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Mixed methods investigation of parents' and teachers' perspectives of socially acceptable and unacceptable behaviours at home and school of early childhood in Riyadh city,

Saudi Arabia

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Abstract

People perceive children's behaviour in many ways based on their own socio-cultural beliefs. Research in western countries has looked at behavioural problems from a psychological/ scientific perspective. However, perception of what kind of behaviour is unacceptable depends significantly on the socio-cultural context of a country. In this regard, the current study investigated the perspective of teachers and parents on children's behaviour in early childhood, both at school and home to ascertain what constitutes socially acceptable behaviour in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia.

This study aimed to investigate the parents' and teachers' perception of socially acceptable and unacceptable behaviours of pre-school children in Saudi Arabia. The study employed a mixed methods approach and used questionnaires and focus groups as data collection instruments. Data revealed that disobedient behaviour is socially unacceptable in the Saudi Arabian society because of the culture and moral standards that influence behaviours. The high-power distance culture of Saudi Arabia values authority and is strictly against acts of disobedience towards those who are perceived to have a higher social status.

This research finds that parents' perception of socially acceptable behaviour among pre-school children is heavily influenced by Saudi culture and other factors, such as whether the family is a single-child or multiple-child family. The education, knowledge and experience of the parents, as well as their age, somewhat affects their perception of socially acceptable behaviour in Saudi Arabia. This research also finds that the perception of teachers and parents on socially unacceptable behaviour in pre-school children differs in certain matters, with parents generally presenting a more liberal view than the teachers. These differences stem from several factors, such as different kind of relationships that these individuals have with the children, the environment in which they observe the children and their professional qualification and experience in dealing with such behaviour.

Contents

List of tables

List of figures

Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1 Introduction

Many researchershave looked at social behaviours and identified several different types. One of the problems about socially acceptable/unacceptable behaviour is the difference in individual perception of what constitutes socially acceptable behaviour. Not all individuals may perceive socially acceptable or unacceptable behaviour in early childhood in a similar manner. For example, while one person may consider a child's behaviour as disruptive, another person may perceive it as being excited or playful.

Different researchers have looked at the issue of socially unacceptable behaviour from the perspective of different group of individuals. For example, Sun and Shek (2011) and Shatzer et al. (2009) looked at the problem from the perspective of the teachers while Rehman and Sadruddin (2012) looked at the socially unacceptable behaviour from the parents' perspective. However, none of the researchers have looked at comparing the perspectives of different groups of individuals. Consequently, none of the researchers have looked at whether the perspective of different groups of individuals differs from each other.

To tackle socially unacceptable behaviour, it is essential to ensure that it isperceived as such by all relevant partiesin order to bring consistency to how they are addressed. Traditionally, for children's behaviour, researchers have focused mainly on quantitative methodologies (Pastor, Reuben and Duran, 2012; Prakash, Mitra and Prabhu, 2008). From a different perspective much literature has been presented to explain in detail the challenges concerning unacceptable behaviour. While some authors have looked at the causes of behavioural problems, others have looked at diagnosis and intervention (Rehman and Sadruddin, 2012; Caspi, 2011; Lukes and Poncelet, 2011; Hirschi and Wilkinson, 2010; Foster, Patricia and Biglan, 2009; Martin and Fabes, 2009; McPhee, Alastair and Craig, 2009; Suitor, Sechrist and Plikuhn, 2009). There are also several sub-streams within these themes. For example, researchers looking at the causes of children's social behaviour have looked at familial factors (Suitor, Sechrist and Plikuhn, 2009; Cunningham and Thornton, 2006), socio-economic factors (Chowdry et al., 2010), gender (Cunningham, 2001), upbringing (Yekta,

2011; Caspi, 2011), and cultural background and ethnicity (Rehman and Sadruddin, 2012; Vazsonyi et al. 2010; Isanski and West, 2009).

Despite this extensive research on the subject there remains some confusion over what is the meaning of the term "behaviour", especially in the context of pre-school children. Pre-school children are still beginning to learn to interact with their social environment; hence, they do not have the necessary social skills (Martin and Fabes, 2009; Shatzer et al. 2009). However, their behaviour and learning at the pre-school stage has a significant bearing on their psycho-social development (Swin and Watson, 2011). It is thus essential to study social behaviours in pre-school children. Furthermore, the perception of behaviour is contextual and mainly influenced by aspects of socio-cultural context, education and demographics. Certain behaviours may be considered socially unacceptable in one community, but not in another (Rehman and Sadruddin, 2012). Hence, it is essential to understand the context in which they are perceived. Adults' perception of children's behaviour characteristics and thresholds is complex; moreover, identifying these characteristics and thresholds to influence children's development, interpreting and perceiving behaviour characteristics and thresholds can be even more complex (Martin and Fabes, 2009). For that reason, children's actions may seem socially unacceptable to teachers and governments, but not to parents. In other words, the extent to which we address these problems will depend on how we understand and embrace these issues (Achenbach, 1991a) and depend upon their acceptability and tolerability among the advocates of both, with the social order precedent over social culture and vice-versa (Kashan et al., 1987).

Researchers, for example Yekta (2011), are calling for attention to be paid to developing a consistent approach to the identification of social behaviours at the pre-school stage in order to minimise the development of social-psychological behavioural problems. This consistency is achievable by investigating individuals' perspectives about what constitutes behaviour to be acceptable or unacceptable within a society. Pre-school children interact with two adult groups on a regular basis - parents and teachers. This means that the perspectives of these adults are critical for us to develop a common understanding of what constitutes social behaviours (Achenbach, 1991b, 1991c). One final, but important, point of note is that this thesis does not investigate or consider specific issues with regards to special educational or behavioural needs, but focuses on what are perceived to be socially acceptable and unacceptable behaviours in the under-researched field of early childhood in Saudi Arabia.

1.2 Research aims and objectives

The primary aim of this research is to investigate parents' and teachers' perspectives of socially acceptable or unacceptable behaviour in early childhood in the city of Riyadh in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. The research aims are:

- *To identify parents' perspectives of what is socially acceptable or unacceptable behaviour at home and school;*
- *To identify teachers' perspectives of what is socially acceptable or unacceptable behaviour at school.*

These aims will be achieved through the following objectives:

- **Objective 1:** To explore parents' perspectives and, especially, to capture the fathers' voices concerning what they perceive as acceptable or unacceptable social behaviour among pre-school children;
- **Objective 2:** To explore teachers' perspectives concerning acceptable or unacceptable social behaviours among pre-school children;
- **Objective 3:** To investigate the differences and similarities in parents' and teachers' perspectives concerning acceptable and unacceptablesocialbehaviours among pre-school children;
- **Objective 4:** To identify the reasons for differences and similarities in parents' and teachers' perspectives concerning socially acceptable and unacceptable social behaviours among pre-school children.

Objectives 1-3 are focused on exploring and identifying socially acceptable and unacceptable social behaviours among pre-school children from parents' and teacher's perspectives; whilst Objective 4 is to look for differences and similarities in views among parents and teachers.

In this introductory chapter the culture of Saudi Arabia is presented to guide the reader into the daily life of Saudis that include traditional and religious practices, gender and family social values and the state, its structure and laws (Abar, Carter, andWinsler, 2009; Buchele, 2010). It discusses various aspects such as the evidence from prior research on how adults

perceive social behaviours among pre-school children and the consequences of those perceptions. This chapter also provides the rationale for this research, including the reasons for conducting the research in the context of Saudi Arabia. Finally, this chapter provides a short overview of the methodology to be adopted in this research.

1.3 Society and Culture

The Saudi culture is a typical middle-eastern culture. It is traditional and family oriented, with religious heritage playing a major role in shaping many social conventions (Abar, 2009). Generosity and hospitality are two traits that are strongly associated with the Saudi culture. They are highly encouraged and are a source of pride to those characterised by them. The Saudi culture could be perceived as conservative, or even strict, by western cultures and such a perception is not entirely false. A factor such as women not being allowed to drive does not help in altering such conceptions. Saudis consider themselves to offer profound warmth towards guests, although this behaviour if often met with doubt as there is a great deal of suspicion internationally towards Saudi Arabia. One reason for this could be the conservative nature of the Saudi community, which allows limited access for international media, travellers and researchers. This stand over the years has allowed the currently projected image of Saudi Arabia as congealing and stereotypical, even though the availability and access of travellers and researchers and promotional media on the issue has slightly improved.

According to Islam, many good deeds existed before the Revelation and, in most cases, what is socially acceptable is compliant to Islamic rules. Along with traditions, Islam has a great effect on Saudi culture and society. People often refer to it in their daily lives and demonstrate it in the way they act and interact with others. Islam offers teachings and advice on most aspects of life, such as eating habits, offering congratulations and condolences, handling anger and upbringing. Charity is one of the most important deeds, both in the community and in Islam. The government provides for and supports charity institutions by offering services to facilitate donating. Such teachings are often taught and encouraged in schools. For example, a pre-school I visited and collected data from provides one child with a meal to give away to someone in need every week and asks parents to take a picture of the

child when doing the deed. The photograph is then displayed in the class to develop a sense of giving and compassion in children.

1.3.1 Family Life and Offspring

The most common form of marriage in Saudi Arabia is arranged marriage. People who marry for love are in the minority, but the number has been slowly increasing. Arranged marriages normally go through several stages (Long, 2005). The man and woman see and talk to each other and get to know one another under the consent and knowledge of their families. The marriage is usually complete with the consent of the couple to be married. Polygamy exists in Saudi Arabia, but most modern Saudi families are monogamous.

Conceiving a child is one of the main reasons for getting married in Saudi Arabia. Although some couples in other cultures choose to marry and not have children, it is very unlikely for a Saudi couple. Families used to be relatively large, possibly because there is a low cost of living, free education and medical care. Recently, however, the number of children has become noticeably fewer. Upbringing used to be traditional and simple. Children are now taught in basic traditional schools, where the main teaching is to enable them to distinguish between wrong and right in the light of Islam. Recently, awareness of proper upbringing has risen, especially with the flood of information in the media. Parents now adopt modern means of discipline and realise the importance of quality time with their children.

Family relations are highly valued in Saudi Arabia. Children are not expected to leave home before marriage, even as adults, and very few live independently. Parents receive a great deal of respect and obedience. Close family ties are not restricted to immediate family and members of the extended family are usually a part of a person's life, usually meeting and visiting one another regularly. Such a relationship extends to children, as cousins of the same age normally visit each other and go on play dates. Some families live with their grandparents and this is encouraged by the Saudi society for their culture to be preserved.

Nurseries and day care are not very common in Saudi Arabia due to the abundance of live-in housekeepers and nannies which, in turn, eliminates the need for nurseries, even in the case of two working parents. Children are not always able to enjoy outdoor activities considering

the harsh weather conditions. Parks and playgrounds become crowded with children during the times of the year when temperatures are tolerable. Recreational facilities for children, on the other hand, are noticeably growing and attendance is quite high. These centres include children's gymnasiums, summer camps, ballet classes, martial arts and other recreational activities.

1.3.2 Caregiver

In Saudi culture the only recognised caregiver is the parent. However, most families employ nannies to help with toddlers, food preparation and involvement in cleaning and dressing the child. Not many of the nannies are Saudi and may not speak fluent Arabic. In recent years, the subject of nannies has preoccupied Saudi public opinion over their worthiness and the danger to children and society. Thus, children in Saudi Arabia grow up not only being exposed to their own culture, but also that of others. Some parents tend to ignore behaviour that is not labelled according to the Saudi context but, instead, censure their children in the hope they stay within. The presence of non-Saudi children – ex-patriot families living in Saudi - born and raised in Saudi are not dissimilar to native children. The Islamic culture promotes respect and the high opinion of teachers as being equal to that of parents. The impact of a good teacher/parent relationship that is based on religion, cultural and social relationship to improve child behaviour has naturally contributed to Saudi children's good behaviour.

1.4 Education System in Saudi Arabia

The education system in Saudi Arabia is divided into five categories which are based on: Age group, education system and the stages (the number of years) which studies take to complete. Within Saudi Arabia, general education is made up of kindergarten, six years of elementary or primary schooling, followed by three years in each of intermediate and high school (Royal Embassy of Saudi Arabia, London, 2012b). Each year, end of year matriculation examinations take place at the elementary, intermediate and secondary levels which must be passed for students to move from one grade to another. Failure to pass in any subject area leads to a further additional supplementary examination, with the additional examinations to

be passed before the new school year or the individual concerned will be held back to repeat the year. The curriculum is derived by a set of principles that govern provision for schools in the Kingdom. They are diverse and include aspects such as flexibility, freedom, play, skills and knowledge, respect and good relationships and human interaction (International Labour Conference, 2007; Al-Turaiqi, 2008).

Table 1 General Education in Saudi Arabia

Stages	Age Group	Education system
Kindergarten	3-6	Not a prerequisite to next stage
Elementary	6-12	Prerequisite to next stage
Intermediate	12-15	Prerequisite to next stage
Secondary	15-19	Prerequisite to next stage
Higher Education	19-	Prerequisite to next stage

Source: (Al-Jadidi, 2012)

1.4.1 Kindergarten

Kindergarten in Saudi Arabia is not a prerequisite to the next stage which is elementary school, but is important as a preparation stage for pre-school education or elementary education. The kindergarten preliminary age is flexible; children in kindergarten are typically five or six years old and there are no fixed rules as to when a child must join (Headley, 1965). Children up to the age of three are allowed to proceed to the pre-school stage in order to continue to learn to normalise their emotions and social behaviours. However, there are rules for when a child needs to go to primary school at age seven. Kindergarten children have similar behavioural progressive qualities that differentiate them at age five to six. Nonetheless, like other children in many ways they have qualities that make them distinctive individuals. Strong evidence supports the notion that good early childhood education and behaviour achievement continues to later stages, without the need for social interventions (Reynolds et al, 2001; Clare et al, 2002; Coard et al, 2004). For example, children with the desire and skills for learning languages continue to do so as they get older. In kindergarten in general children have remarkable aptitude to learning languages, showing

natural skills for acquiring new expressions. However, ultimately, only a few become good linguists (Reynolds et al, 2001). What children know when they enter kindergarten helps determine their success in school and what and how they are taught (Gorey, 2001). A study revealed that there was no authorised curriculum prior to 1994 for kindergarten children's education in Saudi Arabia (Samadi and Marwa, 1991). Kindergarten and pre-school institutions have followed their own initiatives to create their own curriculum based on their own individual teaching method.

1.4.1.1 Pre-school Education Curriculum for Children in Saudi Arabia (NDC)

This initial phase in the education of children is not one which is required to be eligible for enrolment in elementary education and it does not form part of the formal education system within the Kingdom. The main objectives of provision at this stage of a child's development are according to the following: Children's instincts must be nurtured whilst looking after their personal, social, emotional and physical growth through the creation of a family-friendly environment which conforms to the requirements of Islam; children are made familiar with a group-learning environment that prepares them for school life by moving away from self-centredness to joint learning experiences with their peers; children are taught basic skills which conform to their needs and their environment; children are encouraged to develop their management of thinking, allowing their personal skills to come to the fore; children are protected against potential risks and are monitored in order to tackle early signs of behavioural or learning problems (UNESCO, 2007; UNESCO, 2010/11).

Pre-schools were first introduced in Saudi Arabia in Jeddah city in 1965. By 1998, there were approximately 332 PGE government pre-schools, as well as 425 private pre-schools (International Labour Conference, 2007). This rose further to 962 kindergartens catering for 93,942 children (UNESCO, 2007). According to UNESCO (2010/11) this figure then rose to 1,521 kindergartens looking after the needs of 106,301 children in 2009/10. Government funded kindergartens adopt an Islamic-based approach to the education of children (Miller, 1996), which ensures that they can develop appropriate social and intellectual skills. However, it must be noted that UNESCO and the Arab Gulf Programme for the United Nations (AGFUND) have worked in conjunction on projects that focus on the development of pre-school provision that relies on current notions about child development processes

(Ruff andRothbart, 1996). This has led to the influence of foreign systems on children and, consequently, the way in which they socialise with each other (Harrison and Dye, 2008). The mode of curricula development in Saudi Arabia is designed such that all pupils can acquire proper skills that will enhance their social, psychomotor and behavioural skills (Quarenghi, 2011), along with holistic development which is in harmony with their preferred learning styles and creative development (Al-Ameel, 2004).

The curriculum which has been developed is referred to as 'The Newly Developed Curriculum for Early Childhood Education' (NDC) or 'The Self-Learning Curriculum'. This curriculum was established by the General Presidency of Girls' Education and became the official vehicle for early childhood education in the Kingdom in 1994. This curriculum includes an interactive session with pupils to give them a self-learning perspective (Samadi and Marwa, 1991 in Al-Ameel, 2004) in a way that children can acquire the relevant skills and attributes. This is the latest study conducted on early childhood education. The inclusion of this curriculum is to ensure that children can identify their skills and talents, thus enabling them to nurture and develop them successfully (Neighbour, 2009). Although this is the official curriculum for the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia for pre-school children, it is only properly utilised in government schools. Its application in private establishments is varied - some choose not to apply it, some choose to apply it, but do so poorly, whilst others apply the NDC adding more academic activities using didactic teaching methods (Al-Ameel, 2004). These are also the latest records which are important to this research.

The debate about which educational approach to apply is one which continues within the Kingdom. There are those members of the teaching profession and parents who are reluctant to move away from traditional direct authoritarian teaching methods, as they believe that the active learning approach will not enable their children to reach their goals and expectations, as well as them not being in control of their child's learning (Al-Ameel, 2004). It is evident that there is a lack of appreciation for the importance of children's holistic development, particularly in terms of their personal, social and emotional needs. There is also a lack of recognition of the importance of learning through play, which risks reducing motivation to learn by stifling their natural development through creative interaction with their environment (Al-Ameel, 2004). This point is reinforced in Marcon's (1999) study which concludes that a child-initiated approach to pre-schooling, as opposed to either academically-directed or a combination approach, produces children who have a greater grasp of basic skills at the start

of their elementary education. Katz (1999) also states that there is a tendency to place greater curriculum demands on younger children, which reduces the traditional importance given to play as a means for the development and maturation of young children.

1.4.2 Elementary Education

Education is free for all Saudi citizens and is provided by the government. Elementary schools within this phase are divided into six levels. Students begin this part of their education at six years of age and continue to the age of 12, and children must complete each level successfully to progress to the next level. The curriculum focuses on the Arabic language and the Muslim religion, with subjects such as Science, Mathematics, Geography and History being of lesser concern. Student assessment consists of a term-based examination usually arranged by each individual school. In addition to government schools there are a sizeable number of privately-owned elementary schools amounting to about 5 per cent of the schools in the Kingdom at this stage. Private schools are compelled to use, apply and adhere to the same government developed curricula and examination system used in public schools. The Ministry of Education is the sole employer ofheadteachersandteaching staff in public schools. Concerning private schools, the Ministry appoints the headteachers, whilst the school managers can hire suitably certified teachers directly. To boost the number of teachers the Ministry of Education provides free and sponsored teacher training programmes to improve the quality of elementary school education.

