families. This chapter will focus on the planning of the research used in the investigation of family planning as the responsibility of parents.

3.2 PREPARATION FOR AND DESIGN OF THE RESEARCH

3.2.1 Permission

The questionnaire was administered to Indian parents. Parents were contacted by telephone beforehand in order to set up an appointment at a time that would be suitable to both parents in a family.

3.2.1 Selection of respondents

In order to administer the questionnaire to Indian parents, respondents from the Kharwastan and Phoenix regions were randomly selected. This provided the researcher with 123 couples (father and mother) as respondents.
3.3 THE RESEARCH INSTRUMENT

3.3.1 The questionnaire as research instrument

According to Van Rensburg, Landman and Bodenstein (1994:504) a questionnaire is a set of questions dealing with some topic or related group of topics, given to a selected group of individuals for the purpose of gathering data on a problem under construction. Van den Aardweg and Van den Aardweg (1990: 190) say the questionnaire is a prepared question form submitted to certain persons (respondents) with a view to obtaining information. Churchill and Peter (Schnetler, 1993:77) have shown that the measuring instrument has the greatest influence on the reliability of research data. The characteristics of measurement are best controlled by the careful construction of the instrument. There is, however, insufficient appreciation for the fact that a questionnaire should be constructed according to certain principles (Bless & Higson-Smith, 1995:106; McBurne, 1994:105).

A well-designed questionnaire is the culmination of a long process of planning the research objective, formulating the problem, generating the hypothesis, etc. A questionnaire is not simply thrown together. A poorly designed questionnaire can invalidate any research results, notwithstanding the merits of the sample, the field workers and the statistical techniques (Huysamen, 1994:2). In their criticism of questionnaires Berchie and Anderson (Schnetler, 1993:61) object to poor design rather than to questionnaires as such. A well-designed questionnaire can boost the reliability and validity of the data to acceptable tolerance (Schumacher & McMillan, 1993:42).
It therefore stands to reason that questionnaire design does not take place in a vacuum. According to Dane (1990:315-319) and Cooper (1989:45) the length of individual questions, the number of response options, as well as the format and wording of questions are determined by the following:

- Choice of the subject to be researched.
- Aim of the research.
- Size of the research sample.
- Method of data collection.
- Analysis of the data

Against this background it is now possible to look at the principles that determine whether a questionnaire is well-designed. It is necessary to draw a distinction between questionnaire content, question format, question order, type of questions, formulation of questions and validity and reliability of questions.

3.3.2 Construction of the questionnaire

Questionnaire design is an activity that should not take place in isolation. The researcher consulted and sought advice from specialists and colleagues at all times during the construction of the questionnaire (Huysamen, 1994:65). Questions to be taken in the questionnaire should be tested on people to eliminate possible errors. A question may appear correct to the researcher when written down, but can be interpreted differently when asked to another person. McBurne (1994:33) says there should be no hesitation in changing questions several times before the final formulation. The most important point to be taken into account in questionnaire design is that it takes time and effort, and that the
questionnaire will be re-drafted a number of times before being finalised. A researcher must therefore ensure that adequate time is budgeted for in the construction and preliminary testing of the questionnaire (Bless & Higson-Smith, 1995:115). All of the above was taken into consideration by the researcher during the designing of the questionnaire for this investigation.

An important aim in the construction of the questionnaire for this investigation was to present the questions as simple and straightforward as possible. The reasons for this were that not all members of the target population under investigation might be adequately educated to interpret questions correctly or familiar with the completion of questionnaires. Questions were formulated in English (Appendix A). The researcher aimed at avoiding ambiguity, vagueness, bias, prejudice and technical language in the questions contained in the questionnaire.

The aim of the questionnaire was to obtain information from parents regarding their responsibility in family planning. In order to obtain the information needed for the purpose of this study the questionnaire (Appendix A) was sub-divided into three sections:

1. Section one of the questionnaire dealt with the biographical information of the respondents (father and mother) and consisted of questions 1 to 11.

2. Section two of the questionnaire focused on the parents’ views on the different methods of family planning.

3. Section three of the questionnaire focused on the parents’ perceptions of responsible parenthood.
In order to present the questions in the questionnaire as simple and straightforward as possible, and obtain greater uniformity:

\[\text{Section two of the questionnaire consisted of 18 closed questions to which the parents were requested to indicate their responses to the statements based on the different methods of family planning.}\]

\[\text{Section three of the questionnaire consisted of 18 closed questions to which the respondents were requested to indicate their responses to the statements based on certain aspects of responsible parenthood.}\]

### 3.3.3 Characteristics of a good questionnaire

Throughout the construction of the questionnaire the researcher had to consider the characteristics of a good questionnaire. The requirements necessary for a good questionnaire, according to Van den Aardweg and Van den Aardweg (1990:190), Mahlangu (1987:84-85) and Cooper (1989:23) are the following:

\[\text{It has to deal with a significant topic, one the respondent will recognise as important enough to warrant spending his or her time on. The significance should be clearly and carefully stated on the questionnaire and on the accompanying letter.}\]

\[\text{It must seek only that information which cannot be obtained from other sources.}\]
It must be as short as possible, but long enough to get the essential data. Long questionnaires frequently find their way into the wastepaper basket.

Questionnaires should be attractive in appearance, neatly arranged and clearly duplicated or printed.

Directions for a good questionnaire must be clear and complete, and important terms must be clearly defined.

Each question has to deal with a single concept and should be worded as simply and straightforwardly as possible.

Different categories should provide an opportunity for easy, accurate and unambiguous responses.

Objectively formulated questions with no leading suggestions should render the desired responses. Leading questions are just as inappropriate in a questionnaire as they are in a court of law.

Questions should be presented in a proper psychological order, preceding from general to more specific and sensitive responses. An orderly grouping helps respondents to organise their own thinking so that their answers are logical and objective. It is preferable to present questions that create a favourable attitude before proceeding to those that are more intimate or delicate in nature. Annoying and/or embarrassing questions should be avoided if possible.
3.3.4 Advantages and disadvantages of the questionnaire

Data can be gathered by means of a structured questionnaire in *inter alia* the following ways: a written questionnaire that is mailed, delivered or handed out personally; personal interviews; telephone interviews (Bless & Higson-Smith, 1995:122). Each mode has specific advantages and disadvantages which the researcher needs to evaluate for their suitability to the research question and the specific target population being studied, as well as relative cost. The researcher decided to use the written questionnaire as research instrument after contemplating the considerable advantages of this method.

(1) Advantages of the written questionnaire

According to Cohen and Manion (1989:111-112), Schnetler (1993:56) and Mulder (1989:34) the following can be regarded as advantages of the written questionnaire:

- **Affordability** is the primary advantage of written questionnaires, because it is the least expensive means of data gathering.

- Written questionnaires preclude possible *interviewer bias*. The way the interviewer asks the questions and even the interviewer's general appearance of interaction may influence respondent's answers. Such biases can be completely eliminated with a written questionnaire.
A questionnaire permits anonymity. If it is arranged such that responses are given anonymously, this would increase the researcher's chances of receiving responses which genuinely represent a person's beliefs, feelings, opinions or perceptions.

They permit respondents a sufficient amount of time to consider answers before responding.

Questionnaires can be given to many people simultaneously, that is to say that a large sample of the target population can be reached.

They provide greater uniformity across measurement situations than do interviews. Each person responds to exactly the same questions because standard instructions are given to the respondents.

Generally the data provided by questionnaires can be more easily analyzed and interpreted than the data obtained from verbal responses.

Using a questionnaire solves the problem of non-contact when the respondent is not at home when the interviewer calls. When the target population to be covered is widely and thinly spread, the mail questionnaire is the only possible method of approach.
Through the use of the questionnaire approach the problems related to interviews may be avoided. Interview "errors" may seriously undermine the reliability and validity of survey results.