Table 2: Girls study Feminine Education in place of Physical Education

Subjects	Hours Per Week					
	First Grade	Second Grade	Third Grade	Fourth Grade	Fifth Grade	Sixth Grade
Islamic Studies	9	9	9	9	9	9
Arabic Studies	12	9	9	9	8	8
Social Studies	0	0	0	2	2	2
Science	1	2	2	2	3	3
Mathematics	2	4	4	5	5	5
Art Education	2	2	2	1	1	1

Physical	2	2	2	2	2	2
Total Hours	28	28	28	31	31	31

1.4.3 Intermediate Education

Before pupils are able to move on to intermediate education they must pass their Sixth Grade examinations. This phase of education caters for young people between the ages of 12 and 15. In addition to further study of the Arabic language and Islamic studies, students embark upon an education programme of specific courses which prepare students for future life. Private schools are compelled to use, apply and adhere to the same curricula of the Ministry of Education assessment scheme for public schools.

Table 3 Intermediate Education Subjects Studied (Boys)

Subjects	Hours Per Week		
	First Grade	Second Grade	Third Grade
Islamic Studies	8	8	8
Arabic Studies	6	6	6
English	4	4	4
Science	4	4	4
Mathematics	4	4	4
Art Education	2	2	2
Physical Education	1	1	1
History	2	2	2
Geography	2	2	2
Total Hours (Boys)	33	33	33

Source: (Al Sanabl et al. 1998, p.198 in Al-Abdulkareem,n.d. p. 22)

Having completed the Third Grade of intermediate education by passing the requisite examinations, pupils are awarded the Intermediate School Certificate (Harrison and Dye, 2008) and can take one of three paths: Attendance at a secondary school; embarkation upon vocational education; or attendance at a Quranic school.

1.4.4 Secondary Education

This phase of education caters for pupils between 15 and 19 years of age. For the duration of the first year of secondary education students follow a common general curriculum consisting of Arabic, Biology, Chemistry, English, Mathematics, Home Economics, Physical Education and Religious Education.   Pupils then select one of three areas of further study for the remaining two years - Administration and Social Science, Natural Science, or Shariah and Arabic studies (UNESCO, 2010/11). Individual students who show promise, through having maintained good academic grades in the physical sciences and mathematics, are encouraged to follow the natural sciences programme at the commencement of the Eleventh Grade. The school year comprises of two semesters, each of 20 weeks, and includes a two weeks examination period. Students' study time during a week varies between 26 and 33 periods of 45 minutes depending upon the grade levels and the subjects being studied. The end goal is for each student to pass their individual subject examinations and complete the necessary credits to secure a Secondary School Certificate of Studies (Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, 2006).

Vocational and technical education are extremely important in the Kingdom, as having such skills is deemed "a critical factor in increasing productivity and staying apace with the rapid technological developments sweeping the international business world" (Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, 2006, p. 4). Students have the choice of three areas - Agriculture, Commerce and Industry - with the courses of study lasting for three years. Vocational training is also provided by the government of Saudi Arabia through the creation of vocational centres which create over three million jobs, having the effect of reducing the Kingdom's dependence on oil revenues. Training in these centres covers skills such as metal processing, manufacturing and the automotive industry.

The Qur'an School provides individuals with the opportunity to concentrate on Islamic studies to prepare them for specialising in Islamic law. Students, primarily male, are provided with the opportunity to immerse themselves in Islamic and Arabic studies through using the curriculum time normally allotted within the secondary curriculum for further religious studies (Al Salloom, 1991, p. 43 in Al-Abdulkareem, n.d., p. 24). On successful completion of secondary curriculum studies, students are eligible to enter higher education institutions.

1.4.5 Higher Education

This phase of education is like that of the United States, except it has been modified to conform to Islamic systems, customs and traditions. It has undergone great expansion in the modern era, with 24 public universities as well as eight private universities being built to accommodate graduate study programmes. Higher education in Saudi Arabia has gone through major changes to improve qualities and results, with the slogan "...achieve 'world-class' standards" (Saha, 2015, p. 5). To achieve this, 160 billion US dollars has been invested into the higher education budget (Saha, 2015).

Alkhazim (2003) stresses inconsistency surrounding research and development and suggests that higher education faces up to three key issues: resources, limitation of places and quality. As a result, some processes have been developed to alleviate the strain on Saudi's higher education system. Some of these measures include private colleges, post-secondary diploma colleges, vocational training institutes and private universities (Alkhazim, 2003). To promote higher education the government has made available a large budget to cover large programmes that include grants for Master's and Doctoral degrees across various subjects. The finding takes account of Islamic Studies, Social Sciences and Humanities, Education, Economics, Natural Sciences and Administration (United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organisation [UNESCO], 2007), as well as that of Engineering and Medicine which take six years to complete (Rosenfeld and Bluestone, 2003).

1.4.6 Women Recruitment and Education

Job opportunities for women have been growing immensely. Recently, positions have openedforwomen in several sectors and institutions in an attempt by the government to achieve a form of gender equality. The government has made many efforts to expand occupational opportunities for women by offering financial support to institutions that hire women. Consequently, workplaces have been encouraged to recruit female employees and women now work in different occupations in most sectors. In 2011, King Abdullah endeavoured to grant women a larger role in society by allowing female suffrage and the right to run in municipal elections. In 2015, and for the first time, women took their seats in Majlis Al Shura, changing the very structure of the government itself, enabling women to be heard, take actions and address women-related issues and concerns.

The interest in creating a population of female working power followed a bigger interest in womens' education. In addition, attention has been paid to facilities and services of womens' educational institutions with the opening of many new female schools and universities, some of which are competing on an international level. Princess Norah University, which is the institution I belong to as a researcher, is the largest female university worldwide, including a huge campus, faculty residences, recreational facilities and gymnasium for students and faculty.

1.4.7 Gender Segregation

The Saudi community is gender-segregated. This segregation is complete, such as in schools, or partial such as in restaurants and coffee shops. These places are normally divided into two sections: Families and Singles, or Men Only. Public places, such as malls and parks are not segregated.

The female recruitment movement has not only offered job opportunities for women, but has also changed the nature of the relationship between men and women and slightly pushed the boundaries between male and female workers. The concept of cross-gender relationships was not previously common. However, recently, co-workers and employers from the opposite sex have become almost inevitable, which have made relationships less formal. Consequently, cross-gender professional relationships have gained understanding and received acceptance.

Relationships of an intimate nature, on the other hand, are still not acceptable or openly acknowledged. Nevertheless, younger generations have a different attitude towards romantic relationships which is contrary to previously held opinions where severe segregation practices were dominant. Recently, younger generations seem to prefer marrying for love and choosing their partners. The increase in divorce rates led to the spread of single parents (Bilgeand Kaufman, 1983; Aljazeera.net, 2017). Laws on custody are not strictly applied and some parents have agreement towards unofficial shared custody, while in other families one parent, usually the mother, takes full responsibility of the children. Adultery, or having intercourse out of wedlock, is one of the biggest taboos and completely unacceptable both in

Islam and the Saudi community and is punishable by the law. Therefore, conceiving child from such a relationship is not an option.

1.4.8 Socially Acceptable and Unacceptable Social Behaviour

The gender segregated society in Saudi Arabia also has the well-defined difference between the expectations from sons and daughters. The society has different traditional, cultural and religious expectations from sons and daughters that also affect the perspective of parents towards behavioural expectation from children (Nourani, 1999). Early children rearing environment and parenting affects the behaviour and abilities of children. Saudi Arabia is an Islamic country based on patriarchy and has divided the roles of fathers and mothers. The parents in Islamic society are less affectionate and more distant from their children. Such parents are also less involved in close parent-child communication (Sunar, 2009). The parents in the Islamic society expect their daughters to be subordinate, obedient, empathic and assertive. However, the sons can be less obedient and empathetic. This difference between the expectation of socially acceptable behaviour among girls and boys are mainly associated with religious and cultural ties. The cultural and religious values in Islamic society are patriarchal and consider females to be subordinate to males. Therefore, this gender difference is also seen in parenting. Girls are expected to display the prosocial behaviour and have more pressure of family and society to display obedient and controlled behaviour (Hameed-ur-Rehman, andSadruddin, (2012).

Socially acceptable and unacceptable behaviour can be therefore, considered as biased, because of different expectations from both genders. Boys have more freedom to exercise autonomy and independence, whereas girls are expected to be dependent on the dominant figure of family. These expectations have different perspective of socially acceptable and unacceptable behaviour among children. Assertion, cooperation, self-control and responsibility are the most common forms of socially acceptable behaviour. The studies have found that these qualities are more likely to be found in girls (Abdi, 2010; Nourani, 1999). The problem behaviour among children is mainly evaluated in forms of hyperactivity, internalising and externalising behaviour. Boys are more likely to display hyperactivity, internalising and externalising behaviour. However, this gender difference specifically explains the society expectations and "sex-roles and sex-typed behaviours are learned, guided

and transmitted by cultural stereotypes and reactions" (Abdi, 2010, p. 1178). In the Islamic society like, Saudi Arabia, Iran and Iraq, the girl child is expected to identify themselves more with the role of mothers and females in the family and society and must be more cooperative towards household tasks. Thus, they are expected to be submissive, kind and gentle (Ghorbani et al, 2004; Nourani, 1999).

This study will, therefore, focus on understanding the expectations of parents towards the socially acceptable behaviour among children and how these expectations impact the socially acceptable and unacceptable behaviour of children at home and schools. It also implies the significance of understanding the perspective of teachers. Teachers are in the best position to evaluate the socially adaptive behaviour of children, because they do not have any societal of family pressure in schools, which provides the opportunity to children to display their real behaviour. Also, evidence was collected regarding the difference in the perspective of parents and teachers, because parents and teachers have different scales to evaluate and analyses the socially acceptable and unacceptable behaviour (Hameed-ur-Rehman, and Sadruddin, 2012). Children can have different behaviour problems that could be due to different environment, social and cultural factors. The problem behaviour in children requires the policies, programmes and interventions, through which problem behaviour can be reduced and better social and emotional development of children can be promoted. Parenting practices and cultural influence can affect the behaviour among children (Avan, Rahbar, and Raza, 2007). Therefore, literature will be explored regarding the parental perspective and interventions to improve parental practices for the better development of children.

The two important factors that affect the parental practices and parental expectations regarding socially acceptable behaviour and unacceptable behaviour among children are socio-economic status and education of parents. Therefore, it becomes significant that how these two factors can affect children's behaviour. Social skills of children include communication skills, social interactions, interpersonal behaviour and personal responsibility. These skills are very important for socially competent behaviour. However, these skills could not present in children with problem behaviour. For academic attainment, social skills among children are very significant. But, there could be social incompetence that is different from culture to culture. Therefore, for understanding incompetence, understanding the perspective of parents and teachers become important. For the treatment of social incompetence among children it becomes significant to understand the meaning of social competence across the culture, as it is operationalised differently in different cultures. This will help in identifying

the children in a particular culture with problem behaviour and to design appropriate interventions to help them.

1.5 Research Rationale

There are many opinions about what constitutes behaviour problems among children in Saudi Arabia as there are no clear guidelines, resulting in confusion and lack of clarity. The teachers' training manuals lack instructions or guidelines on the issue. Therefore, this research aims to explore the perceptions of parents and female teachers and to discover their respective perceptions on behaviour problems in pre-school children. Al-Bughami (2007) found there is a scarcity of research on the social behaviour of children in Saudi Arabia and, consequently, limited guidance and support exists for teachers who are tackling this issue. She also found that social and psychiatric specialists are not available to kindergarten children and this may result in less attention being paid to children's social behaviours during their time in school. There is also little information available about the social behaviours of pre-school children in Saudi Arabia. Additionally, as demonstrated in the literature review, the term "behavioural problem" is used in different ways, leading to a lack of understanding about what the term means and, thus, lack of agreement about how to use the term to inform policy and teaching guidelines. The aim of this study is to offer an in-depth investigation into how the term is used to shed light on what social behaviours mean to different groups and how this can inform curriculum practices.

Research has been conducted to explore a range of aspects of pre-school children's awkward and unacceptable social behaviours (Masten et al., 2005; Patterson et al., 1989; Gazelle, 2010; Schmidt, Polak, andSpooner, 2005; Crick and Grotpeter, 1995; Crick, 2003). However, this research subject matter is far from being exhausted. In particular, new studies conducted in areas of teaching process and policy to analyse the impact of novel and modern methods of teaching in kindergartens remains in its infancy. Consequently, much needs to be done in child development in Saudi Arabia, not only concerning the lack of research, but also to explore the struggle between generations and the firm stand of the Saudi theocrat. In addition to the impacts of the Saudi theocrat way of life influence on parents and teachers needs in

depth research. The same principle is true for almost all areas of research concerning pre-school children's acceptable and unacceptable social behaviours, i.e., gaps in the relevant literature can be found.

1.6   Thesis Chapter Outlines

This research is structured into six chapters:

- *Chapter 1: Introduction.* This chapter includes the introduction of parents' and teachers' perspectives of socially acceptable and unacceptable behaviours. This chapter also presents a short background about daily life in Saudi Arabia and illustrates how the education system is organised. Then the chapter explores the research aims and objectives. This chapter also includes a rationale of the study, research questions, definition of terms and structure of the research. Thereafter, it focuses on the types of behaviour associated with Saudi pre-school children.

- *Chapter 2: Literature Review.* One key section is the gender-based view which gives an overview of gender and parents' and teachers' perceptions of child development. The chapter also presents causes and effects of unacceptable behaviour and culture issues. The second key section concerns parenting practices, giving a detailed explanation of parenting and the influence of culture on behaviour perception. Additionally, the chapter presents parental tolerance of unacceptable behaviour and child temperament. The chapter closes by exploring parenting, aggression, ethnicity, parenting and, finally, the teacher/student relationship and child development.

- *Chapter 3: Methodology.* This chapter considers a mixed methodology for data collection and analysis. The research data were obtained using two questionnaire surveys and three focus groups. Questionnaire surveys were conducted with teachers and parents. Focus groups were conducted with three groups of individuals: Mothers, fathers and teachers. Key cultural issues needed special attention due to gender segregation and it was difficult to conduct a mixed gender focus group. The qualitative methodology is considered best for studying and understanding teacher

and parental perceptions. Understanding this detail is critical because the perception of differences or similarities which exist in different groups of individuals is not practically useful unless we understand the causes and/or implications. This was the reason a qualitative methodology was considered essential. The qualitative focus group based study was applied which involved identifying differences in perception of different groups of individuals. In due course this research aims to propose a Saudi code of practice, parent and teacher guidelines and a comprehensive definition of unacceptable social behaviours among pre-school children that can be used by a wide range of users in the Saudi Arabian context.

- *Chapter 4: Results.* Chapter 4 presents the results obtained during the research process for both the quantitative and qualitative methodologies. The qualitative analysis was centred on the frequency of behaviour and key terms that reflect the research question. The results also reflect the study's focus on the types of schools - governmental and private. The rest of the chapter is organised as follows: Data analysis method where the objectives of the study were completed. This finding represents a link between the quantitative and qualitative approach. The next two sections present the statistical methods used and the reliability of items assessing unacceptable behaviour statements. The subsequent sections show results from the quantitative study such as comparisons of social behaviours, relationships between social behaviours, the types of school social behaviours and education level of samples. Finally, the chapter ends with the qualitative study findings such as focus groups exploring the perceptions of the mothers, fathers and teachers, gender based perception, other problems related to pre-school behaviour, socially perceived behaviours and fears.

- *Chapter 5: Discussion.* This chapter seeks to apply the data to answering the research questions. The findings reflect teachers' and parents' perceptions of pre-school children's behaviour. The first study was qualitative where parents were represented by two groups: fathers and mothers, with the teachers comprising a group of their own. In the research argument the study considers both the environment where the children reside and parental influence on the child's behaviour (Hunter, 2016). The

chapter explains how I took advantage of the quantitative method to uncover and understand the sample characteristics.

- ***Chapter 6: Conclusion.*** The last chapter summarises the findings based on the research problem and makes recommendations for further study, stating the research findings and the contribution to knowledge.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

Human development is one of the most important topics under discussion today. Martin et al (1993) argue that the focal issue of human development has been reinforced by a more concerted effort in regards to social behaviour, yet social behaviour is influenced by several factors that are either external or internal where each presents different reactions from the social environment. Some researchers believe a child's development is prejudiced by several different internal child characteristics, including the child's physical and social surroundings while others believe social and cultural factors are major players. Another key point is that most children go through a transition period of some sort, wherein they exhibit fussiness, happiness, harmony, joyfulness and playfulness. Conversely, children also show evidence of awkwardness, withdrawal, anxiety, hyperactivity and even aggression. Often, these behaviours differ depending upon the situational basis. The need for intervention depends upon how serious, persistent or intense these episodes are. This chapter is focused on types of behavioural problems from various studies that have been concerned with describing and evaluating social behaviours among children.

For example, the sections on externalising and internalising explain links between perceptions of social behaviour and parenting. Another key section is the gender-based view which gives details about the effect of gender and parents' and teachers' perceptions of child development, including causes of behavioural problems and socio-economic factors. Parenting practices is another key section, giving a detailed explanation of parenting and the influence of culture on behaviour (Burke et al, 2006). In addition, the chapter considers parental tolerance of socially unacceptable behaviour and child temperament and the effects and control of children's unpredictable emotions with regard to relational and physical aggression (Dodge, CoieandLynam, 2006). The chapter closes by exploring parenting, aggression, ethnicity, parenting and aggression. It also explores how the teacher, in the teacher/student relationship in child development, should apply constructivist behavioural problem intervention (Coard et al, 2004).

This chapter is divided into two parts. Part 1 is concerned with the findings from the literature of cultural influence and understanding child behaviour from parent and teacher's perceptions. Additionally, it provides more detail about the guiding principles for cultural effects on parenting. This section also aims to explain children's behaviour from several perspectives, chief of which is behaviour related research efforts on parenting style, as well as parent and teachers views on how to curb or intervene to understand children behaviours. Part 2 involves the research operating areas where the guiding principles have been put to work. For example, how parents and teachers identify acceptable and unacceptable behaviour and the means to prevent and address unacceptable behaviours. The chapter demonstrates there is no universal definition of acceptable or unacceptable behaviour for many reasons, including culture differences and social practices (see Chapter 6). However, this research is aimed at understanding what differences exist in parents' and teachers' perceptions of socially acceptable or unacceptable behaviour.

2.2 Social Development Theories

Theories that concentrate upon social development are mainly used to focus upon explaining the changes that have taken place across society. This evolutionary form can be considered in many ways, most of which are defined in a way in which the wider society experiences an upwards movement that sees increased accomplishment being part of a wider communal outcome (Jacobs andAsokan, 1999). This perspective creates an opportunity whereby personal growth can be a facet of social change. This is a real change in a person as opposed to the restructuring of systems to suit the policies of institutions, in this case child behaviours and the roles of concerned adults (Vygostky, 1978). The premise that this theory this is based upon also allows for change resulting in an improved social dynamic in which personal energies can be used to harness skills and resources to realise the above outcome (Jacobs andAsokan, 1999).

To achieve development in this manner Vygotsky (1978) argued that there needs to be a driving motive that acts as a precondition for this change and development. Here, there is a need to enhance the efficacy of any supporting infrastructure and, as such, it is here where parents and teachers gain increased importance and primacy through being able to meet the challenges of society and its needs. Based upon this perspective it is argued that society

evolves via several stages as part of its development and resides within a dynamic in which those that are undertaking this change are able to introduce a number of new ideas and practices and can see change occur at the physical, social, mental and psychological elements of society and the wider life experience (Jacobs and Asokan, 1999). This outcome, it is suggested, sees the promotion of development occurring via core areas and themes, namely the utility of physical resources, their resultant increased productivity levels and the improved usage of resources, as well as the quality of organisational output. The developmental aspect is realised via the immersion and amalgamation of these four issues towards increased personal and social knowledge (Macfarlane andvanHarten, 1999).

Macfarlane and van Harten (1999) argue that the education sector is one of the chief agents for helping to realise social change. Here it is suggested that educational provisions help to transfer and evolve the collective knowledge that society possesses and transmit it between the generations. It is here where generations can be equipped with the tools necessary to address and respond to the challenges that they may face in the future. The education sector, for Jacobs and Asokan (1999), is a vital agent that can help to impart aspects of knowledge in a way the expectations of the younger generation are addressed, as well as offers for a way in which they can also develop the capacity for innovation and improved productivity.

Vygostky (1978) argued that the core issue with social development could be found via the reality of the development processes in the direction that society takes and can be heavily influenced by the population's awareness of opportunities. What occurs is seen as an increased level of awareness that has a knock-on effect elsewhere including via, but not limited to, improvedinspirational levels.

The role which parents play in child development can be reinforced via outcomes where personal identity is a core facet that requires attention. Personal identity is an important issue for all human beings, yet it is also recognised that the term is highly subjective in terms of nature, scope and influence (Phoenix, 2007). Given this reality, this section reviews the relative strengths and weaknesses of core psychosocial and social identity theories.

Erikson and Marcia were pioneers of social identity perspectives and argued these can be found at both the social and personal levels where identity functions there as a core and periphery that regulates our relationship with the world around us (explored in Phoenix,

2007). Given this narrative, it is of note that Erikson and Marcia believed that throughout life people will pass through eight core psychological stages. Within this theory the era of adolescence, known as the psychosocial moratorium, tends to be the most important when assessing the development of a person's identity and its formulation (Phoenix, 2007). This process of development is also characterised by a crisis of identity in which a failure to realise a secure sense of who and what the individual is (known as the ego identity) can result in role diffusion. What occurs sees a challenge to personal identity formulation and can often result in an over-identification with aggression or intolerance towards others, hence the realisation of unsocial or unacceptable behaviour (Phoenix, 2007). Marcia built upon this perspective via analysing what active choices exist when a person is determining their personal identity (Phoenix, 2007). Consequentially, Marcia was able to categorise the adolescent development stage into four identity statuses and, as a result, had argued that the core progression in a person lies between the moratorium periods to that of identity achievement (Phoenix, 2007). This contests the works of Erikson, albeit on a phenomenological level.

Arguably, Erikson's psychosocial theory creates the possibility for a compelling explanation as for the possibility of a number of relevant social phenomena. It is the adolescent phase which is most important, since during this phase of a person's life, core engagement concerns the main process of identity formulation (Phoenix, 2007). When aiming to discover their own identities, it is argued that people become aware of a number of differences, as well as similarities, between both themselves and their peers. It is for this reason that many children will opt to associate with certain groups and, as a way of fitting in to these same groups, it is feasible that there will be an over-emphasis regarding the identifiable differences between themselves and others. This premise correlates with Marcia's theory where, there, this same period helps further identity foreclosure (Phoenix, 2007). Indeed, it is also possible that activity during this period will result in what is termed as permissive intolerance and leads to bullying and intolerance within the schooling environment (Phoenix, 2007).

On the other hand, child characteristics which make them easy to care for guarantee warm, sensitive, and stimulating parenting. Belsky (1984) insisted that any investigation into the influences of parenting should be inclusive of the context in which the parent-child interaction takes place. Therefore, he recognised circumstantial sources of stress and support that can work to directly or indirectly impact on the psychological well-being and mental

health of parents and, consequently, their parenting and child outcomes (Burke et al, 2006). Here, it is feasible that a set of coercive interactions can result from parents' usage of inconsistent positive reinforcement or punishment. Parents can reinforce coercive child behaviours through escape-conditioning incidents and even through positive reinforcement like attending, laughing or approving. The child can control the behaviour through coercive means, as the child was able to successfully use these contingencies, and therefore the behaviour is reinforced. Patterson et al. (1989) blamed the antisocial parents and grandparents, family demographics like socioeconomic status (SES) and parental education as well as other family stressors like unemployment and family discord, for maladaptive family management.

Belsky (1984) emphasised these same contextual factors and parental and child characteristics influenced parenting and, inadvertently, child development. Similarly, Patterson et al. (1989) have explored the role of contextual factors and their impact on parenting, but their focus was on explaining how these factors led to persistent, early-onset delinquent and antisocial behaviour. They blamed poor parental discipline and monitoring in early childhood. To the current study, the most applicable concept was basic training or the first stage of model offered by Patterson et al, the pre-school period wherein preliminary observation of coercive interactions between the child and others in their social environment is made. Baumrind and Black (1967) also linked permissive parenting to social behaviours in children. Furthermore, parents' failure to follow through commands reinforced non-compliance in children was recognised by (Patterson, 1986). Mothers more negligent in their parenting have children with aggressive social behaviour (Arnold et al., 1993).

These findings indicated that a lack of psychological and emotional preparation for parenting and a lack of resources to cater to the needs of one's child related to higher levels of rebellious mother-child interactions and inconsistent and severe discipline. Belsky (1984) assumed a link between parents' personality, psychological well-being and parental practices. Moreover, Belsky (1984) claimed a child's characteristics (temperament) either enabled or obstructed parenting. The more difficult the behaviours of the child, the more difficult it was to parent and care for the child adequately and that affected the quality of parenting. If the caregivers had a difficult temperament they could be less affectionate and engaged in unhelpful parenting practices (Burke et al, 2006). This premise has been built upon by Moffitt (1993),whoselife-course-persistent antisocial theory further emphasised the role parenting

practices play in early onset aggression and delinquency, but unlike Patterson et al. (1989), Moffitt's theory focused on the role of biological factors. According to Moffitt impairments in neuropsychological functioning, executive and verbal functioning deficits resulted from prenatal and postnatal disturbances. This perspective builds upon Vygotsky's (1978) theory of social development where cognition plays a part in personal development.

Vygotsky's theories are based upon the notion that social interaction is a core requirement for improvement in the levels of cognition that a person undertakes (Vygotsky, 1978). Here, it is of note that Vygotsky (1978) had argued that the local community is central to the delivery of meaning to the lives of children. This perspective is different from that offered by Piaget whose concept of child development took precedence over the learning process. In this respect, Vygotsky (1978: 90) had argued that "learning is a necessary and universal aspect of the process of developing culturally organised, specifically human psychological function". Essentially, therefore, Vygotsky (1978: 90) is at odds with the works and perspectives of Piaget. That said, similar to Piaget, Vygotsky (1978) argued that children are instinctively curious and, as a result, are likely to be a party to their own learning. It is also argued by Vygotsky (1978) that there needs to be a greater emphasis placed upon a wealth of social contributions that are party to the developmental process. Here, the role of the more knowledgeable other is important given that most learning occurs via social interaction. It is here where co-operative and constructivist education can be found and where aspects of communally learned knowledge are used to regulate personal behaviour (Vygotsky, 1978).

The role of the more knowledgeable other, therefore, cannot be underplayed. Essentially the role is undertaken by adults who possess an improved understanding of a range of issues than the learner. This can be in respect of a particular task, or where there is a need to reform behaviour as part of a holistic reformation. Where this thesis is focused, the more knowledgeable other can easily be considered as a parent or teacher. The parental perspective will be discussed into more details later in this chapter (please see section 2.4 Causes and Influences of Behavioural Issues – A Parental Focus).

2.3 Defining and Framing Social Behaviours

Wright (2006) defined the term behavioural problem as "a complete disregard to authority, rules and regulations", such as when a child refuses to follow guidance or orders issued to them by an 'authority' without 'obstructive' reason.Japundza-Milisavljevic, Djuric-Zdravkovic and Macesic-Petrovic (2010) argue that, on average, around 50 per cent of children are likely to display socially unacceptable behaviours. This outcome, it is suggested, is borne out of perceptions of what is and is not socially acceptable which, in its totality, creates a range of social patterns that are indicative of an issue concerning authority. In this instance the parents or teachers of pre-school children, while the term 'obstructive' stands for physical or practical difficulty (Nelson et al., 2007). This definition is suitable for a case where the authority has full control of the environment in which pre-school children are present.

For example, for Wright (2006), the definition of social behaviour stopped short of peer-to-peer situations where, in most cases, pre-school children are deficient in social behaviour. Goldschmied, Goldschmiedand Jackson (2004) earlier discussed this issue and indicated that social behavioural levels can be improved via incorporating heuristic play. This style of play sees the creation of a range of acceptable boundaries and rules to which children need to adhere. The theory indicates that the utility of heuristic play lies in the development of trust and it is here where behavioural issues are subsequently addressed. Indeed, this outcome is finally realised when children can interact and play without the need for intervention. Indeed, a causal example of where there is a need to intervene in a child's behaviour lies with domestic issues, such as interrupted sleeping patterns, irregular eating habits, verbal and physical aggression, destructive behaviours, lying, shyness, withdrawal, bad temper, self-harm and authority defiance behaviours. It is for this reason that Goldschmied et al (2004) build upon their theory by asserting that the goal of intervention into free child behaviours can be realised through amalgamating several additional theories and perspectives and, as a result, it is possible to include aspects of psychodynamic and ecological theories into the learning situation (Goldschmied et al, 2004).

Given the above outcome it is noted that Wright (2006) also argues that mothers' and teachers' groups, when compared with that fathers' group, clearly emphasise disturbances as a major concern in terms of socially unacceptable behaviour. This research considers such behaviours as socially acceptable or unacceptable, as well as what teachers and parents perceive as difficult to manage, because of the disruption issues that are associated with this

type of behaviour. This research considers that from previous literature, the term 'behaviour' as a set of concepts to be understood as 'the response of a person or group to an act, surround, idea, or stimulus in such a way that their response can be interpreted or measured' (Gardner et al., 1999; Wicks-Nelson and Israel, 2006). This perspective, therefore, provides an insight into the background of research that was undertaken by Japundza-Milisavljevic et al (2010) which offers utility in practical theory issues in which teachers, additional educators and parents need to identify what they perceive as inappropriate patterns of behaviour in each and every child. This, they suggest, is important so that any behavioural issues can be addressed via intervention processes that incorporate improving child motivation, esteem and trust in both themselves and others, including those adults that are around the child.

In contrast, in general terms, social behaviour is defined as 'the manner in which someone acts or conducts himself [sic], emphatically concerning others' (Oxford English Dictionary, 2016). Smith and Fox (2003) describe the lack of social behaviour in pre-school children as "any repeated pattern of behaviour, or perception of behaviour, that interferes with or is at risk of interfering with optimal learning or engagement in pro-social interactions with peers and adults". There is no agreement, however, of a definition of what comprises socially acceptable or unacceptable behaviour.

A variety of definitions exist for the term social behaviour, however, and in many instances it has been defined in a different way by a group of researchers with dissimilar research contexts and diverse interests. Authority is represented in this circumstance by the parents or teachers of the pre-school child. Meanwhile the term 'obstructive' stands for physical or practical difficulty (Nelson et al., 2007), though this definition is also suitable for a case where the authority has full control of the environment in which the pre-school child is present. For example, Wright's (2006) social behaviour issue definition stopped short of a peer-to-peer situation where, in most cases, pre-school children are deficient in social behaviour perception. In due course, an example of such difficulty or awkward social behaviours may be evident in interrupted sleeping patterns, irregular eating habits, verbal and physical aggression, destructive behaviours, lying, shyness, withdrawal, bad temper, self-harm and authority defiance behaviours.

Initially, even if a pre-school child's difficulty or awkward social behaviours (Wagner et al., 2005) become noticeable at an early stage (Bradley et al., 2008) the availability of access to

adequate and effectual services may prove difficult for most cases and for many reasons (Bradley et al., 2008; Forness, 2005; Power, 2003; Wagner et al., 2005). The difficulties faced by parents and practitioners are at the centre point of this research context. For example, getting access to services on time and properly identifying pre-school children's behaviour is one of the key objectives of this study. Research has also found that parents are particularly challenged by pre-school children's difficulty or awkward social behaviours such as children who destroy their own toys. Armstrong et al. (2003) found an association between children who destroy their own toys and interrupted sleeping patterns and irregular eating habits. Nelson et al. (2007) extended Armstrong's findings to include, pre-school children who are obnoxious or aggressive towards others and who, ultimately, build difficult or awkward social behaviours (Nelson et al., 2007; Bradley et al., 2008).

Awkward social behaviours and socially unacceptable behaviours in pre-school children may become even more severe through to adulthood (Roberts andCaspi, 2003; Hailing et al., 2008), most importantly leading pre-school children to suffer relentless and harmful impairment (Benitez, Lattimore, and Wehmeyer, 2005). As an example, young adults with a history of early childhood awkward and challenging social behaviours are more susceptible to drop out of school due to violence or severe truancy, which leads to being unemployed owing to lack of both social and knowledge skills (Bradley et al., 2008; Zigmond, 2006), ultimately living in poverty due to low self-esteem, participating in illegal activity, being antisocial, and less involved with the community (Armstrong et al., 2003; Bradley et al., 2008). However, most of these studies on social behaviour concerns are evocative and in some cases descriptive. Nevertheless, often the best practices go beyond evocative and descriptive child behaviour, as this approach does not suffice to ensure successful adulthood outcomes (Forness, 2005; Power, 2003; Roberts and Caspi, 2003).

Furthermore, they tend to draw focus on two main issues, one of which is the dramatic nature of pre-school children's social behaviours associated with externalist views. To a certain extent it is difficult for children to become accustomed to young adulthood if he or she has difficulty in maintaining or forming mutual relationships and such children tend to have insecure living situations (Roberts and Caspi, 2003; Armstrong et. al. 2003). The second issue is coupled with adequate parenting (Anchorand Thomason, 1977; Burke et al, 2006) and social behaviour concerning psychosocial maladjustment in children of parents with serious physical illness, combined with adequate teachers' skills and social behaviour

(Sanders, 1999). In similar studies by Bradley et al. (2008) and Zigmond (2006) tracking high school graduation, 42 to 72 per cent of students with awkward social and socially unacceptable behaviours were unemployed within four to five years. This is also confirmed by Benitez, Lattimore and Wehmeyer (2005). In interviews conducted three years after high school graduation, it was common for adults with previous awkward and unacceptable social behaviours to have a lack of job opportunities, be earning only the minimum wage and have few friends (Zigmond, 2006).

Children who had contact with mental health agencies or who experienced physical abuse were more likely to end with a criminal record (Clare, Bailey, andClark, 2000; Davis et al., 2004), so much so that 40 to 70 per cent of incarcerated adults suffer co-morbid mental illnesses (KollerandBertel, 2006). In a study by Costello et al. (2003) only 50 per cent of these problem cases actually received treatment (KollerandBertel, 2006; Power, 2003), out of which 40 to 60 per cent did not complete the treatment because their parents terminated it before completion. If these problems appear earlier they are more likely to develop into antisocial behaviours (Fox, Dunlap, andPowell, 2002).

These awkward and unacceptable social behaviours have a high cost to society (Cohen, 1998; Greenberg et al., 2000). Therefore, the focus of this research should shift to include parents' and teachers' background and years of parenting and experience (Burke et al, 2006). Ultimately, the great majority of the previous studies (McConaughy and Achenbach, 1994; Seiffge- Krenke and Kollmar, 1998; Mesman and Koot, 2001) agree on the subsistence and relationship between pre-school children's awkward and unacceptable social behaviours and survival and influence in children's later life. Several research studies have effectively argued that parenting is a good predictor of children's externalising behaviours, although other studies have reached contradictory conclusions. One such study by Fite et al. (2006) inspected the influence of parenting on young children's externalising behaviours between grades four and eight, finding that beyond the stability of the boys' behaviours, parenting did not influence externalising behaviours in any way. Furthermore, Fite et al. (2006) found that peer relations and other psychosocial factors had a greater influence on persistent externalising behaviours in young adults and adolescent boys when compared to parenting effects alone (Roberts and Caspi, 2003). Because of their findings, Fite et al. (2006) have expressed scepticism about generalising findings to earlier or later developmental periods, as parenting can be a strong influence at any age.

Silver et al. (2005) report that teacher-rated externalisation has no significant relation with negative parenting in kindergarten age children. Their reasoning for the inconsistency is that the use of independent sources to describe parenting techniques and, therefore, the extent to which maternal accounts of parenting practices are used to determine teacher-rated externalising behaviour is highly limited. They also explain that in the early stages of development parental influence can be used to explain externalising behaviours in the home, but not in the classroom. Negative parenting was theoretically and empirically associated with children's externalising behaviours and is probably most important during the toddler years, when the parent–child relationship is developing. Parenting practices are critical to consider, therefore, when studying externalising behaviours during this period of development (Stanger et al, 2004). The current study has examined how negative parenting practices, such as inconsistent discipline, poor supervision and punitive practices relate to externalising behaviours in pre-school children (Anchor and Thomason, 1977).