Respondents may answer questions of a personal or embarrassing nature more willingly and frankly on a paper questionnaire than in a face to face situation with and interviewer who may be a complete stranger. In some cases it may happen that respondents report less than expected and make more critical comments in a mail questionnaire.

Questions requiring considered answers rather than immediate answers could enable respondents to consult documents in the case of the mail questionnaire approach.

Respondents can complete questionnaires in their own time and in a more relaxed atmosphere.

Questionnaire design is relatively easily if the set guidelines are followed.

The administering of questionnaires, the coding, analysis and interpretation of data can be done without any special training.

Data obtained from questionnaires can be compared and inferences made.
. Questionnaires can *elicit information* which cannot be obtained from other sources.

(2) **Disadvantages of the questionnaire**

The researcher is also aware of the fact that the written questionnaire has important disadvantages. According to Van den Aardweg and Van den Aardweg (1990:190) and Bless and Higson-Smith (1995:106-124) the disadvantages of the questionnaire are *inter alia* the following:

. Questionnaires do not provide the flexibility of interviews. In an interview an idea or comment can be explored. This makes it possible to gauge how people are interpreting the question. If questions asked are interpreted differently by respondents, the validity of the information is jeopardised.

. People are generally better able to express their views verbally than in writing.

. Questions can be answered only when they are sufficiently easy and straightforward to be understood with the given instructions and definitions.

. The mail questionnaire does not make provision for obtaining the views of more than one person at a time. It requires uninfluenced views of one person only.

. Answers to mail questionnaires must be seen as final. Rechecking of responses cannot be done. There is no chance of investigating beyond the given answer for a
clarification of ambiguous answers. If respondents are unwilling to answer certain questions nothing can be done to it because the mail questionnaire is essentially inflexible.

In a mail questionnaire the respondents examines all the questions at the same time before answering them and the answers to the different questions can therefore not be treated as independent.

The researcher is unable to control the context of question answering, and specifically, the presence of other people. Respondents may ask friends or family members to examine the questionnaire or comment on their answers, causing bias if the respondent's own private opinions are desired.

Written questionnaires do not allow the researcher to correct misunderstanding or answer questions that the respondents may have. Respondents might answer questions incorrectly or not at all due to confusion or misinterpretation.

3.3.5 Validity and reliability of the questionnaires

There are two concepts that are of critical importance in understanding issues of measurement in social science research, namely validity and reliability (Huysamen, 1994:1) All too rarely do questionnaire designers deal consciously with the degree of validity and reliability of their research instrument. This is one reason why so many questionnaires are lacking in these two qualities (Bless & Higson-Smith, 1995:135). Questionnaires have a very limited purpose. In fact, they are often one-
time data gathering devices with a very short life, administered to a limited population. Basic to the validity of a questionnaire is asking the right questions phrased in the least ambiguous way. In other words, do the items sample a significant aspect of the purpose of the investigation? Cohen and Manion (1989:111) say terms must be clearly defined so that they have the same meaning to all respondents.

Bless and Higson-Smith (1995:129) mention the fact that although reliability and validity are two different characteristics of measurement, they 'shade into each other'. They are two ends of a continuum but at a point in the middle it is difficult to distinguish between them. Validity and reliability are especially important in educational research because most of the measurements attempted in this area are obtained indirectly. Researchers can never guarantee that an educational or psychological measuring instrument measures precisely and dependably what it is intended to measure (Van den Aardweg & Van den Aardweg, 1990:198). It is essential, therefore, to assess the validity and reliability of these instruments. Researchers must therefore have a general knowledge as to what validity and reliability are and how one goes about validating a research instrument and establishing its reliability (Huysamen, 1994:1-3).

(1) **Validity of the questionnaire**

Van Rensburg, Landman and Bodenstein (1994:560) define validity as the extent to which a measuring instrument satisfies the purpose for which it was constructed. It also refers to the extent to which it correlates with some criterion external to the instrument itself. Validity is that quality of a data-gathering instrument or procedure that enables it to determine what it was designed to determine. In general terms validity refers to the degree to which an instrument succeeds in

Van den Aardweg and Van Den Aardweg (1990:237), Mulder (1989:215-217) and Dane (1990:257-258) distinguish between three different types of validity:

1. **Content validity** where content and cognitive processes included can be measured. Topics, skills and abilities should be prepared and items from each category randomly drawn.

2. **Criterium validity** which refers to the relationship between scores on a measuring instrument and an independent variable (criterion) believed to measure directly the behaviour or characteristic in question. The criterion should be relevant, reliable and free from bias and contamination.

3. **Construct validity** where the extent to which the test measures a specific trait or construct is concerned, for example, intelligence, reasoning, ability, attitudes, etc.

It means that validity of the questionnaire indicates how worthwhile a measure it is likely to be in a given situation. Validity shows whether the instrument is reflecting the true story, or at least something approximating the truth. A valid research instrument is one that has demonstrated that it detects some "real" ability, attitude or prevailing situation that the researcher can identify and characterize (Schnetler, 1993:71). If the ability or attitude is itself stable, and if a respondent’s answers to the items are not affected by other unpredictable factors,
then each administration of the instrument should yield essentially the same results (Dane, 1990:158).

The validity of the questionnaire as a research instrument reflects the sureness with which conclusions can be drawn. It refers to the extent to which interpretations of the instrument’s results, other than the ones the researcher wishes to make, can be ruled out. Establishing validity requires that the researcher anticipates the potential arguments that sceptics might use to dismiss the research results (Dane, 1990:148).

The researcher employed the questionnaire as an indirect method to measure the perceptions of parents with regard to their responsibility in family planning. Because of the complexity of the respondent’s attributes one is never sure that a questionnaire will actually measure what it purports to measure. Items such as height, mass, length or size cannot be measured in a questionnaire. From the interpretation of the results obtained and the sureness with which conclusions could be drawn, the researcher is, however, convinced that the questionnaire to a great extent did measure that which it was designed for.

(2) **Reliability of the questionnaire**

According to Van Rensburg, Landman and Bodenstein (1994:512) reliability is a statistical concept and relates to consistency and dependability. *Consistency of obtaining the same relative answer when measuring phenomena that have not changed.* A reliable measuring instrument is one that, if repeated under similar conditions, would present the same result or a near approximation of the initial result. Van den Aardweg and Van den Aardweg (1990:194) and Bless and Higson-Smith (1995:129) distinguish between the following types of reliability:
Test-retest reliability (coefficient of stability). Consistency estimated by comparing two or more repeated administrations of the measuring instrument. This gives an indication of the dependability of the results on one occasion which may then be compared with the results obtained on another occasion.

Internal consistency reliability. This indicates how well the test items measure the same thing.

Split-half reliability. By correlating the results obtained from two halves of the same measuring instrument, we can calculate the split-half reliability.

In essence, reliability refers to consistency, but consistency does not guarantee truthfulness. The reliability of questions is no proof that the answers given reflect the respondent’s true feelings (Dane, 1990:256). A demonstration of reliability is necessary but not conclusive evidence that an instrument is valid. Reliability refers to the extent to which measurement results are free of unpredictable kinds of error. Sources of error that effect reliability are inter alia the following (Mulder, 1989:209; Bless & Higson-Smith, 1995:132);

- Fluctuations in the mood or alertness of respondents because of illness, fatigue, recent good or bad experiences, or temporary differences amongst members of the group being measured.

- Variations in the conditions of administration between groups. These range from various distractions, such as
unusual outside noise to inconsistencies in the administration of the measuring instrument such as omissions in verbal instructions.

- Differences in scoring or interpretation of results, chance differences in what the observer notices and errors in computing scores.

- Random effects by respondents who guess or check off attitude alternatives without trying to understand them.