Even though most of the literature emphasises the importance of related factors in the progress of social behaviours among children, Moffitt (1993) theorises that neurological variations (related to biological characteristics) are related to socially unacceptable behaviours. Two biological characteristics were the focus of the current study: temperament and executive functioning (EF) or attention. A different study, by Seiffge- Krenke and Kollmar (1998), suggests that in marital adjustment both parents showed a significant negative influence on externalising pre-school children's behaviour. The data showed higher correlations of unacceptable behaviour attributed to internal reasons compared to external behaviours.

To demonstrate the significance of a parent's perception on the behaviour problem was pointed to by Seiffge- Krenke and Kollmar (1998). The study investigated the issue of discrepancies between fathers' and mothers' perceptions towards understanding their own children's problem behaviours. The study's aim was to find the effect of internal and external behaviour problems on the parents' perceptions and the findings are in context with this research effort, especially the culture influence on parents' perceptions. Some of the key findings have shown that mothers' ratings of their children's and adolescents' behaviour are highly correlated, but fathers' ratings are not. Although there are no specific tests to diagnose a conduct disorder, the majority of psychiatrics believe extreme aggression, delinquency and

oppositional behaviour can amount to and become a form of disability (Gartstein and Fagot, 2003). However, data from the American Psychiatric Association (APA) show that 3 to 7 per cent of schoolchildren are diagnosed with Attention Deficit Hyperactive Disorder (ADHD), 2 to 16 per cent with Oppositional Defiant Disorder (ODD) and 1 to 10 per cent with Compulsive Disorder (CD). Disruptive, impulsive, defiant and aggressive behaviours, along with hyperactivity and impulsiveness, are common symptoms observed across these disorders (Clare et al, 2002; Coard et al, 2004; Badenand Howe, 1992; Barry et al, 2005). These externalised behaviours are typically first observed in the home environment and later progress into the school's environment (APA, 2000; Gartstein and Fagot, 2003).

Many disabilities of aggression are explained from the externalist view. Antisocial behaviour, academic underachievement and other types of psychological disorders are linked, for example, to previous premature childhood awkward and unacceptable social behaviours (APA, 2000; Masten et al., 2005; Patterson et al., 1989; Clare et al, 2002; Coard et al, 2004). Consequently, when awkward and unacceptable social behaviours become severe, they develop to more complex and chronic psychological disorders (Stanger, 2004; Coard et al, 2004). Also in extreme cases individuals can be diagnosed with a permanent disability. Diagnoses are nevertheless usually not given until elementary school (APA, 2000). Consequently, in pre-school the symptoms can remain untreated and become progressively worse.

Internalising behaviour of children includes many observable social behaviours such as shyness, depression and anxiety (Crozier andBadawood, 2009). Children can exhibit internalising or externalising problems, or both types, such as separation anxiety disorder and generalised anxiety disorder. According to McConaughy and Achenbach (1994) their study data about children's aggressive behaviour implied that a large percentage of children who display aggression at a young age continue to do the same when they are adults (McConaughy and Achenbach, 1994; Roberts and Caspi, 2003; Asendorpf, Denissen, and van Aken, 2008). Aggressive behaviour includes pushing, slapping and kicking other children while playing or in the classroom (McConaughy and Achenbach, 1994). An investigationbyBoylan et al. (2007) shows strong correlation between conduct disorder among pre-schoolchildren and the high rate of depression and anxiety disorders recurring with conduct disorders that cannot be omitted or taken as a coincidence (Boylan et al., 2007).

According to Greene et al. (2002) over half of the children who undergo treatment for an externalising disorder also show symptoms of internalising disorders.

Young children (two to three years old) who show internalising symptoms, such as social anxiety, have around three times the risk of developing depression or anxiety by the age of 10 or 11 (Mesman and Koot, 2001). Internalising interferes with children's normal social development processes, even if it is at a subclinical level (e.g. Asendorpf et al, 2008). Therefore, quickly detecting specific behaviours and recognising children who may be at risk of developing internalising behaviour may enable interventions to prevent impairment and promote typical behaviour development. This research context focuses on studying internalising behaviour development, due to its interactive nature where it is of the essence to take into account environmental factors such as social withdrawal and temperamental factors such as shyness or inhibition (Woods et al, 2016). Roberts and Caspi (2003), in exploring withdrawal developmental patterns among children, revealed that withdrawal was inclined to be exhibited by shy children and environmental factors like their peers, parents and teachers shaped the child's behaviour. In turn, the child's behaviour shapes his or her environment through peer rejection and parental association. Finally, as this cycle persists over time, it either maintains or changes the child's behaviour. Consequently, identifying the early behaviours that can set this process in motion is important.

To effectively understand and quickly intervene in behaviours that lead to internalising social behaviour researchers have examined biological and environmental variables that relate to maladaptive behaviour development (Clare et al, 2002; Coard et al, 2004). For instance, to understand the development of anxiety, a proposed diathesis-stress model explains that children with anxiety have a link to biological vulnerability developed when exposed to stressors and that children who are simply vulnerable or who experience environmental stressors could have the same link (Gazelle, 2010; Schmidt et al., 2005). Social stressors such as environmental stress (Turner, Beidel, and Wolff, 1991) can worsen temperamental shyness (i.e., the diathesis). Finally, some evidence links children's (Espinosa, 2002; Peth-Pierce, 2000) cognitive development, acquisition of pre-academic skills and preparedness for school with their socio-emotional development and the persistent nature of their emotional problems (Arnold et al., 1999). A few socio-emotional competencies are imperative to effective group learning, like relationship skills, self-confidence, self-management and self-regulation (Thompson, 2002). Children with unacceptable social behaviours exhibit insufficiencies in

these important social skills and tend to have language deficits (Qi and Kaiser, 2003; Kaiser et al., 2000). In order to ensure their success in school it is vital to intervene at an earlier stage and set these children on the right developmental path (Clare et al, 2002; Coard et al, 2004). Several methods have been used to eradicate or improve such behaviours. In the following section we will discuss the several types of behaviour problems at school and at home.

Arguably, the major social behaviour that is considered to be socially unacceptable to parents and teachers is aggression. Most studies agree that complete disregard to parents, house or school rules and regulations raises social behaviour concerns. Moreover, any repeated pattern of behaviour is considered important to ground parents' and teachers' perception of behaviour (Smith and Fox, 2003). Children who reject guidance and become 'obstructive' represent a practical difficulty for parent and teachers (Nelson et al., 2007) which, ultimately, may result in a high cost to society (Cohen, 1998; Greenberg et al., 2000). In the following paragraphs the key behaviours that are considered as not socially acceptable are discussed.

2.3.1 Temper Tantrums

Due to the difficulties in developing an ability to communicate their needs children whine as a wayof notifying their parents of their requirements. It is important to note that whining can also be employed for the purposes of manipulation where, in such a case, it would be a behaviour that is disruptive (Broidy et al, 2003; Devore, 2006; Badenand Howe, 1992; Barry et al, 2005). Whining can develop into temper tantrums that are characteristic of disruption. These can take place in any place regardless of the time. It can involve yelling, kicking, stomping, as well as screaming coupled with other actions that are undesirable. However, similar to the other behaviours, discipline can be used to conquer the unacceptable behaviour in conjunction with the parental consequences. The parents can choose to reward the child where the children fail to exhibit the behaviours that are unacceptable (Stearns, 2015).

2.3.2 Physical Aggression

There is much material available on exploring aggression, but physical aggression is an aspect which needs to be explored and understood better, specifically in relation to parenting. The focus of most of the literature is in relation to boys and physical aggression. Few works

focus on relational aggression—a new type of aggression classified in recent years (Crick and Grotpeter, 1995). Relational aggression refers to aggressive behaviours whose purpose it is to damage another person's personal relationships or to make them feel excluded from a group. Manipulation and power and use of social relationships to harm others were some of the main characteristics of this behaviour, such as deliberately withdrawing friendships, or spreading rumours or gossiping. Unlike physical aggression, relational aggression is highly prevalent in the previously understudied female population (Crick, 2003).

Even though research exploring relational aggression is in its initial phase, there is already evidence of how it can harm children, causing poor mental health, poor academic performance, poor social skills, and criminal behaviours (Crick et al., 1999; Coie and Dodge, 1998). Children who showed relational aggression are generally lonelier, depressed, isolated and rejected compared to those who are physically or otherwise aggressive and are also more likely to show parallel externalising behaviours (Crick and Grotpeter, 1995). There is a long-term, detrimental effect from relational aggression on children's psychological wellbeing as well as social assimilation (Crick, 1996). According to Werner and Crick (1999) high levels of antisocial behaviour traits and peer rejection were indicative of relational aggression in adulthood. Relational aggression was more prevalent in girls and possibly created worse consequences. In time aggressive girls were unwanted by their peers (Crick, 1996). Furthermore, relational aggression, particularly in adult females, was been linked to borderline personality disorder and Bulimia Nervosa (Werner and Crick, 1999).

Despite these findings very little was understood about what exactly caused the social maladjustment in girls, specifically in the case of relationally aggressive behaviours (Coie, Dodge and Kupersmidt, 1990). For instance, crime among female adolescent multiplied, but on the other hand little is known about what caused this increment in delinquent behaviour among females (Hipwell et al., 2002). Research has leaned towards exploring the apparent forms of peer mistreatment and violent behaviour (hitting, biting, pushing, verbal threats), which may be more commonly seen in boys (Owens, Slee, and Shute, 2000), specifically in elementary school (Crick et al., 2001). Problems involving females have been greatly under-recognised by adults and consequently under-researched. Girls tend to have more internalising problems, not easily visible to adults (Arnold and Doctoroff, 2003; Stowe et al., 2000). Researchers have thus failed to acknowledge victimisation through relational aggression among children (Schäfer, Werner and Crick, 2002). Besides, there have been a

puzzling variety of findings produced by research on gender, parenting and relational aggression. Researchers have found parental factors likelier to contribute towards linking violent behaviour in boys in contrast to that of girls (Crick, 2003; Nelson and Crick, 2002). However, Yang et al. (2004) have reported the opposite. Research on violent behaviour is still not conclusive in contrast to studies concerned with physical aggression (Nelson and Crick, 2002). It is hypothesised, and even proven in some studies, that parents influence the development of aggressive behaviours through their responses to aggression and can play an important role in developing and even maintaining them (Crick, 2003; Dodge et al, 2006).

2.5 Causes and Influences of Behavioural Issues – A Parental Focus

According to Shek (2005), parents unfortunately have a strong fondness for sons. Consequently, their main concern for opportunities, including health and education, may be given to sons only (Bilge and Kaufman, 1983; Malinowski, 2001; Shek, 2005). This harsh differential treatment of sons' and daughters' social behaviours is less common among developed countries(Shek, 2005). Conversely, there are familiar ways that parents in these societies may entertain girls and boys differently, for example in the UK and US. One of the challenges for researchers studying parental socialisation is to separate the influences of both children and parents. Specific estimates of the rate of emotional and social behaviours vary depending on the parameters and samples used (Malinowski, 2001). Campbell (1995), in his review, estimates that in a paediatric population a high number of young children show mild to moderate social behavioural issues. Lavigne et al. (1996) claim that approximately 21 per cent of children meet the criteria of a diagnosable disorder, of which 9 per cent are severe cases (Lavigne et al, 1996). The Early Childhood Longitudinal Study concluded that over 10 per cent of children entering kindergarten show behavioural problems such as aggression, anxiety, lack of attention and hyperactivity (West, Denton, and Germino-Hausken, 2000). Children who come from a low economic class are especially vulnerable to such behaviours (Qi and Kaiser, 2003).

Often, children who exhibit social behaviours outgrow them with age and they tend to grow weaker by time, proportionally. However, in some cases, these behaviours persist or even intensify and can affect their performance in school and social life. Half of all toddlers with previously identified clinical social behaviour disorders still exhibited high levels of social problems several years into their schooling life (Shaw, Gilliom, and Giovannelli, 2000).

About 6 per cent of boys follow an early starter or life course-persistent pattern which leads to violent conduct and serious anti-social behaviour in adolescence (Nagin and Tremblay, 1999).

2.5.1   Attachment

The mother becomes attached to the child once they are born. The attachment is through the touch accorded to the child when they are being carried, or played with. As such, the view of the mothers is as the child's first educators. As a result, mothers enjoy a longer, sustained and intimate relationship with the child than any other person (Burke et al, 2006). Notably, at about the age of three years the child attempts to identify with their environment which results in labelling it (Richman, Stevenson, and Graham, 1982). In light of this case, there is the development of orientation. Therefore, the mothers facilitate in the development of the vision, and assists in the integration of the various aspects of the world in which the child learns. Hence, mothers view themselves as pertinent to the growth of the child and, as a result, they endeavour to take the opportunity to comprehend how their actions can significantly influence their children through their perception of it (Gulzhanet al, 2014).

It is important to understand that all children are learners. As such, it is paramount to comprehend that lessons children learn during their first years is through visual and is primarily by imitation. Mothers teach the child by playing, touching and talking to the child in interaction times that are natural. Thus, the mother teaches the child through the provision of the toys as well as the household objects that are ordinary, which vary in their colour, smell, texture and sound as well as weight. Collins et al, (2010) are of the opinion that it is better for the provisions of various sensory experiences altogether or at a time during the daily routines as well as family occasions that are special. The fact is that the normal interactions of the child through playing, talking, feeding and dressing are teaching experiences that are natural for the mother and are perfect opportunities for learning for the child. Despite the view of the mother as the child's educator, children vary in their learning styles. As such, there is the need for teaching approaches that are effective that result in the meeting of the individual needs.

According to Pillitteri (2010), mothers are natural teachers since they understand the child better in comparison to others. Besides, they understand what the child requires to learn. Additionally, they spend most of their time in a way that is opportune for the learning of the child. Therefore, they are capable of taking advantage of the various events that are ordinary in the course of the day to offer insights to their children. Importantly, the toys that the mother offers the child in the home setting can also be applied in the other settings. More so, the mother has to constantly offer opportunities for the practice of their child on what they have learned, thus experiences under the guidance of the mother and of the world for themselves (Kephart, 2007). In this regard, it is vital for the mothers to teach their children good habits to last for their entire lifetime. However, this outcome is at risk of a number of additional factors. For example, the years between 3 to 7 years in children serve as the period of detachment of the children from their parents (Hunter, 2016). They develop behaviours based on their environment as well as their parent's influence that are in their immediate environment. As such, during this stage, the children become independent in the global world. As a result, the stage is evident of an explosion in their base of knowledge, competencies, social and emotional skills. In light of this, the second stage that is consistent with their psychological development in Erik Erikson's theory indicates that they are torn between autonomy and shame, as well as doubt (Sutton, 2016). Notably, children during this stage learn to become independent, for instance through feeding themselves, toileting and dressing.

At around the age of four, their psychological development stage sets in where there is initiative coupled with guilt. Importantly, at this stage the children develop their imagination in order to become increasingly independent (Cohen, 2016). As such, they endeavour to increase their skills through their involvement of exploration and play coupled with fantasies. Therefore, they participate as well as cooperate with their peers. Thus, in accordance with Erikson, the achievement of the goals is vital as they will assist in the child developing their social skills, and as such, avoid depending on their parents in a negative way. Thus, this thesis attempts to focus on the behaviour of children between 3-7 years old. It also aims to offer a study on the views of both the mother and the father on the children's behaviour. Besides, it endeavours to offer a view on the behaviour of children. In addition, the thesis offers recommendations on the best way to explore the behaviour of children. In the end, it also offers insight on what constitutes bad or good behaviour among children.

2.5.2 Parental tolerance of unacceptable social behaviour

How much of a child's behaviour that a parent can tolerate without being annoyed is known as 'parental tolerance'. There is much variance in the normal range of parents' tolerance levels. It has been hypothesised that parental tolerance is measured by the frequency of the child's problem behaviour and by how much the parent get annoyed by that particular behaviour (Eyberg and Pincus, 1999). Very limited studies have been conducted based on tolerance behaviour among children as there is no apparent way to measure it. Once there is a definitive measure of tolerance it became possible to assess the role of parental tolerance in emerging negative parent–child interactions, disruptive behaviours, treatment options and parent training (Broidy et al, 2003). Almost all children show much negative behaviour and it is developmentally suitable for children to go through a phase wherein they display annoying behaviours, such as non-compliance or tantrums, in order to get attention or to get their way as one of the tasks of this stage is to develop autonomy and independence in the parent–child relationship (Campbell, 1995). A parent's tolerance of annoying behaviours is a major influencing factor that determined how a parent interprets and responds to their children's negative behaviours. If the parent could not detect that their child was having difficulty establishing impulse control in frustrating situations, the parent was unable to guide the child in developing appropriate coping techniques; therefore, the parent ended up being frustrated by the child's behaviours. If parents failed to reinforce children's attempts at self-control the children would have continue to have behavioural difficulties.

Parents reinforce a variety of rules and behaviours in their children and deem a variety of behaviours inappropriate (O'Leary, 1995). Countless reasons, such as the child's age (Johnston and Patenaude, 1994), clinic referral status (Baden and Howe, 1992), cultural variables (Hackett and Hackett, 1993), socioeconomic standing (Dodge, Pettit, and Bates, 1994) and the parents' feelings of stress or depression (Abidin, 1990) determined whether parents find their children's behaviour inappropriate. For the factors listed above, parental tolerance played a huge role. For instance, intolerant parents might not have recognised when their children were behaving appropriately and their intolerance led them to believe that their children exhibited more annoying behaviours than were actually evident. Furthermore, if the parents only responded to a child when he or she exhibits negative behaviour they ended up reinforcing that behaviour. This results in increased negative interactions between the two and a coercive interaction cycle throughout childhood, as mentioned by Patterson et

al. (1992). In this manner, intolerant parents worsened their children's negative behaviours, potentially causing long-term social behaviours (Kendziora and O'Leary, 1993).

Even though this line of investigation showed great potential for research, there was no way of measuring parental tolerance which was important if one tried to measure the impact of the phenomenon on children's behaviours. For instance, when a child's behaviour is quite normal, some parents perceived the behaviour as deviant, whilst others failed to recognise behaviours that interfered with academic or social functioning (Glascoe and Dworkin, 1995). If we could quantify parental tolerance it would make it easier to predict behavioural problems, plan treatment in advance and mend parent–child relationships. In that way, parenting techniques could be modified to cater to the needs of the parents. For instance, parents who can successfully identify problem behaviours will only need traditional training, but those on either side of the spectrum with particularly high or low tolerance would benefit from a treatment protocol focusing on perceptions of their behaviour towards children, as well as the traditional training. Then, following the assessment, they could use their tolerance levels as a measure of progress in the therapy that they were going through.

Brestan, Foote and Eyberg (2003) conducted a study that explored parental tolerance which aimed to develop measures of parental tolerance for two parents and to evaluate their psychometric properties. At the time, there was no measure of tolerance, so Brestan et al. (2003) constructed the Child Rearing Inventory (CRI), which assessed parental tolerance towards the child's misbehaviour, together with the Annoying Behaviour Inventory (ABI), which measured the intolerance of general behavioural problems. These measures sought to assess the various aspects of the parental tolerance construct and to draw parallels that would validate their findings. The expectation was that the item analysis, estimated internal consistency and estimated stability of the measures would demonstrate reliability. Furthermore, the validity of the CRI and ABI would be supported by the use of hierarchical multiple regressions. Brestan et al. (2003) used race, SES, and social desirability to predict scores on the CRI and ABI scales and to predict the parental ratings of children's social behaviours and treatment progress. Race was considered a factor in the study as the aim was to provide normative data for ethnic group variation, as both race and ethnicity played significant role in how the child socialises and in the parents' views of appropriate or inappropriate behaviours (Baumrind, 1996; Florsheim, Tolan, and Gorman-Smith, 1996; Forehand and Kotchick, 1996; Hackett and Hackett, 1993; Weisz et al., 1988).

How parents reacted to a child's misbehaviour influences how they take action to address it. Overactive parenting could have negative effects if the parent experiences negative emotions, such as embarrassment. Experimental evidence supports this theory. Coplan et al. (2002), for example, found that authoritative mothers are likely to respond with higher degrees of anger and embarrassment to negative child behaviour. Researchers have linked both over-reactive and lax parenting with socially unacceptable behaviour (O'Leary, 1995). Fostering the healthy development of children in families is influenced by external factors as well as the intra-familial factors. For example, numerous studies attempted to explain what exactly influences child development and at what point it becomes maladaptive. Indeed, a study by Jaffee, Caspi, Moffitt, Belsky and Silva (2001) hypothesised that adverse offspring outcomes can be influenced by the mothers' age at first birth (as well as early school leaving, long-term unemployment, early parenthood and violent offending). Children were likelier to have negative and deviant interactions with their mothers if born to teen mothers and more so if they experienced inconsistent and harsh discipline. Teen mothers, compared to older mothers, have lower IQs and reading abilities, less school certification, consequently lower SES and lower scores on family goal orientation, family relationship patterns and the quality of parent-child relationship.

Bowlby (1982/1969, 1973, 1980), for example, developed his attachment theory to explain "inborn behaviours that begin in infancy" called for attachment behaviours "designed to acquire proximity to a primary caregiver," or attachment figures. In his opinion seeking proximity was "designed to protect an individual from physical and psychological threats and to alleviate distress" (Mikulincer, Phillip, and Pereg, 2003, p.78). Furthermore, he suggested a sense of attachment security that develops as a result of appropriate interactions with caregivers or "a sense that the world is a safe place, that one can be relied on protective others, and that one can therefore confidently explore the environment and engage effectively with others" (Mikulincer et al., 2003, p.78). The relationship is dual, with both affecting each other. If parents used anger or over-reactive parenting strategies it is likely that the child would be aggressive as well (Anchor and Thomason, 1977; Nelson, Nelson, Hart, Yang, and Jin, 2006). There is a correlation as high as 0.69 with respect to maternal over-reactivity and disruptive behaviour in children (Arnold et al., 1993; Broidy, 2003).

Anatomical construction and physiological development within the nervous system influence psychological characteristics of children's like temperament and behavioural development, as well as cognitive abilities. Thus, changes in neurology led to children with short tempers, poor behavioural control and insufficiencies in verbal and executive functioning. Issues such as hyperactivity, short temper, attention deficit and aggression, which are often related to OCD, CD and even delinquency, are a result of problems in these three areas of neurological functioning. At-risk infants, those with difficult temperaments and impaired cognitive abilities, are often born to underprivileged families that are ill-equipped to adequately cater to the child's needs due to their lack of financial resources, poor parenting skills and a high stress environment. Consequently, parents respond negatively to the child's behaviours and ended up enabling maladaptive responses and worsening the child's social behaviours. It is in this manner that biological deficits and disrupted social environments develop and maintain early childhood behavioural issues by increasing the likelihood they will be triggered and increase in severity to produce the early-onset persistent offender.

Ample empirical evidence proved that attachment patterns with caregivers predicted certain areas of functioning and their long-term outcomes, such as "social behaviours, social skills, and relationships with adults" (Sroufe et al., 2005). Some other positive outcomes that result from a secure attachment pattern are: (a) better problem-solving strategies (Mikulincer, Phillip, and Pereg, 2003); (b) higher self-esteem (Ooi, Ang, Fung, Wong, and Cai, 2006); (c) less anger and aggression (DeMulder, Denham, Schmidt, and Mitchell, 2000); (d) fewer "social behaviours observed at home" (Lyons-Ruth, 1996), and (e) more appropriate, positive, or empathetic social interactions with peers (Clark and Ladd, 2000; Sroufe, 1983). Researchers studying insecure attachment found that vulnerable children form relations with their caregivers based on inconsistency, inattention, compulsiveness, intrusiveness, rejection and abuse (Mikulincer, Shaver, and Pereg, 2003).

Individuals hesitant in forming attachments tend to constantly search for signs of rejection, neglect and abandonment which caused great anxiety (Mikulincer, Gilath, and Shaver, 1997; Mikulincer, and Horesh, 1999; Mikulincer et al., 2003). From what mothers have reported, hesitation in attachment forming is often associated with poor effect regulation (Moran and Pederson, 1998). There were specific variable consequences associated with attachment avoidance. For instance, children with hesitation issues tend to over-regulate their effects (Cassidy, 1994) in addition to being more aggressive in their social setting (McElwain, Cox,

Burchinal, and Macfie, 2003). These are often the result of inconsistent and intrusive parenting that, in turn, leads to the formation of variable strategies to process information and help them improve the distress they are feeling.

In an environment outside the household, such as school, attachment to caregivers also predicted outcome variables. For instance, according to Pianta, Nimetz, and Bennet (1997), the quality of child-mother contacts predicted teacher reported social adjustment in kindergarten classrooms. Additionally, the quality of interaction of the child with both their mothers and teachers predicts children's performance in pre-school on a measure of concept development, the Boehm Test of Basic Concepts (Boehm, 1971).

Diener, Isabella, Behunin, and Wong (2008) studied attachment in older children with their parents, specifically third and fifth graders, and found that attachment to mothers led to considerably better teacher ratings of social and academic competence. Also, the greater the attachment security with both parents is, the greater the children's perceptions of competence, with this association being more prevalent and stronger in older children. Similar results were found in a study using a sample of six-year-olds (Moss et al., 2006). Increasing development of externalising behaviour two years later was linked with insecure attachment to mothers when compared with teachers. Yet, there are relatively few studies that have successfully established a link between parenting style and relational aggression. That said, it is of note that Brown et al. (2007) found that the mother's behaviour does affect it, especially in girls. A survey of Russian mothers found that relational aggression was a result of less maternal responsiveness and more coercive interactions (Hart et al., 1998). Interestingly, romantic relational aggression in college students was found to be the result of maternal alienation, further emphasising the role of parenting and its long-lasting implications with respect to relational aggression. Relational aggression has not yet been sufficiently explored. It is serious, with a prevalence rate as high as 75 per cent among girls (Sullivan, Farrell andKliewer, 2006), but despite this, hardly any interventions target it, while several focus on physical aggression (Burke et al., 2006). These behaviours remained ignored for the parents failed to address them early, and may continue or even intensify. Moreover, research has yet to explore the possibility that physical aggression may be somehow associated with relational aggression (Werner, Senich, and Przepyszny, 2006).

Risser (2004) studied mothers of school-age children and found that due to their perceived level of cruelty, physical aggression attracted more attention than relational aggression. Wenger, Berg-Cross, and Berg-Cross (1980) conclude that physical aggression is perceived as more harmful than verbal aggression and, evidently, parents are more responsive towards physically aggressive behaviours than verbal or relational aggression (Dodge et al., 1994). However, this research has also failed to take into account gender or ethnicity and has not explored relational aggression. In response to physical aggression, the sequence of the response of mothers is of concern, followed by anger, disappointment and embarrassment (Mills and Rubin, 1990). Mothers admitted they would use stricter discipline to resolve physical aggression than relational aggression.

In a different context the value of the interaction that parents, predominantly mothers, have with their children is a strong interpreter of children's potential development. It is on these early interactions that children base their expectations of future interactions in terms of how they expected others to behave towards them. They can form internal representations or models and attachment figures, as well as define their own 'self-worth' and how accessible the caregiver is to them exclusively through these initial interactions. The models that develop as a result influence the children's future expectations when trying to form new relationships or meet new people (Bretherton, 1987). Several research studies that focus on early attachment have deduced that it has a very important effect on many areas of functioning in children (Sroufe, 1983).

Even though children may be trained in how to avoid deviant behaviours, they receive little to no training in pro-social skills (Patterson et al., 1989). Moreover, they receive no attention or inappropriate attention when they perform pro-social acts meaning, that in addition to being antisocial, they are socially inexperienced. Their adjustment skills are hindered and maladaptive habits progress into other settings like school. Therefore, there was a negative impact from the early conduct problems on development in the middle years of childhood, which results in the rejection of the child by their peers as well as academic failure. Research suggests that academic performance is hindered by non-compliant and disruptive behaviours (Baden and Howe, 1992; Barry et al, 2005; Broidy et al, 2003). Therefore, these early conduct problems harm development during middle childhood, with the child being rejected by their normal peer group and exhibiting high levels of academic failure. Furthermore, peer and academic rejection led them to compliance and commitment to deviant peer groups in

late childhood and adolescence. As a result, they carry on the delinquent behaviour throughout their lives.

That said, it is feasible that many of these issues are environmental, with children's exposure to domestic violence being a core issue of note when assessing the utility and viability of unacceptable behaviours. In a different study where the investigation demonstrated that the relationship between parenting behaviours and exposure to family violence showed children's ability to balance their needs stemmed from their exposure to violence (Curtis, DooleyandPhipps, 2004; Burke et al, 2006). In a study in line with above, the researcher inspected the connections between child welfare and their environment i.e. location 'neighbourhood' with a set of characteristics based on quality. The study found that the relationship between the typesof neighbourhood qualities by investigating several measures of health and well-being. Building upon this perspective, it is of note that numerous studies indicate that children are open to domestic violence frequently experience social behaviour problem leading to violence (Fantuzzo et al. 1991; Fantuzzo and Lindquist 1989; Hazen et al. 2006; Hughes 1988; Hughes and Barad 1983).

The same was confirmed by Wolfe et al. (2003) where a meta-analysis of 41 studies over25 years showed a strong link between children's experience of domestic violence and emotional problems. Additionally, male children behaviours included aggression and hyperactivity usually associated with externalist's depiction of antisocial, active, and distractible behaviours. In the same study, female children with behaviour labelled usually as anxiety and withdrawal was more associated with an internal premise on child behaviour (Leinonen et al, 2003). However, both studies concluded that children experience of domestic violence was not the final piece of the problem with some children still succeeding despite the experience of violence between their parental figures. In the end, no reason for this result is given in both studies.

One final issue of note sees gender differences being a core issue and constituent party to this issue. There is evidence that gender differences in the types of problems can be explained by the different approaches parents take when addressing issues of aggression when displayed by girls versus and boys. Additionally, there may also be a relationship between parenting reactions and practices. Kim et al. (2005) found that parents might respond more to children exhibiting socially unacceptable behaviours based on the child's gender. For example,

parents are more likely to respond to physically aggressive behaviour in girls than in boys, as physically aggressive behaviour in boys is comparatively more socially acceptable (Mills and Rubin, 1990; Hastings and Coplan, 1999). This suggested a possible explanation for gender differences in aggression patterns, as socialisation practices such as reaction to problem behaviours vary depending on the gender of the individual of concern. Nevertheless, studies have yet to examine the differences in parents' reactions. (Scher and Sharabany, 2005) reported mothers of boys' experience more parenting stress than mothers of girls, while intimate partner violence increases child abuse risk, but only in female children (Merrill et al. 1996).

2.4 Acceptable and Unacceptable Behaviours

Since the social world is complex, there are many rules and expectations for everybody. According to Carlo (2014, p. 220) adult human beings regulate the social expectations and, therefore, judge the right and socially unacceptable behaviour among children. The morality of a child is multifaceted, just like that of adults and comprises cognitive, affective and behavioural concepts. Adults have set expectations of children in their young age, depending on their gender. On the other hand, since adult men are masculine, small boys are allowed to compete for anything they require and when they fail to do so adults think that the child has a problem (Horowitz, 2014, p.11). A study by Perlmutter (2014, p.237) shows that the adults are the behavioural experts in any child's life. Evidently, in the past people used to punish kids for the actions they never wanted while rewarding the children for those that were appealing to them.

A study by Al- Eissa et al. (2016, p. 567), showed that acceptable behaviours in children in Riyadh City are gentle, humble and likable, while socially unacceptable actions are portrayed in fighting, biting, causing tantrums and any other misery. Children that are humble make a lot of friends and even share their playing kits with other kids.

2.4.1   A Gender Perspective

One of the striking social changes in the last 70 years has been the access given to women into the labour market in much of the developed world. In contemporary societies, mostly mothers with children spend less time at home. Meanwhile, men's typical participation in

childcare and housework has increased. Nevertheless, women in most families take care of domestic responsibilities. For example, when considering behavioural succession among children aged 22 to 33 months boys show a lesser degree of effortful control than girls (Kochanska et al., 2000). By and large, girls develop faster than boys in the physical, verbal and socio-emotional aspects of functioning (Erne, 1992; Taylor, 1985). These gender differences often emerge and can be observed around toddlerhood and notably expand with age so that by the time children embark on school, girls lead boys by about one year in performance (Erne, 1992). Earlier research has suggested that the characteristics and qualities of parent–child interaction, which is the primary context for developing children's effortful control, may be restrained by the child's gender. Researchers have shown that parents may respond to girls and boys differently (Keenan and Shaw, 1997; Smetana, 1989). For instance, boys tend to receive more physical punishment than girls (Mahoney et al., 2000) and mothers tend to use positive teaching more with temperamentally difficult girls than with similar boys (Maccoby, Snow, and Jacklin, 1984). This gives girls a smoother transition through the developmental stages.

Interestingly, it was more common for children with difficult temperaments to be subjected to parental discipline, both positive and negative, when compared to children with an easy temperament (Belsky, 1997a, 1997b). Similarly, girls are less vulnerable to suboptimal parenting or low maternal responsiveness than boys (Shaw et al., 1998). Collectively, these findings indicate that boys, who generally have lower regulatory abilities, are more vulnerable to parental behaviours (Van Zeijl et al., 2007). Boys are also more vulnerable to receiving suboptimal parenting (Maccoby et al., 1984) which, collectively, leads to gender differences in externalising behaviours.

In early childhood there are no gender differences in intellectual ability (Finegan, Niccols, and Sitarenios, 1992; Harrington, Kimbrell, and Dai, 1992). For instance, a study found that girls and boys aged three to five did not differ in cognitive ability when measured (Harrington et al., 1992). However, in the case of verbal ability and language skills, females have a clear advantage (Maccoby and Jacklin, 1974; Morisset, Barnard, and Booth, 1995), which is why, when these parameters were included in some studies, the results show a female advantage in childhood intellect, using the following scales: Woodcock-Johnson Psycho-educational Battery Wechsler Pre-school and Primary Scale of Intelligence (e.g., Brooks-Gunn, 1986).

Finally, there is well-documented evidence linking gender and externalising behaviours. Boys tend to manifest more social behaviours than girls and, therefore, more boys than girls show severe and chronic externalising behaviours (Card et al., 2008; Cote et al., 2001, 2002, 2006; Deater-Deckard et al., 1998; Romano et al., 2005; Schaeffer et al., 2006). Consequently, boys are more likely to be referred for treatment for internalising problems than girls (Green, Clopton, and Pope, 1996). Furthermore, boys are three to four times more likely to be diagnosed with ADHD, ODD, and CD (Barkley, 1996; Campbell, 2000; Hinshawand Anderson, 1996; McCabe et al., 2004). Stable gender differences in externalising behaviour emerge around the ages of three or four and are persistent throughout childhood (Keenan and Shaw, 1997; Loeberand Hay, 1997).

Stable differences in toddlers are less likely (Archer and Lloyd, 2002), but an increasing number of studies have successfully demonstrated certain differences in toddlers (Archer, 2004; Cote et al., 2006; Fagot and Leve, 1998; Romano et al., 2005; Rubin et al., 2003; Tremblay et al., 1999; Zahn-Waxier et al., 1990). In a recent study of aggressive behaviours in toddlers, gender differences were found in 17-month-old children, with 5 per cent of boys, but a mere 1 per cent of girls in the sample exhibiting aggression (Baillargeon et al., 2007). However, the possibility that other factors determine externalising social behaviour always remains (Stanger et al, 2004). For instance, there are more notable precursors to the increase of externalising behaviours in boys up to three years of life (Shaw, Keenan, and Vondra, 1994). Moreover, externalising problems may result in variable consequences as far as the child's gender is concerned. In an equivalent study of children aged 5 to 15, only boys' problem behaviours persisted from childhood into adulthood (Broidy et al., 2003; Roberts and Caspi, 2003).

Notably, most ofsocial science that is contemporary is linked to the impact that the fathers have on the socio-emotional development of the children. It is acknowledged that fathers are vital influences on the lives of their children in diverse societies. As such, the actions of the fathers depend on the social context that in the end shapes impacts that are variable, with the role of fathers being greater than just being second adults (Ainsworth, Bell, and Stayton, 1991). Fathers that are involved facilitate benefits that are positive to their second generation. As such, no other person has such an ability of directly influencing their children's wellbeing. On the other hand, the fathers that are absent from their children perceive themselves as not

being part of their children's life. As such, in accordance with ChakrabartiandFombonne (2005), they inhibit the social growth as well as the confidence of their children. More so, one piece ofresearchindicates that children who are well fathered tend to be increasingly social as they become adults (Cookman, 2005). Notably, the children with their fathers involved in their lives tend to be socially as well as academically advantaged over those with fathers that are distant or without a relationship. Research indicates that the fathers who are involved with their children have fewer behavioural problems. Of importance, the results of the research hold despite where a father lives separately from their children, for instance, in divorce settings (Bilge and Kaufman, 1983). As such, it offers an insight into the involvement of the father and not their residing home or location (Devore, 2006).