When the questionnaire is used as an empirical research instrument there is no specific method, for example the "test-retest" method, to determine the reliability of the questionnaire. It will be difficult to establish to what extent the answers of the respondents were reliable. Researcher, however, believes that the questionnaires in this investigation were completed with the necessary honesty and sincerity required to render the maximum possible reliability. Frankness in responding to questions was made possible by the prospect of anonymity promised to the respondents. In the coding of the questions it was evident that questionnaires were completed with the necessary dedication.

3.4 PILOT STUDY

A pilot study is an abbreviated version of a research project in which the researcher practises or tests the procedures to be used in the subsequent full-scale project (Dane, 1990:42). For the purpose of the pilot study in this research project, ten people were selected from amongst the researcher's colleagues. The pilot study is a preliminary or 'trial run'
investigation using similar questions and similar subjects as in the final survey. Bless and Higson-Smith (1995:43,50) say the basic purpose of a pilot study is to determine how the design of the subsequent study can be improved and to identify flaws in the measuring instrument. A pilot study gives the researcher an idea of what the method will actually look like in operation and what effects (intended or otherwise) it is likely to have. In other words, by generating many of the practical problems that will ultimately arise, a pilot study enables the researcher to avert these problems by changing procedures, instructions and questions.

The number of participants in the pilot study or group is normally smaller than the number scheduled to take part in the final survey. Participants in the pilot study and the sample for the final study must be selected from the same target population (McBurne, 1994:67). For the purpose of this study the researcher conducted a pilot run on her colleagues that are parents with children.

According to Plug, Meyer, Louw and Gouws (1991:49-66) the following are the purposes of a pilot study, and these were also the aims of the researcher in this survey:

- It permitted a preliminary testing of the hypothesis that leads to testing more precise hypotheses in the main study.
- It provided the researcher with ideas, approaches and clues not foreseen prior to the pilot study.
It permitted a thorough check of the planned statistical and analytical procedures, thus allowing an appraisal of their adequacy in treating the data.

It greatly reduced the number of treatment errors because unforeseen problems revealed in the pilot study resulted in redesigning the main study.

It saved the researcher major expenditures of time and money on aspects of the research which would have been unnecessary.

Feedback from other persons involved were made possible and led to important improvements in the main study.

In the pilot study the researcher tried out a number of alternative measures and selected only those that produced the best results for the final study.

The approximate time required to complete the questionnaire was established in the pilot study.

Questions and/or instructions that were misinterpreted were reformulated.

Through the use of the pilot study as 'pre-test', the researcher was satisfied that the questions asked complied adequately to the requirements of the study.
3.5 ADMINISTRATION OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

If properly administered the questionnaire is the best available instrument for obtaining information from widespread sources or large groups simultaneously (Mulder, 1989:39). Researcher personally delivered questionnaires to the homes of the parents and collected them again after completion. This method of administration facilitated the process and the response rate. A 82% return rate was obtained with 123 questionnaires (from 150 delivered) completed and collected.

3.6 THE PROCESSING OF THE DATA

Once data was collected, it was captured in a format which would permit analysis and interpretation. This involved the careful coding of the questionnaires completed by 123 parents (father and mother). The coded data was subsequently transferred onto a computer spreadsheet using the Quattro Pro 4.0 statistics computer programme. The coded data was computer analyzed using the SAS programme in order to interpret the results by means of descriptive statistics.

3.6.1 Descriptive statistics

Descriptive statistics serve to describe and summarise observations (Van Rensburg, Landman and Bodenstein, 1994:355). Frequency tables, histograms and polygons are useful in forming impressions about the distribution of data. According to Van den Aardweg and Van den Aardweg (1990:65-76) frequency distribution is a method to organize data obtained from questionnaires to simplify statistical analysis. For the purpose of this study frequency tables provided percentages that reflect
the number of responses to a certain question in relation to the total number of responses.

3.6.2 Application of data

The questionnaire (Appendix A) was designed to determine the perceptions of parents with regards to their responsibility in family planning. In order to obtain the information needed for the purpose of this study the questionnaire was sub-divided into three sections.

. Section 1 required demographic information about the parents selected to complete the questionnaire and included items 1.1 to 1.11

. Section 2 aimed at gathering information pertaining to the different methods of family planning and included items 2.1 to 2.18.

. Section 3 gathered information relevant to the responsibilities of parenthood and included items 3.1 to 3.18.

3.7 LIMITATIONS OF THE INVESTIGATION

The following are likely factors that might have influenced the reliability and validity of the questionnaire:

. Although anonymity was required in the questionnaire the possibility exists that, because of the sensitive nature of the information required, parents might not have been frank and truthful in their responses.
The sensitive nature of items in the questionnaire might have elicited false or misleading responses and influenced the reliability of the results.

To restrict the investigation to manageable proportions, the researcher limited the study to parents within the vicinity where she lives in order to personally deliver and collect the questionnaires.

3.8 SUMMARY

In this chapter the planning and design of the empirical research was discussed and a description of the questionnaire as research instrument was given.

In the following chapter the data obtained from the completed questionnaires will be presented.
# CHAPTER 4

**PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF THE RESEARCH DATA**

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<th>Title</th>
<th>Page</th>
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</thead>
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</tr>
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<td>4.2.9</td>
<td>Residence in home</td>
<td>89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.2.10</td>
<td>After-school care</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.2.11</td>
<td>Family planning</td>
<td>91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.2.12</td>
<td>Responsible parenthood</td>
<td>98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>SUMMARY</td>
<td>104</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CHAPTER 4

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF THE RESEARCH DATA

4.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, the data which was collected from the completed questionnaires will be analyzed and certain comments will be offered. One-hundred and twenty-three questionnaires were completed by both parents (father and mother) in the family.

4.2 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

The purpose of research is to gain insight into a situation, phenomenon, community or person (Bless & Higson-Smith, 1995:42). Descriptive research is one of the methods of research used to study a person or persons scientifically in a specific situation. It attempts to describe the situation as it is, thus there is no intervention on the part of the researcher and therefore no control. Van Rensburg, Landman and Bodenstein (1994:355) say descriptive studies does not set out with the idea of testing hypothesis about relationships, but wants to find distribution of variables. In this study nomothetic descriptive research was employed with the aim of describing the views of parents regarding their responsibility in family planning. The researcher was primarily concerned with the nature and degree of existing situations in the families selected for the research.
4.2.1 Age of the parents

Table 1 Frequency distribution according to the age of the parents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age group of parents</th>
<th>MOTHER</th>
<th>FATHER</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1  16 - 20 years</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2  21 - 25 years</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3  26 - 30 years</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>17%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4  31 - 35 years</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5  36 - 40 years</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>27%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6  41 - 45 years</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7  46 - 50 years</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8  51 - 55 years</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9  56 - 60 years</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 over 61 years</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing values</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>123</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In Table 1 more than half of the mothers (52%) are in the age group 30 to 40 years, and nearly half of the fathers (47%) also fall in the same age group. The younger the parents the more actively involved they are with their children in for example, sporting activities - a situation that is necessary for the relationship of trust and understanding between parent and child (Gouws & Kruger, 1994:115). The younger the parents the more years they have left in the labour force in order to sufficiently support dependant children financially.
4.2.2 **Home language of parents**

Table 2  Frequency distribution according to the home language of the parents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Home language</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Hindi</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Urdu</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Gugerati</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Tamil</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Telegu</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 English</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>81%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 Other</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td><strong>123</strong></td>
<td><strong>100%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From Table 2 it emerges that the majority of parents (81%) indicated their home language as being English. This was a predicted finding because most Indian families speak English at home for the benefit of their children who mostly attend English medium schools. Research done in the mid-1970s noted considerable language group differences concerning family planning between English speakers and other languages (Mostert & Hofmeyr, 1988:6). English speaking families were smaller as a result of family planning, but by the mid-1980s differences seem to have disappeared. Lötter (1988:11) says that although one would, of course, not link the number of children in a family to language *per se*, but rather look for social and cultural factors or conditions operating within a language group that may influence family planning.
4.2.3 Religious denomination of parents

Table 3 Frequency distribution according to the religious denomination of the parents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Religious denomination</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Islam</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>13%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hinduism</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>51%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sai Baba Movement</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hare Krishna Movement</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Buddhism</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sheikhism 30 years</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Catholic</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Christian</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>19%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bethesda</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jehovah Witness</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>123</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4 shows that the larger number of families (51%) are followers of Hinduism. Hinduism is one of the religious denominations that has been emphasising and blessing norms of high fertility and a large family as a prime value (Preston-Whyte, 1988:15). According to Lötter (1988:8) there are strong anti family planning elements in Hinduism. The male centred view of life, combined with the belief in reincarnation, makes sons important to pray for their ancestors and deliver them from hell, and tends to relegate woman chiefly to her child bearing function.
### 4.2.4 Parents' occupations management team

**Table 4** Frequency distribution according to the occupations of the parents (father and mother)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>MOTHER</th>
<th></th>
<th>FATHER</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>33%</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Doctor</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Nurse</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Housewife</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>36%</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Self-employed</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Policeman</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Technician</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Clerk</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Labourer</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Priest</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Unemployed</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td>123</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>123</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Most of the mothers in Table 4 are housewives (36%) or teachers (33%) and are at home with their children for most of the day and do not have to depend on after school care. Only two percent of the fathers are in a higher income professional occupation, which place the majority of the respondents in the middle to lower socio-economic group of society. According to Lötter (1988:8) the decline in family size can and does occur in widely differing socio-economic contexts. The onset of this decline appears to be determined more by ill-understood cultural factors than by objectively ascertainable development factors.
4.2.5 Educational level of parents

Table 6  Frequency distribution according to the educational level of the parents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Educational level</th>
<th>MOTHER</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>FATHER</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1  No formal schooling</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2  Lower than Grade 7</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3  Grade 7</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4  Grade 8</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5  Grade 9</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6  Grade 10</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>11%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7  Grade 11</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8  Grade 12</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>30%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9  Certificate</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 Diploma</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>16%</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 Degree + certificate</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12 Degree + diploma</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>14%</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>13%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13 Missing values</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td>123</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>123</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The data in Table 6 indicate that more than half of the mothers (58%) and fathers (63%) have not furthered their education after leaving school. This is a possible reason for the finding in Table 4, namely, that a very low percentage of the respondents held professional occupations. Research concerning family size in Africa revealed that the marital fertility rate declines as the wife's education improves while the negative effect of the husband's education on marital fertility is even greater than that of the wife's education (Mostert & Hofmeyr, 1988:3).
4.2.6 Total number of children in the family

Table 6 Frequency distribution according to the total number of children in the family

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of children</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No children</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 child</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 children</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 children</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 children</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 children</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 children</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 children</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 children</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>123</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Most of the families in Table 6 (40%) have two children. Modernization has directly or indirectly, placed the value of a large number of children in doubt in Indian families. South African Indians are, to a much greater extent than the present populations of India and Pakistan, exposed to factors that tended to weaken pronatalist cultural forces, such as rising aspirations for socio-economic ability (Blignaut, 1993:4). The latter brought pressure on institutions such as the extended family and brought about a representation of fertility ideals. Urbanization, eradication of illiteracy, women entering the labour market and freeing themselves of traditional roles, exposure to Western or modernizing influences and economic progress all contributed to the decline in the number of children in Indian South African families (Sun, 1985:127; Van Tonder, 1986:32).
4.2.7 Number of school-going children in the family

Table 7 Frequency distribution according to the number of school-going children in the family

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of children</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No children</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 child</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 children</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>29%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 children</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>13%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 children</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td><strong>123</strong></td>
<td><strong>100%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 7 shows that a large percentage of the parents (80%) have one or more children in school. The more school-going children in a family the more responsibility is required from parents regarding financial assistance and involvement in the formal schooling of their children (Van Tonder, 1986:41). In larger families parents often work long hours or have more than one job to adequately support their family (McDonald, 1988:24). Given the demands of their employment, these parents are rarely in a position to pay sufficient attention to the education of their children. According to Pillay (1998:24) the frustration of being deprived of education because of financial hardship has resulted in the youth turning to sub- and counter-cultural activities.
4.2.8 **Place of residence**

**Table 8** Frequency distribution according to the parents' place of residence

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Residence</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1  Own house/flat</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2  Rented house/flat</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>53%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3  With parents/in-laws</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4  With other relatives</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5  Missing values</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td><strong>123</strong></td>
<td><strong>100%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Half of the parents (50%) were house or flat owners (Table 8). It is primarily the parents' task to make the child feel at home in the world and to prepare him for the demands of life which will be made on him. For this, a permanent space, a family space or home, is necessary. De Witt & Booyzen (1994:127) say that a caring space, i.e. an own family home, is experienced by the child as *personal space* - a place of trust and intimacy, to which the child attributes certain meaning and certain value with regard to his own situatedness in the world.

When families live in houses with inadequate room for their children it may happen that children are exposed at an early age to adult conflicts and intimate activities such as sex. This may lead to a loss of personal refinement. Lamanna and Riedman (1994:267) say owing to lack of personal space and privacy children develop feelings of dissatisfaction and aggression which are a fertile breeding ground for anti-social behaviour.
4.2.9 Residents in the home

Table 9 Frequency distribution according to other residents living in the same home as respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Residents</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Grandparents</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>51%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Cousins</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Aunts</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Uncles</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Boarders</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 Others</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 None</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>123</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The extended family is still very prevalent within certain Indian communities and therefore the reason that more than half (51%) of the parents indicated residents as other relatives (Table 8). Van den Aardweg and Van den Aardweg (1990:89) say extended families usually work together for the good of the whole family. The working members contribute economically to the home whilst the, usually older, but non-working members care for the household and the younger children. Van Vuren (1990:19) states that it would appear that the benefits of having a smaller family which costs less to feed, clothe and send to school, are strong incentives to family planning.
4.2.10 After-school care

Table 10 Frequency distribution according to the after-school care of school-going children in the family

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>After-school care</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Mother</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>39%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Father</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Granny</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>13%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Aunt</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Care centre</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 Others</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 None (25 parents without school-going children)</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>31%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>123</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From Table 10 the indication is that only a small number of families, namely thirteen (38 -25) do not provide after-school care for their children. A possible reason for this finding is that more than a half (51%) of the respondents have indicated that relatives are living with them (cf. table 8) and the possibility exists that they are taking care of the children after school. Children that are not under adult care or supervision for long periods are at risk of committing to anti-social behaviour (Smith, 1995:8). Another possible reason is that most of the mothers are housewives or teachers and are at home when children return from school (cf. table 4).
4.2.11 Family planning

Table 11 Frequency distribution according to parents' views of the different methods of family planning

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question no.</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Uncertain</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>2.1</td>
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<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>123</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>98%</td>
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<td>0%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>123</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>98%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>123</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>89%</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>123</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>93%</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>123</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>53%</td>
<td>42%</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>123</td>
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<td></td>
<td>45%</td>
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</tr>
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<td>2.7</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>123</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>93%</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>123</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>82%</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>123</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>18%</td>
<td>81%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.10</td>
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<td></td>
<td>44%</td>
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<td>2.11</td>
<td>23</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.12</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>123</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>59%</td>
<td>16%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.13</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>123</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>69%</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>11%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.14</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>123</td>
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<td></td>
<td>72%</td>
<td>17%</td>
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<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.15</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>123</td>
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<td></td>
<td>86%</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.16</td>
<td>116</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>123</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>94%</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.17</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>123</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>92%</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.18</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>11</td>
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<td>123</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td>89%</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>123</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>70%</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
According to the averages in Table 11 the majority of parents (70%) agreed with the questions regarding of the different methods of planning that can be employed by parents in planning their family. Verme et al. (1993:2) say the sole responsibility for planning their family lies with the parents.