2.4.2 The role of mothers

As demonstrated previously (see section on 'Attachment theory – p 49), mothers perceive themselves as vital in assisting their children to develop their self-concept. Importantly, children acquire as well as organise the information that they learn about themselves to comprehend their relationships as well as their social realm. Thus, the process of development of the children is directly linked to the emerging skills of the children's cognition as well as the social relationships of their families, both of which assist in the development of the self-concept. Self-concept is the culmination of self-knowledge: the traits of personality, the physical attributes, goals, abilities and roles as well as values (Ainsworth et al, 1991). Notably, the parent can assist in the development of the self-concept that is positive. However, the parent requires taking into consideration various simple items in their daily lives. The building of the child's relationship should be the first step in the development of self-esteem in the child. Therefore, the parent should always take into consideration the fact that the child is required at all times to receive love that is unconditional from the parent. As such, an environment that is not threatening both at home and at school is paramount for success nurturing in the development of the self-concept (self-esteem) that contributes to self-confidence (Chakrabarti and Fombonne, 2005).

Again, and as demonstrated previously (p4 6), mothers are the first natural teachers since they understand the child better in comparison to others. Besides, they understand what the child

requires to learn. So, it is vital for the mothers to teach their children good habits for their entire lifetime.

2.4.3   The role of fathers

However, as the role of fathers has not been explored in Saudi Arabia one of the key objectives of this thesis is to investigate the fathers' perspectives, thus the following paragraphs discuss the relevant research.

Father's perception of child behaviour influences children from a socio-emotional perspective. As such, the actions and the impact that fathers have depend on the social context that shapes the variable outcomes. As discussed earlier the role of fathers is greater than just being second adults (p 56). Fathers who are involved facilitate benefits that are positive to their second generation. As such, no other person has such an ability of directly influencing their children's wellbeing. On the other hand, fathers who are absent from their children perceive themselves as not being part of their children's life. As such, in accordance with Chakrabarti and Fombonne (2005), they inhibit the social growth as well as the confidence of their children. More so, children who are well fathered tend to be increasingly social as they become adults (Roberts and Caspi, 2003; Asendorpf et al, 2008). Notably, the children with their fathers involved in their lives tend to be socially and academically advantaged over those with fathers that are distant or without a relationship. Research indicates that the fathers who are involved with their children have fewer behavioural problems. Of importance, the results of the research hold despite where a father lives separately from their children. As such, it offers an insight into the involvement of the father that is not dependent on their residing home or location.

Fathers view themselves as the key to the wellbeing of the emotional aspect of the children. Thus, they take up the role of disciplinarian as well as caretakers. Studies indicate that where fathers are supportive, involved and affectionate they can contribute to the development of the child's language, socialisationand cognitive abilities. Hence, fathers perceive themselves as important to the academic achievement of their children as well as fostering of their self-esteem. Eley et al. (2003) are of the opinion that the relationship between the father and the

child can significantly influence their other relationships from the time they are born to their death. It also includes the relationships with their friends, spouses and partners.

The interactions of the father during the early years of the child contribute to the formation of patterns which will project their successive relationships. Therefore, these fathers accept this responsibility as it will affect the child's relationship with others as well as their view of the things that are accepted in the society and are lovable. In addition, children during that age also learn ways that are sophisticated in relating to others. For instance, there is the development of empathy (Catalano and Catalano, 2014), yet the children that experience it realise that they can influence others in a positive manner, mainly through offering assistance. As a result, the fostering of empathy seems to be an integral part of the development within the various cultures. In addition, there is the negative side of empathy where it teaches children their impact on others. According to Haryanto and Moutinho(2016), while toddlers lack the means of directing their anger, the pre-schoolers can be able to direct their aggression to inflicting harm on others wilfully.

Fathers will tend to relate to their children, particularly the girls, in a way that they will learn how to be treated by men. As such, the girls will tend to view the aspects that are familiar with them on their successive relationships based on their experience with their father that was the first representation of a male figure (Lamb, 2004). On the flip side, fathers view their relationship with their sons as role models. Consequently, boys will seek to resemble their fathers. As a result, they will attempt to obtain the approval of their father in whatever they attempt to do. Notably, they will replicate the behaviour of their father that is familiar as well as successful. Therefore, where the father was dominating, abusive as well as controlling, the same patterns would be visible in their sons. However, where the fathers were supportive, protective, kind and loving, the boys would also emulate the same. This is consistent with Pesu, Viljaranta and Kaisa (2016) who state that human beings are animals that are social and, as such, their behaviour can be modelled.

Children between 3 to 7 years are significantly influenced by the interaction patterns during their early stages of life since it is what they understand. Consequently, the children are susceptible to the early patterns, thus they incorporate the qualities of behaviour in their social exchange repertoire. According to research, fathers who maintain a good relationship with their daughters tend to influence their girls in a way that their mathematics performance

is better than the rest of the girls (Martinent, Naisseh, Ferrand, andHautier, 2013). In the same breath, the boys with involved fathers tend to perform better on their tests of achievement. In addition, (Pillitteri, 2010) is of the opinion that the boys that bond with their fathers have a stable sense of themselves.

2.4.4 The Importance of father role

Studies indicate that where fathers are supportive, involved as well as affectionate, they can contribute to the development of the child's language, socialisation coupled with cognitive abilities. Hence, the fathers perceive themselves as important to the academic achievement of their children as well as fostering of their self-esteem. Eley et al. (2003) are of the opinion that the relationship between the father and the child can significantly influence their other relationships from the time they are born to their death. Remarkably, the common premise in modern social science is that the relationship is correlated to the impact that fathers have on the socio-emotional development of the children. It is recognised that fathers equally have vital persuasive effects on the development of their children in varied societies. For example, the actions of the fathers depend on the socio-cultural context that in the end form the force that causes change to the child developmental trajectory.

Cookman (2005) indicates that children who developed well are linked to the father's social perception to be increasingly social as they become adults (Cookman, 2005). Particularly, the fathers who are involved with their children tend to be socially as well as academically advantaged compared to those with fathers that are distant or without a relationship. Research indicates that the fathers that are involved with their children have fewer behavioural problems (Bilge and Kaufman, 1983).

2.4.5 Ethnicity and Parental Expectations

Despite several theories that expressed the potential influence cultural factors have over parenting practices, little research has explored how cultural differences influence parental concern and reactions towards aggressive behaviours (Coard et al., 2004). Even though they have included diverse samples when conducting research, little attention was paid to

discrepancies within different ethnic groups. Pagano et al. (2002) have explored parental socialisation practices among European-American and African-American parents. Their study showed that African-American parents exhibited a higher degree of social concern while European-American parents a higher degree of individualism. Deater-Deckard et al. (1996) reported that due to harsher punishments, African-American children are less likely to exhibit socially unacceptable behaviours such as disobeying elders. Similarly, Lansford et al. (2005) conducted a cross national study involving parents from India, China, Thailand, Philippines, Kenya and Italy. They found significant differences in the norms around disciplining methods, with physical discipline more common in some countries than in others.

2.5 Socially Acceptable and Unacceptable Behaviour in Different Islamic Countries-

2.5.1 Parental perspective

According to the study of Abdi (2010), it has been found there is a significant difference between the socially acceptable and unacceptable behaviour among the boy child and girl child. In a country like Iran, the girls are higher rated on social skills and boys are found to have the problem behaviour. This gender difference is specifically based on the societal expectations from both genders. In Iran the gender roles and gender type behaviour are specifically influenced by the cultural reactions and stereotypes. Girls are expected to display positive social behaviour in comparison to boys. The girls in Iran are also expected to be gentle, responsive, kind, empathic and prosocial than boys at very early age. The boys are expected to be outgoing and less cooperative in household tasks. Therefore, there has been a stereotypic distribution of gender roles that pressurize girl to have more well-controlled behaviour than boys.

Nourani (1999) has also found that social and adaptive behaviour of children in pre-schools is also influenced due to socio-economic factor. Children from the families with low education status displayed lower social and adaptive behaviour in comparison to children from the families with higher socio-economic status(Semke et al, 2010). Though, significant gender difference was found. However, the studies display that education level of parents brings the

difference between the socially acceptable and unacceptable social behaviour of children. For example, children from families with parents have low educational status display poor cooperation, responsibility and assertion, whereas children from educated families are likely to display higher cooperation, sense of responsibility and assertion. Different child rearing styles develop different expectations from children. Therefore, the socially acceptable and unacceptable behaviour is also influenced by the perspective of parents (Durlak, Weissberg, andPachan, 2010). Parents who are more educated are sensitive and concerned about the social behaviour of children than parents with low education (Semke et al, 2010).

Education of parents is considered as an important factor in development of socially adaptive functioning. Such as, the families with high socio-economic status are likely to support various social and cultural activities for children, such as art activities, participation in games and sports, entertainment and hobbies that contribute to development of social behaviour among children at home (Nourani, 1999). The families with lower education and lower socio-economic status are mainly traditional and conservative families and such families are less likely to encourage children less towards such activities and socialization. Therefore, it has been found that parents with high socio-economic status in Islamic countries understand the important of social skills and consider polite and quiet children as 'good', while such thing is not found in latter parents (Nourani, 1999). The studies have found that families and parents with low socio-economic status are not aware of the standards and norms of acceptable social behaviour (Elliott, Racine, andBusse, 1995; Feng andCartledge, 1996; Harrison, 1990).

There are various studies that have found that social skills are higher among girls and problem behaviour is mainly displayed in behaviour of boys across various cultures. Therefore, it can also be said that social skills and problem behaviour may not be culturally-bound (Abdi, 2010). However, one fact is that more conservative culture is likely to display difference in acceptable and unacceptable behaviour among children. Study of Ghorbani et al, (2004) found that collectivist and individualist values of parents and families also affect the acceptable and unacceptable social behaviour among children. Therefore, this study confirmed that despite cultural differences in Iranian and American families, the social skills and problem behaviour among children are similar (Ghorbani et al, 2004).Pakistani society is also highly discriminating towards the socially acceptable behaviour and unacceptable behaviour of children. The socially acceptable behaviour for Pakistani female child is to be clam tolerant and empathetic and parents has the right over deciding that what girl would wear and how she will live her life. The socially unacceptable behaviour for girls at home is being disobedient, irresponsible, argumentative and disobedient. However, a male child can

be expected to be demanding, disobedient and stubborn, which is mainly due to cultural and social environment in the country (Hameed-ur-RehmanandSadruddin, 2012).

Apart of above mentioned Islamic countries and implicit difference between Western culture and culture in Arab Society, significant changes are being observed in UAE. UAE has undergone significant development and significant social and economic changes. This development has resulted in bringing many changes in the tradition of society. Parents are tender and affectionate towards children during infancy (Novaes, and Ali, 2014). However, when the child grows and mainly when reaches the puberty age parents display authoritarian style due to which girl child specially is required to display obedience and must be subordinate. Patriarchal society has well-defined roles for sons and daughters. However, there is no significant difference between the acceptable and unacceptable social behaviour for girls and boys, as both are expected to display compliance to the father's instructions and expect children to be disciplined and guided with right values. Parents in UAE are overprotective and do not promote independence and autonomy of children. Socially acceptable behaviour for them is to live according to religious and cultural values (Stocker and Khairia Ghuloum, 2014).

The difference in parenting and behavioural expectations from children is also found in Turkish culture. It has been found that 98 per cent of the population of Turkey are Muslims and display collectivist culture. The culture in Turkey emphasises interdependence and inhibition of personal needs and desires, which is also found in the culture of Saudi Arabia. The culture in Turkey states that one should give more attention to needs and desires of others and must suppress personal desires. In order to give such values to children and to expect such values in children's behaviour outcomes, the parents are more authoritarian. This is displayed through more restraining behaviour during social play and expecting more obedience from children (Ispa et al. 2004). It has also been found that in Turkey more obedience and dependence is expected from daughters than from sons. This also leads to more external control over daughters in comparison to sons. In the process of socialisation, autonomy, independence, self-interest, and self-resilience are not appreciated in Turkish culture (Kagitcibasi, 2013). However, it cannot be said that parents, who are more demanding and restrictive are also rejecting or lack warmth. In Islamic culture, restrictive parenting is directed toward the goals of making children more respectful and obedient towards elders, which does not mean the lack of warmth.

2.5.2 Impact of Parenting on Children's Behaviour

It has been found that parenting styles also have significant impact on the emotional and behavioural problems of children. The actions and behaviour of children is influenced by different parenting styles. Such styles are influenced by the expectations of parents from children. Parenting styles specifically create a social environment for the children at homes that influence the emotional and social development of children(Liem, Cavell, andLustig, 2010; Pezzella, 2010; Schaffer, Clark, andJeglic, 2009; Steward and Bond, 2002; Timpano, Keough, Mahaffey, Schmidt, and Abramowitz, 2010). Parents have different perspectives and expectations from the behaviour of children and a significant difference is found in the parenting styles across various cultures. It has been found that parenting typologies such as authoritative, permissive, authoritarian and neglectful were some important terms that were developed by Baumrind. These terms have been considered as the pivotal element in defining the attitude and behaviour of parents towards children (Joshi, Sharma, andMehra, 2009).

Authoritative Parenting Style refers to the parenting, which is supportive, responsive and attached towards the children. The two important elements of this parenting styles are responsiveness and demandingness. The parents are required to be highly responsive, as well as highly demanding towards the acceptable attitude and behaviour of children (Rosli, 2014). Authoritarian Parenting Style refers to the parents, who display low control and support towards children and request their parents to follow specific rules of family (Rosli, 2014). However, this parenting style displays lower responsiveness, but higher demandingness from children. Permissive Parenting Style includes those parents who are highly supportive towards their children, but are also highly lenient towards them. Such parenting style is high on responsiveness and lacks demandingness (Rosli, 2014). Such parents do not have much expectations of the attitude and behaviour of children, but are responsive towards needs of their children. Neglectful Parenting Style shows that parents lack in providing support to their children and also display lower levels of monitoring of their children's behaviour. Such parents are low responsive and low demanding. Such parents are also called as disengaged parents (Sabattiniand Leaper, 2004) and 'neglectful/uninvolved'(Alegre, 2011). Therefore, different parenting styles affect the attitude and behaviour of children and also impact the expectations of parents towards the socially acceptable and unacceptable behaviour of children (Zahran, 2011).

The interaction between children and parents is influenced and is associated with the cultural environment and cultural surroundings (KeshavarzandBaharudin, 2009).Therefore, it would

not be wrong to say that culture and religion, influences the various domains of families including the way parents socialise their children. Culture is specifically divided in two categories, individualistic and collectivist. The parenting behaviour of parents is similar in each cultural group. However, some of the parenting behaviours can also cross between the collectivist and individualist culture. It has also been found that even when the parenting behaviour is similar across culture, the behaviour, attitude and development of the children could be different. For example, parents in Middle East are firm and controlling and children are used to of such parenting and showed less signs of depression (Dwairy, 2008). However, the depression rate among the African American Children is higher if the parents are controlling and firm towards children (Pezzella, 2010). Therefore, the developmental outcomes of the children are based on parenting and the influence of culture on parenting. People from different cultures display different parenting styles. However, it has been found that Muslim families are likely to display three kinds of parenting styles-authoritarian, authoritative and permissive (Dwairy et al, 2006b; Khodaii, Medanipori, andNaghdi, 2008). This evidence leads to a question that whether the parenting style is due to Muslim religion or the due to the various other cultures that impact parenting of Muslim parents where they reside. This is because the socially acceptable and unacceptable behaviour among the children from Islamic background could be different among the Muslim families living in Middle East, India, or Pakistan.

Therefore, it can be said that there is a significant effect of parenting on behaviour of children and also help in development of socially acceptable and unacceptable behaviour of children. The type of parenting also has different outcome expectations from children. Evidence has shown that authoritarian parenting in Asian Americans and African Americans have sometimes shown connection to desired outcomes of children such as academic success, whereas the authoritarian parenting in Middle East and other Islamic countries is associated with well-being of children (Chao, 1994; DwairyandMenshar, 2006). The emotions and behaviour of the children can be affected with the treatment that parents provide to children. The main purpose of parenting is that they want their children to act according to their scale of acceptable and unacceptable behaviour. However, the studies have also argued that inconsistency in the parenting can also result in creating behaviour problems among children. For example, if one parent displays authoritarian parenting, while the other parent displays authoritative parenting, can increase behavioural problems among children (Dwairy, 2010). The goals of parenting are different and those parents have different expectations from behavioural aspects of their children.

Parental responsiveness and demandingness are the two important dimensions that impact the emotional response of the children and also influence their social behaviour. Parental responsiveness is also the emotional response of the parents towards the needs of children and it is displayed through support, warmth and acceptance. However, parental demandingness displays the parental expectations towards social behaviour of children, where they want children to be more responsible and mature. It is sometimes also seen as the control over the children. Saudi Arabian parents display the mix of parenting style. However, the Saudi parents are highly demanding, but also display the combination of permissive parenting (high warmth) and some elements of authoritarian parenting (high control) and create authoritative parenting style (Greenspan, 2006). Such parents are responsive, supporting, demanding and also provide guidance to children.

Connection with the family is considered as the most significant quality that is important for the socially acceptable behaviour among the children from collectivist culture. The socially acceptable behaviour among the children in countries like Saudi Arabia, Turkey and other Muslim countries is associated with the feelings of closeness, mutuality and bonding. Children displaying the strong inclination towards the family and respect the norms and values of parents and family are considered as socially acceptable. The key element of socialisation goal is associated with the orientation to the larger group. Whereas the individualistic countries are tending to focus on personal growth and individual well-being, the collectivist culture encourages people to take actions after considering its impact on family and larger community in order to achieve harmony within the group (Khodaii, Medanipori, andNaghdi, 2008).

2.5.3 Parenting in Individualistic and Collectivist Culture

The collectivist culture is mainly seen in Islamic countries, where the individuals are expected to hinder the expression of their personal desires and are required to think more about others. This value is expected in order to display the respect towards others and build positive relationships with others. Obeying authority is the specific quality of the collectivist culture, under which the children are expected to obey the authority of their parents and do and believe what their parents want them to do and believe (Dwairy andMenshar, 2006). On the other hand, the individuals in individualistic culture are expected to be self-resilient and independent. Individualism is considered as the natural quality of the culture that is expanding. For example, children in Western Culture are required to be independent and self-reliant. Therefore, there is a difference in the basic goals and values that differentiate the

parenting styles in collectivist and individualistic culture. The study of Rudy and Grusec (2001) showed that a collectivist culture displays high level of control over children and fewer mental problems among children. Authoritarian parenting is specifically found in collectivist culture, here the parents control their children and want them to display their traditional and cultural values and norms. Keshaverz and Baharudin (2009) has mentioned in their study that religion have significant role to play in determining the characteristics of individualism and collectivism.