The above finding is substantiated by the responses of the parents to the following questions in Table 11:

2.1 Nearly one hundred percent of the respondents (98%) agreed that family planning clinics must be easily accessible to everybody. According to Becker (1992:29) it is the right of every family to have free access to information on and services surrounding family planning. Family planning services are increasingly considered in many countries as a basic human right (Boyden & Hudson, 1985:12).

2.2 The majority of parents (98%) admitted that they should be knowledgeable about methods of contraception. A variety of contraception methods are available and new ones will become available as a result of medical progress and research (Verme et al., 1993:11).

2.3 Most of the respondents are of the opinion that religion should not prejudice the right of parents to use contraceptives. Some religions (for example Roman Catholicism and Buddhism) disapprove of contraception on the grounds that it 'halts' the start of a new life (Charlish, 1989:42). In the Muslim community the Koran permits contraception only when the birth of a child would clearly endanger the mothers life (Preston-Whyte, 1988:19). Concerning contraception and the legacy of Islam, Omram (1993:170) specifies the following three circumstances under which it is legal to use contraceptives:
A couple with *modest means* who want to postpone the birth of a second child until they can care properly for two children.

A couple with *good means* who want to stop procreation temporarily until they can provide a separate room for a child of a different gender.

A couple with *good means and three children* who want to use contraception not because they cannot afford more children, but because they live in a country which needs family planning because of population growth.

2.4 More than ninety percent of the parents (93%) agreed that all women should have access to contraception. Van Vuren (1993:10) says choice and information have served as the cornerstones of the women’s health and her reproductive rights. Equal rights campaigners support the rights of individual women to choose contraception, pregnancy or abortion, to choose alternative medical treatment, or none at all (Bryan, 1991:7).

2.5 and 2.6 More than a third of the parents (42%) disagreed with the statement that sterilization of women or men (48%) is the most efficient way of preventing unwanted pregnancies. A possible reason for this is that sterilization is in most cases irreversible and if a man or woman remarry the chances of having children in a new family is slim (Lauer & Lauer, 1994:9).

2.7 A very large percentage of the parents (93%) agreed that contraception enables women to control the size of their family. Siddhartha (1992:3) says if energies are not expended merely in chasing targets but ensuring
a situation in which a woman is given the choice of choosing her time of conception, the size of her family and the time periods between births, much larger benefits are likely to accrue.

2.8 The statement that unwanted pregnancies can be prevented by contraceptives was agreed with by 82% of the respondents. In most families an unwanted pregnancy can have numerous consequences (cf. 3.3).

2.9 The majority of respondents (81%) disagreed with the statement that the number of children in a family should be determined by legislation. Married couples in China have to sign an agreement that they will have only one child and offenders are forced to have an abortion (Charlish, 1989:9). As a democratic country South Africa will not introduce such legislation. Van Vuren (1993:11) believes that family planning is far more successful if people reduce their fertility by choice because they have insight in the benefits rather than by legislation. In this regard Verme et al. (1993:22) refer to the universal declaration of human rights which reads as follows: "... any choice and division with regard to the size of the family must irrevocably rest with the family itself, and cannot be made by anyone else."

2.10 to 2.12. Less than half of the respondents (44%) agreed that abortion is morally acceptable in the case of an unwanted pregnancy while 53% disagreed. In response to question 2.11 as many as 71% of the parents do not consider abortion as an alternative to contraception while most of the respondents 59% (2.12) do not agree that abortion is a fundamental right of women to control the size of their family. Charlish (1989:25) maintains that in determining whether or not any decision on abortion is morally acceptable, the following have to be
taken into account:

- the rights of the woman;
- the rights of the father;
- the rights of the fetus;
- religious beliefs; and
- medical ethics.

In South Africa abortion is legal when the fetus is three months or younger (Myburgh & Poggenpoel, 1999). Anti-abortionists believe that it is the right of every child to be born. They argue that the child, by reason of its physical and mental immaturity, needs special safeguarding and care, including appropriate legal protection before as well as after birth (Bryan, 1991:16). However, the moral rights and wrongs of abortion cannot be seen in isolation. According to Myburgh and Poggenpoel (1999) there are various medical, social and ethical factors that need to be taken into consideration and which may perhaps take precedence over any discussion of when and how life begins. Bryan (1991:19) claims that it is better to prevent life forming than to terminate it because abortion is not preventing a birth but killing an individual.

2.13 and 2.14. It was agreed that abortion must include both parents rights to terminate an unwanted pregnancy by most the respondents (69%) and that men and women must have equal rights when deciding on an abortion by 72% of the parents. Bryan (1991:23) maintains that
genetically the fetus is as much a part of the father as of the mother
and therefore they should have equal rights in deciding whether it
should live. Preston-Whyte (1988:17) says that both parents are
responsible for the fetus, since the fetus is only possible with both
parents and aborting the fetus should therefore be the decision of both
parents. The mother's decision concerning the fate of the fetus is
important but the father, by virtue of his relationship with the mother
and the fetus, is an influential factor (Myburgh & Poggenpoel, 1999).

2.15 A large percentage of the parents (86%) viewed contraception as the
responsibility of women only. This response suggests a totally male­
orientated view of life which means that Indian women are still bound
by traditional sexism - men perceive contraception as the responsibility
of women only. Although both parents are equally responsible for
deciding on the type of contraception the woman has the responsibility

2.16 and 2.18. Close to hundred percent of the parents (94%) agreed that
responsible parents seek help from family-planning clinics while 89%
agreed that planned parenthood implies the use of contraceptives.
Responsible parents consider the 'value of children', the 'value of
children' in this context refers to the parents subjective perceptions
concerning the economic costs (fiscal and time), non-economic costs
(anxiety over child's well-being) and non-economic benefits
(achievement of parental status) of children (Ferreira, 1990:21). The
concept 'value of children' is one of the most decisive factors which
motivates parents to seek help from family planning clinics. According
to Omram (1993:171) planned parenthood encompasses the following;

Spacing of children to allow breast feeding and safeguarding the
health of the mother and the child.

- Timing of pregnancies to occur at a safe age.

- Adjusting the number of children, not only to the family's needs, but also to its physical, financial, educational and child raising capabilities.

2.17 More than ninety percent of the respondents (92%) were in agreement that only well-trained staff should be employed in family planning clinics. Mostert and Hofmeyr (1988:1) maintain that providing high quality care is equally important to ensuring programme success and to maintaining the health and satisfaction of family planning clients. Keyser (1992:5) says quality care includes:

- providing complete and accurate information about contraceptive methods;

- ensuring that providers have technical skills necessary to safely provide suitable methods;

- ensuring that providers effectively communicate with clients in culturally appropriate ways;

- providing follow-up care to ensure continuity of services;

- providing an adequate logistic system to ensure continuity of supply; and

- providing convenient and acceptable services to clients.
### Responsible parenthood

**Table 12**  Frequency distribution according to certain characteristics of responsible parenthood

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question no.</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Uncertain</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>123</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>96%</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>90</td>
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<td>7</td>
<td>123</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>73%</td>
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<td>100%</td>
</tr>
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<td>6</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>123</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>95%</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>100%</td>
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<td>100%</td>
</tr>
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<td>14</td>
<td>123</td>
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<td>63%</td>
<td>26%</td>
<td>11%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
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<td>3.6</td>
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<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>123</td>
</tr>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>12%</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
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<td>7</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>123</td>
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<td>90%</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
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<td>3.10</td>
<td>108</td>
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<td>7</td>
<td>123</td>
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<td>7%</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
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</tr>
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<td>7%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>3</td>
<td>123</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>95%</td>
<td>3%</td>
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<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.16</td>
<td>114</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>123</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>93%</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.17</td>
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<td>5</td>
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<td>123</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>92%</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.18</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>123</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>96%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Average</strong></td>
<td>107</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>123</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>87%</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In Table 12 on average more than eighty percent of the respondents (87%) were in agreement with the questions aimed at establishing their perceptions regarding the criteria for responsible parenthood. As a result of the responses in Table 12 it can be concluded that the majority of parents are in agreement that responsible parenthood demands family planning (cf. 2.2).