This could be understood with an example of Islamic culture, and religion, where according to Islamic teaching it is important that family members should stand together in difficult situations and must help each other to solve problems. Islamic teaching also encourages them to take care of their family members and their neighbours. Islam also teaches them to share their food with others and provide shelter to other people when required. Therefore, one of the important principle of Islam is called as 'syura' or consultation, which states that people can't live alone or cannot islet oneself from other because sometimes they could need others. Therefore, this principle of togetherness is a significant characteristic of collectivism. Islam has been the significant element in shaping the Saudi Culture and also making it distinctive from other cultures. The Quran and Sunna of the Prophet Mohammed, has become the important part of everyday activities of people in Saudi Arabia and thus also influence the thinking, behaviour and parenting styles.

According to the study of Greenfield and Suzuki (1998) in the countries with collectivist culture, parents are more involved in controlling the behaviour of their children and children are specifically taught not to be egocentric and rather be more tolerant and considerate towards their people and surroundings. The children raised in collectivist culture are found to be more resilient and higher agreeableness towards instructions of parents in comparison to children, who are raised in individualistic culture (Pezzella, 2010). The difference in both culture occur due to the different beliefs and different customs in families. The parents in collectivist culture may display more control and may be more restrictive towards the social behaviour of children. However, such parents do not necessarily lack warmth and support for their children. The parental goals for social behaviour of children can be different according to their culture and religious influence (Khodaii, Medanipori, and Naghdi. 2008).

2.5.4 Muslim Parenting and Research Gaps

According to the above evidences, it has been found that much of the investigation on parenting style is mainly done on the non-Muslim population and thus this gap in evidences results in poor understanding of Muslim parenting practices and their effectiveness (Whiteside-Mansell, Bradley, and McKelvey, 2009; Wissink, Dekovic, and Meijer, 2006). However, some of the studies have shown and focused on discussing the Muslim parenting style and how it affects the behaviour outcome and academic achievement of children. The study of Assadi, Zokaei, Kaviani, Mohammadi and Ghaeli (2007) considered the impact of socio-cultural context on the parenting styles and academic achievement of Iranian children. The results of the study revealed that educated and wealthy families are more likely to display authoritative parenting style. The families with low socio-economic status are likely to display authoritarian parenting styles and their children are likely to have low academic achievement. The cross regional study conducted by Dwairy et al (2006) informs about the influence of parenting on the behaviour outcomes of children. The study also found that authoritative parenting displays better connectedness of children with their families and are more obedient. The study informs that Muslim families are likely to have strong relationship with other family members. However, there are no evidences about this finding that why Muslims have close relationship with family members. Although, the behaviour and family values of the parents develop their expectations towards the behaviour of their children Dwairy et al (2006).

Therefore, it has been said that children from authoritative families tend to have a strong bond and connection with their family members and display less behavioural and emotional problems. This may be because the children from Muslim families are likely to accept the control and firmness of parents and parents control their behaviour to develop socially acceptable behaviour among their children according to their personal belief and cultural perspective. However, the findings of the study of Dwairy (2008) contradicted with the findings of the previous study and informed that children in Saudi Arabia display less emotional and behavioural problems under authoritarian parenting. Authoritarian parenting informs more demandingness from the children. Demandingness can be associated with the cultural and religious expectations of parents from their children. However, these evidences display that there is an inconsistency in the relationship between parenting style and behavioural outcomes of children. The understanding about the socially acceptable and unacceptable behaviour of children could be different from parent to parent.

2.5.5 Teacher's Perspective

Studies have found the difference between the socially unacceptable and acceptable behaviour among children and perspective of parents and teachers. The study of Nourani (1999) found the difference between perspective of teachers and parents and found that if the child is more behaviourally adapted, then child will be less externalised, while teachers believe that more the child is behaviourally adapted then child will be internalised. The teachers expect children to have effective social interaction. Peer interaction is an important social skill that is expected to be displayed by children in Iran. However, this is in contradiction with the perspective of the parents with low education and socio-economic status for whom social interaction is not an important behaviour. Teachers provide more importance to peer related social skill, while parents focus more on adult child social skills. Therefore, the acceptable and unacceptable social behaviour for children is defined differently by parents and teachers, which is due to the social demands of the situations in which children come and interact (Nourani, 1999).

The study of Mohamed (2017) explored the gender as an important factor that helps in defining the social skills and socially acceptable behaviour according to teachers in Oman. In Islamic society, like Oman, the gender disparity is found in preschools that result in internalising and externalising behaviour in male children. Teachers are more likely to maintain close relationship with females that predict better social skills in female child than in male child. Girls display higher scores for closeness and cooperation, therefore, also predicts that gender disparity in schools also affects the social behaviour of children (VerschuerenandKoomen, 2012). Parents often want their children to be quiet and calm, whereas teachers have different expectations towards acceptable social behaviour. Teachers expect children to be outgoing, should speak when they are wronged and must reply to peer teasing. The study of Mohamed, (2017) has also found that conflict between teacher and child also linked to internalising and externalising behaviour of children. This result is similar to the result where the negative social and home environment increases the problem behaviour among children.

The study of Çimen, and Koçyiğit (2010), conducted in Turkey, is associated with examining the social skills in preschool children and perspective of teachers. The study states that social behaviour is influenced by social skills. The important social skills for children are responsibility, cooperation and independence. Responsibility includes the attitude of having effective communication with adults and 'claiming ownership of personal property and work'

(p. 5613). Cooperation includes sharing, helping others and applying rules and regulations. This implies that students are required to be independent and must exercise autonomy. Teachers consider it to be an important skill of social behaviour. However, parents in Islamic countries do not consider autonomy and independence acceptable for children, because children are expected to follow the instructions of parents and are not expected to be independent (Avan, Rahbar, and Raza, 2007). It has also been found that close relationship of parents with children is associated with less traditional values still the majority of parents find difficulty in promoting independence of children, which seems to be very important for the teachers.

For teachers social and emotional learning is significant for the academic achievement and socially acceptable behaviour in the classrooms is significantly associated with academic achievement. This finding is different from the perspective of parents towards socially acceptable behaviour, as for teachers' responsibility is associated with independence and autonomy, whereas for parents' responsibility is associated with family and traditional values (Beazidou, BotsoglouandAndreou, 2013).The study of Iranian preschool children explains that that teachers have higher expectations for adaptive social behaviour of children than families with less educated parents. The behaviour of teachers can also be biased towards the social behaviour of children with less educated parents than children from highly educated parents (Nourani, 1999).

The difference in the teacher's perspective is also seen from the lens of individualist and collectivist cultural views. It has been found that belief is the most important element that plays a significant role in shaping the perspective of teachers (Kaurand Noman, 2015). The cultural and religious orientation of the teachers also influences their belief and their expectations towards the socially acceptable and unacceptable behaviour from children. The collectivist and individualist culture influence the belief of teachers about teaching and learning. There are two different kind of teaching styles that are adopted by the teachers. These teaching styles are teacher-centred and children-centred teaching (Kaurand Noman, 2015). The teachers in individualist culture mainly rely on individualistic approaches, such as encouraging and motivating children to be independent thinkers, expressive towards their opinions and being assertive (Faitar, 2006). However, such teachers also use the open criticism towards children as an important strategy for bringing further improvement. Individualistic teaching environment are also student-centred and focus on bringing conceptual change in the children towards the understanding of the world. The teachers from

individualistic culture are more likely to focus on the individual capabilities of the children and focus on the individual needs and expectations of the children.

However, study of Kaurand Noman, (2015) finds that teachers in collectivist culture are likely to use transmissive and teacher-centred teaching. The individuals in the collectivist culture are considered as the part of the group rather than as an individual. The collectivist teachers are assumed to be teacher-centric and such teachers are also grounded in their cultural belief. This is also seen in evidences from some of the studies discussed above, where the perspective of the teachers towards girls and boys in the class is influenced by their cultural and religious background (Verschueren and Koomen, 2012). The studies have found that Saudi Arabia displays teacher-oriented education system. The focus of individualistic teaching is mainly on the academic achievement of children, while the teachers from collectivist culture are mainly consider teaching as social responsibility and serving society. Therefore, a significant difference in the perspective of teachers is found on the basis of the dominating culture in the society.

2.6 Causes and Influences of Behavioural Issues – A Socio-Economic – Educational Focus

Family income, parental education and occupation, parental age and marital status and family size are some of the criteria included in socioeconomic factors (Atzaba-Poria et al., 2004; Deater-Deckard et al., 1998). Taking into account one or more of these factors, a person's socio-economic status (SES) can be determined. According to several research studies, there is an inverse relationship between social behaviours and SES (e.g., Amone-P'Olak et al., 2009; Barry et al., 2005).In pre-schoolers with lower SES, there is evidence of a lower IQ scores impaired academic performance and conduct problems (Kim-Cohen et al., 2004) which continue through adolescence (Lahey et al., 2008). Additionally, adolescent mental health problems such as aggression, delinquency, attention problems and externalising behaviours are often associated with lower SES (Amone-P'Olak et al., 2009). SES has been linked to serious psychological problems (e.g., Pineda et al., 1999), therefore, and can influence outcomes of children who are treated for aggression, inattention and opposition or defiance, especially when the parents are poorly educated (indicating that their SES is low). (Dodge et al, 2006; Rieppi et al., 2002)

A child's outcomes can be predicted by socioeconomic factors. There was a higher risk of ADHD in children with poorly educated parents (St. Sauver et al., 2004). Additionally, externalising behaviours and cognitive and language development were associated with poverty according to the National Institute of Child Health and Human Development (NICHD) whose report also found that school readiness and cognitive and language development are determined to a greater degree by the duration of poverty than by the timing of it (NICHD Early Child Care Research Network, 2005). There is also evidence of an increased risk of negative outcomes (e.g., dropping out of school, unemployment, early parenthood and violent offences) associated with the mother's age at the time of first birth; children of young mothers are prone to deviant interactions and subject to inconsistent and harsh discipline (Belsky et al., 2007; Scaramella et al., 2008). Teenage mothers often have relatively low IQs, reading abilities, education levels and SES when compared to older mothers and these factors can be of great influence in their children's outcomes due to ineffective disciplining methods and other poor interactions (Jaffee at al. 2001).

A cumulative risk model has been examined in the case of child outcomes and this model reveals evidence that disadvantage prevails in families whose children have behavioural problems. The earlier that a child experiences cumulative risks (such as child maltreatment, family disruption, maternal stress and SES) the more likely he or she is to carry that risk into adolescence in the form of externalising behaviours (Appleyard et al., 2005). This is especially true for those children experiencing two or more of the risk factors. When comparing these findings to those of the other researchers discussed earlier (e.g., Atzaba-Poria et al., 2004) there is consistency in that the studies all conclude that, regardless of the type, cumulative risk is an important factor in predicting socially unacceptable behaviours and the delicate relations that effect both parental and child outcomes. Therefore, exploring these complex associations will lead to a better understanding of the factors. For instance, poverty has been related to cognitive and language development in children through a combination of maternal sensitivity towards the child (e.g., the mother's response to the child's needs, lack of intrusiveness, and respect) and the quality of the home environment. The St. Sauver et al(2004) study is relevant to the Saudi context under the same socioeconomic factors. The risk of ADHD is high among children with poorly educated parents (St. Sauver et al., 2004). This is to say, socioeconomic factors are independent of culture.

2.6.1   The Teacher's Perspective

The management of the child behaviour in the setting of the classroom is a challenge that is faced by various teachers. According to Stearns (2015), the majority of the students respond in a positive manner to a classroom that is well organised and guided by a teacher that is enthusiastic concerning understanding the students, as well as maintaining an approach that is flexible. As such, teachers who exhibit genuine interest in the children, as well as what the children learn, are likely to develop positive relationships that are strong in the setting of their classroom. As a result, they are able to manage the behaviour of the children. In accordance with the research, there is the importance of teachers requiring identifying their perceptions on the behaviour of children as well as the reflection of their own beliefs and others concerning the understanding of the child behaviour (Eley et al., 2003).

At times, the behaviour of children will tend to challenge some teachers in a way that fails to challenge others. For instance, some teachers can comfortably manage various disruption levels during their lessons, while others lack the patience. Some of the behaviour of the child can be regarded as bad in various contexts, while others may view it as good. For instance, a child that runs around the track in an enthusiastic manner without pausing on a sports day will be perceived as having exhibited exemplary behaviour and can be rewarded (Hunter, 2016). However, if the child similarly exhibits similar behaviour seen on the track in the school corridor, they attract a punishment. In light of this fact, it is evident that the behaviour does not necessarily lead to a challenge rather the context that the behaviour occurs. Besides, it also depends on the perception of the behaviour within the context or by the individuals within the same context. Therefore, in line with Cookman (2005), a teacher can be surprised by the child that runs as an athlete along the corridor resembling their running on the track and as such, might deal with them in a punitive way, whereas another teacher may be pleased with the behaviour. Consequently, it is vital toexplorebehaviour that is perceived by the teachers as challenging.

Based on the above, there is a clear indication that teachers who fail to exercise caution are likely to offer erroneous judgment regarding the behaviour of the child that is challenging. Therefore, a teacher can create an environment in the classroom that is a reflection of the childhood experiences of themselves, as well as the cultural influences. As a result, the image could mirror the way in which they interact in their classroom setting as well as how they

developed their beliefs from the way theirhome was organised as well as their life experiences (Sutton, 2016). Thus, they believe that the way that they operate is the best. Hence, research shows that the opinion of the teachers constitutes the description of a behavioural problem and this varies depending with the perception of what constitutes is acceptable within their tolerance threshold. In addition, there are deficit judgments within a generation of teachers who consider that is a deficit that can significantly affect the child as well as the esteem of the teacher, relationships and the class environment in a negative way (Ainsworth et al, 1991). In addition, it can influence the ethos of the school concerning the subject of discipline.

Gulzhan et al. (2014) note that it is common practice for teachers to consider behaviour that is unacceptable in a focus that is negative which can result in an approach where the aberrant action is seen as a crime. Teachers concur more about unacceptable than acceptable behaviour, which implies that teachers identify behaviour that is unacceptable more easily than specifying behaviour they deem as appropriate. Perhaps one would attribute it to the influence of our culture that focuses, as a behaviour control, the use of punishments (Tillery et al, 2010). Daly (2004) stated, "Student misbehaviour wasn't just an annoying disruption, it was a secret message the students (unwittingly) are trying to convey to you.... Usually, that message can be boiled down to two words: Reach me" (p.45). Both educator and student roles and desires shape the classroom into a situation that remained fit and helpful for learning.

Studies have demonstrated that the relationship between a student and his or her instructor affects certain school-related results (Howes, Hamilton, and Matheson, 1994; Birch and Ladd, 1997; Pianta, 1992). One of the most convincing displays of the significance of students having constructive associations with their instructors was seen on inspecting classroom "Social behaviours." Research conducted by Ladd and Burgess (2001) showed that poor connections anticipate mental and school instability well beyond the settled danger marker of early forceful practices and behaviour. As it were, relational issues have an added influence over hostility in these results.

In a further study, Pianta and Steinberg (1992) found that "Social behaviours are negatively associated with the quality of early teacher-child relationships." Birch and Ladd (1998) established that the contention of educators and their students in kindergarten anticipated

diminished pro-social "behaviour and increased aggression in the first grade." This study likewise suggested that a pattern might exist between these factors, where "Social behaviours impact student-teacher relationships." In another study, Hamre and Pianta (2005) examined how positive connections and relationships can work to the advantage of students at danger of issues in a school setting. In particular, they contemplated communications (social and instructional) between instructors and their students as a leading variable between different risk factors ("behaviour disorders, low parental education, *etcetera*") and scholastic accomplishment and future student-instructor connections and relationships. The after-effects of that study show that having a strong and supportive teacher did moderate the connection between different risk factors and some negative student results.

Similarly, when strong educators reached at-risk students in kindergarten the students grew to have comparatively higher accomplishment scores and connections to that of their lower-risk companions before the end of first grade. Then again, at-risk students lacking these positive associations with their teachers tended to have lower accomplishment scores and more challenging connections. Subsequently, student-instructor connections and relationships have appeared to be not an intense factor in affecting student development and advancement at school, but a moderator of danger components known to lead to scholastic issues. Exploration of this topic demonstrated that early student-educator relationships assumed a pivotal role in anticipating children's school changes and improvement in the long run, including children's scholastic execution, inspiration and self-directedness, dialect and mathematical aptitudes, social acknowledgement and conduct issues (Hamre and Pianta, 2001, Peisner-Feinberg, Burchinal, Clifford, Culkin, Hcwes, et al., 2001).

Positive early associations with teachers have predicted fewer conduct issues and enhanced school ability over the long haul, even after controlling benchmark levels of conduct issues (Pianta, Steinberg, and Rollins, 1995; Silver et al, 2005). The Student-Teacher Relationship Scale (STRS; Pianta, 2001), a 28-item instructor report poll, evaluated the educator's impression of their relationship with a specific student. The scale delivered an aggregate score and three subscales—closeness, conflict, and reliance—to measure that relationship. Relationships between teachers and students have likewise been inspected regarding instructor affectability towards their students or how sincere and mindful they are. Rimm-Kaufman et al. (2002) have found that active, extroverted children with more warm and guarding teachers displayed more confident "behaviour, fewer negative behaviours, and less

time academically off-task" when contrasted with outgoing children with not-as-sensitive teachers.

"Warmness and caring" has been characterised appropriately responsive to children's cues" (Rimm-Kaufman et al., 2002: 454). in the literature as "behaviour that is consistent, positive and warm toward children and, moreover, a warm and mindful teacher is more likely to connect with a child in a way that "demonstrated awareness of that child's preferred learning style, mood and activity preferences." Interestingly, less delicate "behaviour is marked by inconsistency, intrusiveness, detachment and poorly timed responses to children's cues" (Pianta, 1999; Rimm-Kaufman et al., 2002, pp.454). To continue, Iverson (2003) explained that classroom administration is the undertaking of managing connections, relationships, practices, instructional settings and lessons for groups of dedicated students. Classroom administration ordinarily is pre-emptive and diminished frequencies of conduct issues. Moreover, Iverson (2003) characterises discipline as showing students how to act fittingly. Discipline is not punishment; it is the use of particular systems to teach students to carry on in a socially adequate or substantial way. In this manner order is educational and rehabilitative.

Importantly, discipline is not control; it is collaboration. Wong and Wong (1998) do not encourage discipline. They believed that "the ineffective teacher is too eager to present lessons; consequently, when disruptive behaviour occurs, they discipline—often without a plan" (p.141). Moreover, Holm and Horn (2003) have shown that learning and comprehension of the subject matter and of the instructional methodologies that can form effective learning encounters must include collaboration with associates, families, and other meaningful groups.