The responses to the following questions in Table 12 are confirmation of the above statement:

3.1 Nearly one hundred percent of the parents (96%) agreed with the statement that responsible parenthood means sensible family planning (cf. 2.2.1).

3.2 Almost three quarter of the parents (73%) agreed that only married couples should have children. Setiloane (1990:46) claims that in modern society planned motherhood by a single girl is readily accepted in society. Le Roux (1992:59) points out that the necessity of having both parents for the balanced development of the child’s maturation. Providing a harmonious and healthy family environment does not rest with only one of the parents but is the outcome of a shared parenting task and responsible parenthood from both parents (cf. 2.3). Both parents should be accessible to the child, willing to communicate with and listen to the child, do things with the child and exemplify responsible adult behaviour (cf. 2.4).

3.3 The majority of parents (95%) were in agreement that every child in a family should be a wanted child. Unwanted children are in many instances problem children because they feel unwelcome, experience rejection and often suffer guilt feelings if their parents suffer financially (Hanna, 1991:367). According to Lindon and Lindon (1993:60) and
Scanzoni and Scanzoni (1988:67) research has proven that 'unwanted' children, when compared to 'wanted' children from similar backgrounds:

- have less stable family ties;
- are more anxious;
- are emotionally frustrated;
- are more irritable;
- have more physical problems;
- are less popular with peers; and
- are more likely to require psychiatric attention for serious behavioural problems.

3.4 A very high percentage of the parents (97%) agreed that family-planning means responsibility towards each child. Sprinthall, Sprinthall and Oja (1994:156) say parenthood is synonymous with the acceptance of responsibility for the procreation and rearing of one's child. Parents are adults who accept the responsibility to accompany the child to adulthood, to educate the child so that he can become a fully fledged member of their society (cf. 2.3).

3.5 Most of the respondents (63%) agreed that sexual activity outside the marriage is the main reason for unwanted pregnancies. Setiloane (1990:44) says that because of the high level of sexual activity among adolescents, as well as their tendency not to use contraceptives, it is not surprising that teenage pregnancies are both a national and international social problem that threatens to assume epidemic proportions. In South Africa 30% of all babies born each year are conceived by unmarried teenagers (Keyser, 1992:5).
3.6 More than ninety percent (93%) of the parents agreed that children are primarily the responsibility of their parents. Parents should have no uncertainties as to their educational responsibility as parents (cf. 3.5). Parents must be aware of their role and task, as well as the possibilities and limitations of their activities concerning the education of their children. Parents must realize the task of bringing up a child with loving support and acceptance (cf. 2.3.2). The child's welfare (physical, emotional, intellectual, volitional and spiritual) must be high priorities in their parents lives. Parents must be fully aware that their child has to be guided, protected, and safeguarded in a responsible manner (Du Plooy & Kilian, 1985:13).

3.7 Almost all the respondents (96%) agreed that they must be adequately prepared to meet the demands of parenthood. Parenthood implies in all circumstances changed attitudes from the parents (cf. 2.2.1). Parents have to realise that they are not living for each other but that they have and want to live for the child as well (Fogel & Nelson, 1988:199). Parenthood implies a whole series of attitudes, actions and inclinations that have to be acquired - the arrival of a child brings about a change in the every day family routine and family budget.

3.8 More than eighty percent of the parents (85%) are in agreement that their financial status must determine the number of children they should have. According to Du Plooy and Kilian (1993:13) responsible parenthood also includes having only as many children as a couple can financially afford. Parents with a large number of children may have to take on extra jobs to supplement their income to better provide for their families. Berns (1985:120) says this will often contribute to problems experienced by a family because parents will have less time for and with their children.
and 3.10. Ninety percent of the parents agreed that contraception is essential in planning the number of children in a family while 88% agreed that it is a prerequisite in the spacing of children. According to Charlish (1989:42) contraception is the most reliable method to determine the number of children a family plan to have. Spacing of children, on the other hand, is far more than just birth control. It is a way of life, the major objective of which is to improve the quality of life for everybody in the family. Research also showed that babies born after a birth interval of 24 months or less develop significantly poorer verbal and perceptive abilities (McDonald, 1988:24).

3.11 According to a very large percentage of the respondents (95%) responsible parents seek help if they experience problems in raising their child(ren). Lamanna and Riedman (1994:394) say a large number of parents feel they are inadequately equipped to effectively raise children. They are unable to develop their own child rearing strategies and certain elementary codes of conduct in their children regarding that which a modern society expects from them. According to Berns (1985:105) parents have to keep up with a rapidly changing society which makes it extremely difficult for them to give sufficient guidance and assistance to the child if they do not seek help (cf. 3.5.1).

3.12 and 3.13. More than three quarters of the respondents admitted that parents must freely discuss sexuality issues with their children, while 84% (3.14) agreed that boys and girls should be informed about contraceptives. It is easier and more natural for parents to introduce young children, at an age that they can understand it, to the correct and complete information about their bodies, conception, birth, menstruation, contraception, male and female organs and the like, rather than waiting for adolescence when it is likely that they have
received distorted information from peers or elsewhere (NED, 1990:24).

3.14 and 3.15. Although 58% of the respondents agreed that parents should insist that their teenage children (boys and girls) use contraceptives to prevent unwanted pregnancies, 22% were in disagreement, and 95% (3.15) agreed that children must be informed about the dangers about irresponsible sexual behaviour. Although sexuality education is a preventative approach with one of its primary objectives to encourage abstinence and responsible considerate behaviour among young people, it is a fact that when adolescents experience the force of sexual drives for the first time they are curious about putting them into practice (NED, 1990:2). They rarely ask for advice until some sexual experience has occurred - and often not until it is too late. Sexual experimentation (and promiscuity) will not necessarily be prevented by ensuring that young people know the facts of life (NED, 1990:2).

3.16 Most of the parents (93%) agreed that children should be educated to realise that sex has a rightful place only within the context of a committed marriage. Charlish (1989:67) says children must realise that outside a committed marriage the physical sex act is something which unavoidably and inevitably has ramifications in many other areas of life: social, emotional, psychological, etc. Through education and exemplification parents should assist the child to realise that sexuality is a value laden concept which recognises the centrality of respect for dignity of persons and therefore it should only take place within a marriage situation (NED, 199:2,24).
3.17 The majority of parents (93%) agreed that they must encourage their children to discuss sexual matters in a frank and honest manner with knowledgeable adults. Vrey (1990:172) states that children want authentic information presented frankly without moralising. Inadequate or faulty information can cause considerable uncertainty and doubt, leading to anxiety which can so occupy the youngsters mind that he cannot concentrate on his daily commitments (cf. 2.6.3 (1)).

3.18 A very high percentage of the respondents (96%) agreed that parents must inform children of the many pressures which can entice them to make bad choices related to sex. Gouws and Kruger (1994:130) give one of the reasons for the earlier and irresponsible engagement in sexual activities, by mainly adolescents, as peer group pressure. To be accepted by a particular peer group the adolescent is expected to conform to the activities of such a group. To avoid that their child’s conforming entails a contravention of social or parental norms, parents should support the information of the adolescent’s own identity and gradually assist him to become the person he should become with dignity, uniqueness, self-respect and his own principles (Van den Aardweg & Van den Aardweg, 1990:50)

4.3 SUMMARY

In this chapter the aim was to give order to the range of information provided by the parents in their answers to the questions in the questionnaire. Some of the data collected were of a demographic nature which enabled the researcher to construct a broad profile of the sample selected for the investigation. Data collected of parents’ perceptions regarding the different methods of family planning and certain characteristics of responsible parenthood, were organized in frequency distribution tables to simplify
statistical analysis. The responses to the questions were interpreted and the findings discussed.

The last chapter of this study will consist of a summary of the literature study and the empirical investigation and some relevant recommendations.
CHAPTER 5

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CHAPTER 6

SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

In this final chapter a summary of the previous chapters will be given. This will be followed by recommendations, criticism that emanates from this study and a final remark.

6.2 SUMMARY

6.2.1 Statement of the problem

The problem addressed in this study concerns the parents responsibility in family planning. Family planning represents one of the most important features of our society and the contemporary family is not left unscathed by this. Not only is family planning imperative to curb the population explosion, but also to have families with only as many children as parents can economically afford and emotionally cope with. This implies a healthy, normal family.

6.2.2 Responsible parenthood

Parents should have no uncertainties as to their educational responsibility as parents. They assume responsibility for a child’s existence from conception until he accepts responsibility for his own life as an individual. As the child’s primary educators parents are responsible for the adequate education at home which serves as a basis for formal school education.
Parents should be fully aware of their role, purpose and task, as well as the possibilities and limitations of their activities as regard the upbringing of their children. Responsible parenthood does not only imply adequate support, guidance and assistance towards adulthood, but also optimal realization of the child’s unique potential. This implies that the educative assistance to a child calls for its own specific way and no fixed pattern, formula or method can be prescribed to parents in regard of their responsibilities as parents.

Parenthood implies in all circumstances changed attitudes among the members of the family concerned, but more particular the parents. To the parents it implies a whole series of attitudes, actions and inclinations that have to be acquired and a change in the every day family routine and family budget. Parental roles also involve many different aspects factors and processes. The father’s part in fostering the child’s becoming is primarily a two fold one. Firstly it provides the child with security as breadwinner and principal disciplinarian as head of the family. Secondly it provides the child with an adult model so that he can identify with a member of his own sex, if a boy, and also learn at first hand about the behaviour and attitudes of the opposite sex, if a girl. Despite the changing role of fathers today, primary responsibility for the children still remains with the mother in our society, whether she stays at home or works outside the home. From childhood on, the daughter’s upbringing usually focuses on her future role as mother. The role the mother fulfils in the life of her child can be seen as the guarantor of safety and first educator.

The relationship between parent and child is unique in the sense that it is based on parental love and care, acceptance, trust, understanding and most important, ties of blood. The educational relationship between
parent and child is formed with the specific aim of educating the child. The quality of the relationship has a direct influence on the success or otherwise of the education act. The educational relationship is founded on the relationship of trust, understanding (knowing) and authority between parent and child.

Educative assistance is unique to both educator (parent) and educand (child). The assistance given by the educator in his intervention consists as much in opposing the child’s wilful marring of his own humanisation as in giving his blessing to whatever spontaneous acts are in the child’s own interests. Educative assistance embraces preparing the child for going out into the world, orientation regarding societal structures and the child’s acquisition of self-identity.

6.2.3 Planning of the research

This study utilized a questionnaire that was constructed by the researcher as the data source. The information sought was not available from any other source and had to be acquired directly from the respondents. When this situation exists, the most appropriate source of data is the questionnaire as it can easily be adapted to a variety of situations.

With the aim of administering the questionnaire to parents telephonic arrangements were made with the randomly selected Indian parents from the Kharwastan and Phoenix areas. The aim of the questionnaire was to obtain information regarding parents’ perception of their responsibility in family planning. The questions were formulated to establish a randomly selected sample of Indian parents’ views:

1. on the different methods of family planning; and
2. the criteria of responsible parenthood.
6.2.4 **Analysis and presentation of research data**

The purpose of this chapter was to discuss the data collected from the questionnaires completed by 123 Indian parents (father and mother) and to offer comments and interpretations on the findings. At the outset an explanation and description was provided as to the methods employed in the categorisation of responses and the analysis of the data. This was followed by an examination of the responses to the questions in the questionnaire.

6.2.5 **Aims of the study**

The researcher formulated specific aims (cf. 1.5) to determine the course of this study. These aims were realised through a literature study together with an empirical survey consisting of a structured questionnaire. On the basis of the aims and findings of this study certain recommendations were formulated.

6.3 **RECOMMENDATIONS**

6.3.1 **A planned family**

1) **Motivation**

*The purpose of family planning is to enable a couple to decide whether or not they want children and if they decide to have children, when and how many. Because it takes both a man and a woman to have a child, both should be equally involved in deciding whether or not to have a baby (cf. 4.2.12). The child, too, has rights. Every child should be a wanted child and well prepared for in advance. Every child has the right*
to be loved and cared for by responsible parents who must be able to provide for all the needs of the child (cf. 2.3). This will not only have financial implications, but also require quality time from the parents.

It is rather easy to have a child but it’s not so easy to adequately raise a child (cf. 2.2.2). With life changing from day to day and becoming increasingly difficult, especially with regards the economic situation in a family, an unplanned child makes the world of difference to a family’s lifestyle. Responsible parents want the best for their children - at least a better life than they themselves have had. This is, however, impossible to achieve without family planning. The raising of a child can only be adequately realised if parents are able to meet all the needs of the child (cf. 2.3). This implies that parents must only have as many children as they can afford and cope with.

(2) Recommendations

In order to assist parents to establish a realistic and positive parental attitude towards responsible family planning, the following recommendations are applicable:

- Politicians, health services, educationists and cultural leaders must promote and fund family planning programmes so that parents may not be burdened with more children than they can economically and emotionally support, and adequately assist in the actualization of their potentialities.

- Women’s leagues must vigorously promulgate in directing women to realise the important role family planning plays in establishing a healthy family.
An effective media based programme (television, radio, newspapers and popular magazines) on family planning must be encouraged and promoted by government in order to reach as many families as possible.

Family planning clinics must be readily accessible to all families. Adequately trained staff should be employed in these clinics and be able to assist prospective parents with the following:

- Answers to a client’s personal concerns about family planning.
- Assessment of a client’s general health, reproductive history, etc. to safely provide suitable contraceptive methods.
- Selection of an appropriate family planning method in giving the client an overview of the properties of available methods.
- Assessment of any special needs of clients.
- Factual information to correct misperceptions about specific methods.

6.3.2 Parent education

Parent education is instruction to parents or future parents regarding the raising of children. Mothers and fathers raise children partly by recalling
how they themselves were brought up and by trial and error. They also learn some techniques of parenting by watching their family and friends, passers-by and characters in television dramas. This is called "informal parent education". Many parents may supplement this informal process with formal parent education which consists of activities designed to teach parenting skills. Several factors contributed to the urgent need for parent education during the 1900s. Family life has become increasingly diverse because of changes in society which also give rise to a dynamic pattern in child raising (cf. 2.2.2). This often requires child-raising skills uncommon to traditional methods known by parents. Research in psychology, educational psychology and other related sciences have inspired interest in applying the resulting knowledge to child care. This can be accomplished by means of parent education.

(2) Recommendations

In order to enable parents to obtain skills suitable for adequate child rearing in a modern, more demanding and dynamic society the following recommendations are made:

- Government must introduce media-based parent education programmes in order to reach as many people as possible through various media (books, magazines, newspapers, radio and television).

- The following topics can be addressed through media-based parent education programmes in the form of radio discussions, television programs, articles in magazines or books:
Parenting skills, family life and parenthood in single and normal families can be offered.

Different approaches to child-rearing. A popular approach is "transactional analysis" in which parents learn to analyze relationships.

Methods to teach parents and children to express their feelings and to listen to each other.

Experts can help parents improve their children's intellectual ability. Parents are showed how to use books, toys and every day household activities to promote the child’s learning skills.

6.3.4 Further research

(1) Motivation

The research covered only Indian families with both biological parents present. The possibility exists that the perceptions of parents from other culture groups and different family patterns (single-parent, stepfamilies or blended families) with regard to their responsibility in family planning, may be different. The most common stepfamily or blended (reconstituted) family consists of a mother, her children and a stepfather or a father and stepmother and her children (Papalia & Olds, 1992:294).

(2) Recommendation

It is recommended that a similar study of parents’ perception concerning
their responsibility in family planning be conducted in other culture groups
as well as single-parent and blended families. Different family patterns
and cultures may produce some dissimilarities in reported data. Similarities in the results would increase the validity of this study's
findings.

6.4 CRITICISM

Criticism that emanates from this study include the following:

- It can be presumed that many of the parents who completed the questionnaire drew their perceptions regarding their responsibility from the media which always prescribe to the appropriate parental responsibilities in family planning and raising of the child. The probability therefore exists that the majority of parents indicated what is theoretical to their responsibility as parents and not what they practice in their own educational endeavour.

- The research sample comprises only of parents living in a sub-urban and urban area. Dissimilar responses might have been elicited from parents living in rural areas where family life is still very traditional.

- Only families with both biological parents present were included in the sample. Different views about family planning as responsible parenthood might have been expressed by other family pattern, for example single-parent or blended families.
6.5 **FINAL REMARK**

Responsible and informed parenthood are the unconditional desire of parents to provide a caring home for their children. It also includes family planning so that couples have only as many children as they can emotionally support and financially afford. It is trusted that this study will persuade parents preparing for parenthood to include family planning in their plans. Modern parenthood is too demanding and complex a task to be performed well merely because we all were once children ourselves. It is also hoped that the recommendations in this study will be implemented and contribute to effective family planning programmes which will be accessible to most couples.
LIST OF SOURCES


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APPENDIX A
QUESTIONNAIRE

Family Planning as Responsible Parenthood

Miss S Naidoo
[Student No 953665]
Dear Parent

QUESTIONNAIRE: FAMILY PLANNING AS RESPONSIBLE PARENTHOOD

At present I am engaged in a research project at the University of Zululand under the guidance of Professor G. Urbani and Dr M.S. Vos. The research is concerned with the Responsibility of parents concerning family planning.

As one of the selected respondents, I have taken the liberty of writing to you in order to seek your assistance in acquiring information about your experiences relating to the research.

CONFIDENTIALITY

All information will be regarded as STRICTLY CONFIDENTIAL, and no personal details of any parent / respondent will be mentioned in the findings, nor will any of the results be related to any particular home, family or school.

Thank you for your co-operation.

Yours sincerely

S NAIDOO (Miss)
INSTRUCTIONS TO THE RESPONDENT / PARENT

1. Please read through each statement carefully before giving your opinion.
2. Please make sure that you do not omit a question, or skip a page.
3. Please be frank when giving your opinion.
4. Please return the questionnaire after completion.

Kindly answer all the questions by supplying the requested information in writing, or by making a cross (X) in the appropriate block.

1 SECTION ONE: BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

1.1 Age of respondents

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<td>61 and over</td>
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</table>
1.2 **Home language of respondent**

- Hindi
- Urdu
- Gugerati
- Tamil
- Telegu
- English

Other (please specify)

1.3 **Religious denomination of respondent**

- Islam
- Hinduism
- Sai Baba Movement
- Hare Krishna Movement
- Buddhism
- Sheikhism
- Catholic
- Christian
- Bethesda
- Jehova Witness

Other (please specify)
1.4 Respondent's occupation

Father

Mother

1.5 Educational level of respondent

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<td>Degree + Diploma</td>
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1.6 Total number of children in the family

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<th>7</th>
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<th>9</th>
<th>10</th>
<th>More than 10</th>
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1.7 Total number of school-going children in the family

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### 1.8 Age and gender of children

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### 1.9 Do you live in your:

- Own house / flat? [ ]
- Rented house / flat? [ ]
- With parents (own or in-laws)? [ ]
- With relatives? [ ]
- Other (please specify)

### 1.10 Other residents in the home

- Grandparents [ ]
- Cousins [ ]
- Aunts [ ]
- Uncles [ ]
- Boarders [ ]
- Other (please specify)

### 1.11 After-school care

- Mother [ ]
- Father [ ]
- Granny [ ]
- Aunty [ ]
- Care centre [ ]
- Other (please specify)
SECTION 2

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<th>Statement</th>
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<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Uncertain</th>
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<tr>
<td>2.1 Family-planning clinics must be easily accessible to everybody</td>
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<tr>
<td>2.2 Parents should be knowledgeable about methods of contraception</td>
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<tr>
<td>2.3 Religion should not prejudice the right to use contraceptives</td>
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<tr>
<td>2.4 Every woman should have access to contraception</td>
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<tr>
<td>2.5 Sterilization of women is the most efficient way of preventing unwanted pregnancies</td>
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<tr>
<td>2.6 Sterilization (vasectomy) of men is the best method to prevent unwanted pregnancies</td>
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<td>2.7 Contraception enables women to control the size of their family</td>
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<td>2.8 Unwanted pregnancies can be prevented by contraceptives</td>
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<tr>
<td>2.9 The number of children in a family should be determined by legislation</td>
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<tr>
<td>2.10 Abortion is morally acceptable in unwanted pregnancies</td>
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<tr>
<td>2.11 Abortion is an alternative to contraception</td>
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<tr>
<td>2.12 Abortion is a fundamental right of women to control the size of their family</td>
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<tr>
<td>2.13 Abortion must include both parents’ rights to terminate an unwanted pregnancy</td>
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<tr>
<td>2.14 Men and women must have equal rights when deciding on an abortion</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>Uncertain</td>
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<tr>
<td>2.15 Contraception is the responsibility of women only</td>
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<td>2.16 Responsible parents must seek help from family-planning clinics</td>
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<td>2.17 Only well-trained staff should be employed in family planning clinics</td>
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<tr>
<td>2.18 Planned parenthood implies the use of contraceptives</td>
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SECTION 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>3.1 Responsible parenthood means sensible family-planning</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Uncertain</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3.2 Only married couples ought to have children</td>
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<td>3.3 Every child should be a <em>wanted</em> child</td>
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<td>3.4 Family-planning means responsibility towards each child</td>
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<td>3.5 Sexual activity outside marriage is the main reason for unwanted pregnancies</td>
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<td>3.6 Children are primarily the responsibility of parents</td>
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<td>3.7 Parents must be adequately prepared to meet the demands of parenthood</td>
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<td>3.8 The financial status of parents must determine the number of children they should have</td>
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<tr>
<td>3.9 Contraception is essential in planning the number of children in a family</td>
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<tr>
<td>3.10 Family-planning is a prerequisite in the <em>spacing</em> of children</td>
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<tr>
<td>3.11 Responsible parents seek help if they experience problems in raising their child(ren)</td>
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<td>3.12 Parents must freely discuss sexuality issues with their children</td>
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<td>3.13 Boys and girls should be informed about contraceptives</td>
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<td>3.14 Parents should insist that their teenage children (boys and girls) use contraceptives to prevent unwanted pregnancies</td>
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<td>3.15 Parents must inform their children about the dangers of irresponsible sexual behaviour</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Agree</td>
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<td>3.16</td>
<td>Children should be educated to realise that sex has a rightful place only within the context of a committed marriage</td>
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<td>3.17</td>
<td>Parents must encourage children to discuss sexual matters in a frank and honest manner with knowledgeable adults</td>
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<tr>
<td>3.18</td>
<td>Parents must inform children of the many pressures which can entice them to make bad choices related to sex</td>
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