2.6.2   Child Focused Organisations

Child behaviour organisations are required to develop and provide guidelines to assist teachers in the class room and parents at home. Child behaviour organisations could also help in the development of code of practice and policy in order to help parent and teachers to identify and promote socially acceptable behaviour and diminish what is unacceptable.

Mutual cognition is important for this it acts as the co-construction that derives conceptualisation for developing healthy child behaviour. In a study on the concerns about children welfare Al-Bughami (2006) stated the standing of the Saudi government "gives great care and utmost concern to child. The government formed the specialised committee for childhood early years. These measures emphasise the kingdom's concern and highest care of childhood". This study portrays very well the Saudi government point of view in relation to child development and, therefore, most of teachers' perception should reflect partially the government views. In light of this narrative, the aim for a perfect child lined up with numerous researches in sociology and psychology is still far from being identified. In a study about the effects of parenting styles and childhood attachment patterns on intimate relationships, the findings attributed the behaviour that was ideal as having the attributes that were positive interchangeably showing its even difficult for the parent and teachers to agree on ideal behaviours (Neal and Frick-Horbury, 2001; Chao, 2001).

However, children's type of behaviour that is not common is seen by parent to be reasonable unless they comprise or cause classroom interruption or disturbance to other children. As such, parents share different views pointing to the definition of perfect behaviour. In light of this, there is no agreement among parents about the ideal child behaviour, with some parents perceiving the ideal child as being imaginative, whilst others perceive the ideal child as being quiet. More, some parent view the ideal child as one that is bright as well as creative, which may include the times that the children are noisy and causing disturbance to others. Other parents, on the other hand, find the behaviour of children being calm as the ideal (Cookman, 2005).

2.7 Interventions

Identifying early risks is essential to the prevention and early intervention which is essential, because behavioural issues may not be as instilled while children are young as they are in later adolescence and adulthood (Roberts and Caspi, 2003; Coard et al, 2004; Asendorpf et al, 2008). Younger children's conduct is usually more manageable and easier to change, not needing as much mediation to reclaim the average formative track. Although formative psychopathology has made considerable advances in comprehension of the natural and ecological causes of nervousness and anxiety, it still called for evaluation instruments of behavioural risk in pre-school, during an ideal time of mediation (Coard et al, 2004).

In an era where there are absent fathers, mothers have taken the role of disciplining their children. Importantly, it is the key to comprehend that there is a difference between discipline as well as punishment. While it is true that discipline is vital in the bringing up of a child, it is also an important tool for education (Worthman, Tomlinson andRotherham-Borus, 2016). However, there are no struggles in the power when the setting of the limits is done with the child's consultation. Notably, punishment is the power absence, whereas discipline features as an authority tool. As a result, there is a thin line between discipline as well as punishment. Thus, where there is a crossing of the line, it results in violence. Instead of the punishment, it is effective rather where there is setting of the rules as well as norms in consultation with children. According to psychologists, one gains authority over their children when they give their power to their children. However, most of the time, punishment seems to be the easy way out (Tillery et al, 2010).

The ideal behaviour for all the children does not depend on the situation rather the community expectations. In reference to a psychology study done in Hong Kong, parents perceived ideal behaviour amongst the children in four different ways depending on what they believe. For instance, one parent considers that a child being quiet as an ideal behaviour while another one recognises academic achievement as the typical behaviour. Furthermore, the cultural expectations also determine what the ideal behaviour is amongst the children, for instance, young boys competing is an ideal behaviour whereas being cooperative is seen as an ideal behaviour for a young girl (Shek and Chan 1999, p. 295). According to Al- Eissa et al. (2016, p. 565), different children and parents have distinct personalities and quirks that are only suitable for their families. All in all, however, there are the necessary tools and behaviours that are common and expected for the early childhood in the Saudi Arabia.

A study by Eisenberg (2014, p.35) shows that the children should have prosaically behaviour as an ideal response. Prosaically behaviour starts from infancy and early childhood and later develops across ages and contributes to individual differences, morality, value systems and even health aspects. The children with this type of behaviour are cooperative, helpful and can share with the others. Such actions facilitate their co-existence with other children at home and school. Consequently, children with ideal adult social behaviour are accepted and approved not only in the classroom, but also in the community. Another study by Perlmutter (2014, p.236) emphasises that the society assumes that if a child has affective and cognitive

skills such as moral reasoning, emotional wellbeing and perspective taking then their behaviour is socially acceptable. Furthermore, the sensitive issues of a child also describe whether or not a child has an ideal adult image.

Child protection and child maltreatment prevention programmes are still emerging in Saudi Arabia. The formation of General Directorate for Social Protection under the Ministry of Social Affairs is mainly to prevent child abuse and neglect. The social protection of women and children are the priority of the committee. Protecting children from abuse is neglect for the positive development of social behaviour. National Family Safety Program was founded in the year 2005 to protect the rights of children. Such programmes provide the informal support to the children and families, which is significant for effective development of children. Parent support programs are mainly provided with the objective of supporting and informing the parents about the ways with which they can become more competent and more capable in supporting their children (Trivette, and Dunst, 2005).Safety and protection of children is important to provide them an appropriate social environment for development and to reduce the problem behaviour in children. With growing urbanisation in Saudi Arabia, children are left in vulnerable environment and can affect their social development. Collaboration of profit and non-profit organisations for enhancing the social environment of children is significant.

The traditional human services can offer community based parent support programmes, as this will help in flow of support and resources for the parents and can also strengthen the development and functioning of their children (Trivette, and Dunst, 2005). Family centred and capacity building initiatives for parents can be useful in enhancing the existing parenting capacities. The development of new competencies in parents is important to that they can help their children with new opportunities and experiences to enhance child's development and social learning (Kagan andWeissbourd, 1994). The informal support networks and community based programmes for parents can provide effective support to the parents and can also enhance their confidence to promote more effective development of their children. The evidence has shown that there is a significant difference between the socially adaptive behaviour of the children from less educated parents and children with highly educated parents. Therefore, the governmental initiatives towards enhancing the education level of parents can also help in better development of children (Dunst, Trivette and Hamby, 2008).

Vision 2030 is a very significant plan prepared by the government of Saudi Arabia. This plan seeks more important role of families in education and development of children. A programme called "Irtiqaa" will be launched under this plan, which will mainly focus on

engagement of parents in children's education in schools (Saudi Arabia and Political, Economic and Social Development, 2017). This Government initiative and programme can be successful in enhancing the competence and capability of the parents, who have attained low education. The engagement of parents in school activities and learning process of the children will provide them an opportunity to standardise the social norms and socially acceptable behaviour in children (Saudi Arabia and Political, Economic and Social Development, 2017). Engagement of parents with children is important for the development of social skills in children. Teachers can be the significant informal groups to increase the awareness of parents and can also equip them with important knowledge regarding development of children.

According to the study of Landry (2008) "Children's development of the cognitive and social skills needed for later success in school may be best supported by a parenting style known as responsive parenting" (p. 1). Responsiveness is an important aspect that helps in providing the strong foundation to children to have optimal development (Landry et al, 2014). Therefore, affective emotional aspects must be developed in parenting through promoting support to various interests and needs of children. The problem behaviour among children is also associated with poor support resulting in the lack of coping skills and novelty in social environment (Landry et al, 2014).Development of responsive parenting has the potential to promote normal developmental attainment in high risk children, such as those from low income families and those from low educated parents. Unresponsive parenting can also jeopardise with the developmental needs of children. Therefore, development of the parental support initiatives and formation of parent support groups can help in eliminating this problem (Landry, Smith, and Swank, 2006).

Improving the support for the parents with young children can improve quality parenting and can support effective social and emotional development of children. The study of Higgins, Stagman, and Smith, (2010) states the significance of the state led parenting education programmes. The study also explained the significance of sensitive parenting towards the needs and interest of children that helps in social development of children. The state led parenting programmes and strategies can provide the access and information to parents that can help them to understand that how they can keep their children safe and healthy and can enhance and nurture their social development. Therefore, children and parents can be benefitted in various ways through parental education (Kaminski et al, 2008). The problem that was identified in the section stating socially acceptable and unacceptable behaviour in children including the perspective of parents and teachers informed that socio-economic

status and education of parents influence their social behaviour expectations from children (Landry et al, 2014). Therefore, developing the parental support groups, government initiatives and informal support network can be very effective in developing responsive behaviour in parents and directly improving social behaviour in children and reducing problem behaviour (Kaminski et al, 2008).

The report of Schumacher (2013) discussed the various kinds of community based early childhood initiatives. Child and family programmes can be beneficial in encouraging the relationship between children and parents. Private sector can focus on providing multi-service agency strategies that can provide various child and family programmes for improving parental skills and promoting positive social development of children (Schumacher, 2013). Capacity building programs can help in developing the competency of parents and help them to learn new strategies to manage misbehaviour, negative internalising behaviour and can help to exercise long term control on disturbing behaviour of children. With the involvement of parents, competency development in teachers can also be helpful for managing behaviour of children (Beazidou, Botsoglou, andAndreou, 2013).Thecompetency development initiatives can be helpful for parents as well as for teachers. This helps in identifying the problem and difficult behaviour among children and also helps in developing strategies to overcome such problem behaviour. Managing the difficult and negative behaviour is significant for the development of socially acceptable behaviour among children(Beazidou, BotsoglouandAndreou, 2013).

Informal support for the parents is also effective in the families with very young children. The various initiatives related to supporting and engaging parents can help in strengthening families and developing socially acceptable behaviour among children. Such programmes help in providing the support to parents and helps them to develop social and emotional competence in children.The parent support and collective actions helps to involve parents in learning and development of children (Schumacher, 2013). The community based programmes also help in strengthening these aspects of life of the children and families. The leadership and funding support from the government and communities can also help to build parents with strong skills. The studies have also discussed the significance of informal and formal community support for parents. Such programmes help parents in problem solving and developing close and supportive relationship with children.

The focus of family support and parenting support must be on the families from different socio-economic groups(Schumacher, 2013). According to evidence, the socio-economic status of the parents affects the socially acceptable and unacceptable behaviour among

children. The parents from low socio-economic status are less likely to be aware of developmental difficulties of children that can affect their social behaviour(Schumacher, 2013). Therefore, the parental support programmes, community programmes and initiatives help parents to understand child's development related difficulties and helps them to provide positive environments to children for their positive social development(Beazidou, Botsoglou and Andreou, 2013).The family support services are tend to be problem oriented instead of preventive. The problems could be associated with development of children that can affect their socialisation and culturally acceptable behaviour.Parent groups, informal support networks and government initiatives can also help the society to maintain traditional and cultural values(Kaminski et al, 2008).

2.8 Chapterdiscussion and summary

In Saudi Arabia there are three key elements in relation to a child's behaviour. The first element is concerned with parents' perceptions as to whether they are resisting traditional cultural influence on their children or not. The second element is parents resisting educational control or not and, finally, the last element is teachers' perspectives that depend upon their own personal beliefs and values as well as the socio-cultural environment that live and work. As a result, in this thesis all three elements will be considered when investigating what is perceived as socially acceptable or unacceptable behaviours in early childhood at home and school, linked with parents' and teachers' views and their socio-cultural context.

According to Cookman (2005), the root causes of a child's acceptable or unacceptable behaviour is embedded in various emotional, biological and environmental issues within and around the child. It is maintained across child behaviour research that children will show from time to time unacceptable behaviour because of the pressures surrounding their lives on a daily basis (Haryantoand Moutinho, 2016; Cookman, 2005). However, when the behaviour that is negative persists there is the need to seek help. As such, when changes occur in their lives, such as new baby born to the family, changing of schools, moving home or the purchase of new toy these could trigger negative behaviours. Besides, their inability to communicate their fears could lead to the children making choices that are poor. For instance, they could result in becoming loud, defiant, or aggressive (Card and Little 2006).

The elements of children's environment, coupled with both the emotional and intellectual stimulation, has a significant effect on the child's learning in the same way as the traits that are inherent in the local culture. Notably, childhood represents the time when there is the development of a range of behaviours considered normal to those that are diagnosable or considered as disorders(Ainsworth et al, 1991). To be able to explore behaviour of children in the best way, therefore, it is vital to comprehend the various behaviour types. Although the lack of construct is emphasised by Darling (1993) there is no mention of methodological issues which allows socio-linguistic construct to emerge in favour of any practical assessment tool. This emphasises the need for a pragmatic approach to unravel parental innermost cultural authority. This is because when considering the pragmatist approach, you have issues related to innermost biased parenting cultural (Burke et al, 2006). This bias may undermine and inherently change the course of determining child behaviour regarding social linguistic changes. Pragmatist's family type perception of behaviour should reflect just that in most cases and influence child behaviour in the same way.

The impact of culture on parent should not be ignored as children from early age are actively receptive to their environment (Al-Bughami, 2006). Cultural influence is an important factor to understand the values and principles that guide the individual life. Some parents differ from others on the issue of child behaviour, for example with aggression, fear and lying in contrast to child socialisation (Ogelman, 2013). From these differences the context and rationalepartlyemergefor using parenting style in this study. Some parents think that aggression is tolerable; for example, for fathers in Saudi Arabia toughness and aggression could be seen as a positive sort of behaviour and culturally acceptableas showing strength and maturity at young age is positive, whilst the same behaviour in this example would be deemed negative for girls. Another issue that add to the complexity of child development is that some parents may raise their child for reasons that concern the family. For example, parents' background for socially based culture brings the child-parent relationship into key concepts of socialisation, mutual cognition and emotions. One of the key factors surround parental different styles is the change in child environment emerging from external sources. For example, advertisements targeted at children for business and new promotional ideas may be againstwhatparents believe, such as toys and computer games that ar insensitive to the cultural belief of the parent.

Much research on children's learning has led to various theoretical frameworks in support of different ideas. For example, the basis of a child's bad or good behaviour is implanted in a range of pre-arranged and spontaneous activities by parents, teachers and within the environment. Associated with those involved comes in many ideas and notions such as emotional, biological and the environment (Haryanto and Moutinho, 2016; Cookman, 2005). These help to stimulate adult perspectives in favour of applying policies to overcome child development issues, leading consequently to the design and conduct of the focus groups themselves within this study.

The key issues this thesis depends on are exploring what constitutes awkward and unacceptable social behaviours among pre-school children. The prime context is Saudi culture, history and social values towards children behaviour (Abar et al, 2009; Buchele, 2010). It is important to mention that this research points to behaviour problem including the term 'unacceptable or awkward behaviour' to steer clear of any uncertainty. This is to say, unacceptable or awkward social behaviours perceived by an individual is not the only truth and, even within the same family, there is continuous argument on what is unacceptable or awkward.

This complexity surrounding the study intrinsically suggests that the participants are part and parcel of the solution to the problem. For example, the teaching of Islam from young age, the tribal tradition taught to children and current education system are elemental sources for inharmonious outcomes in term of social behaviours. This contrasts with western societies where issues and elemental sources for inharmonious social behaviour are circumvented by liberal and secular methodologies. To interlink the elements of the research approach one must considers the need to engage children and consider a wider set of possibilities both as input (externalists) and as output (internalists).

The approach, therefore, should assist in developing a Saudi based code of practice and the necessary policies in regard to child behaviour. It is also important to assist the Saudi authority (policy makers) to develop guidelines to help parents and practitioners at home or in school. This can help to improve the lack of literature about Saudi children development programmes and coherent long term strategy and short term policies to deal with the problem of child behaviour. The review conducted here has made it clear that knowledge of pre-school children's social behaviours has shortcomings and needs further research.

This chapter has discussed the key literature on the subject of "social behaviours in pre-schoolers" andbegan with various definitions of the term "behavioural problems". This review has found that researchers have focused excessively on the generalisation of this term. This has led to definitions which may be applicable to general contexts, but not to such specific contexts as Saudi Arabia, which had a culture different from that of Western nations. Using a different socio-cultural perspective, the Saudi Arabian definition of the term did not necessarily conform to the definition generally proposed. Given this premise, the differences that exist between externalising and internalising social behaviours needs further investigation, along with a discussion of how adults may have different perceptions of externalising and internalising behaviour. While externalising behaviour has received widespread attention from most researchers, few have paid attention to internalising behaviour, even though psychology practitioners considered both to be socially unacceptable.

This chapter has also reviewed research related to the causes of socially acceptable or unacceptable behaviours in children. Socioeconomic factors have been acknowledged to be one of the key contributors toward social behaviours in children. Past research has looked at cross-cultural differences in perceptions of behaviour problems in children and evidence has been found discrepancies in these perceptions. This highlights one of the key issues affecting the development of coherent policy regarding social behaviours in pre-schoolers.

One important point concerns parent and teacher ability to identify relational aggression, which was shown to be less visible to adults. In the per-school stage of child development relational aggression is difficult to identify without expert training and it does not receive enough attention. As a result, teachers and parents need to be aware of relational aggression and raise the awareness.

Parental perspectives of social behaviours have also been discussed in this chapter and it was seen that the upbringing provided by the parents is a significant influencing factor on children's behaviour. The impact of negative parenting practices such as physical punishments and psychological control have been discussed. In particular, this section found a significant and proven relationship between parenting style and children's behaviour. This relationship is expected to exist in socially unacceptable behaviour and reporting as well. Furthermore, this chapter has discussed parents' tolerance of socially unacceptable behaviour.

This tolerance is related to socio-cultural factors and is thus expected to vary from region to region.

In addition this chapter has also reviewed research related to parental style as one of the causes of socially acceptable or unacceptable behaviours. Externalist factors were recognised to be key contributors affecting parental style towards socially acceptable or unacceptable behaviours in children. Current research has explored parental style differences in perceptions of behaviour problems in children. This presents one of the main issues impact the advance of Saudi code of practice on socially acceptable or unacceptable behaviours for children in Saudi Arabia.

Parental and teachers' tolerance can be reflected in the differences in the perspectives of teachers and parents. Vygotsky's (1978) theory of child development has been discussed, including how the behaviour of the child may be influenced by external factors. The theory of constructivism suggests that human behaviour, right from childhood, develops on the basis of social interactions. Socially unacceptable behaviours that are prevalent and ignored in a society are likely to fuel further prevalence of such behaviour as it becomes acceptable. Teachers, as well as parents, comprehend the importance of child behaviours in their development. They can be signs of a deeper problem underlying within the child. In the current era, there is increased awareness of the benefits of the development of the social-emotional aspect of a child. As such, the development forms the foundation for the development of the child's cognitive, social and emotional components. As a result, most research indicates that the majority of the problems exhibited by the children in their social, as well as behavioural, development are vital indicators of a behaviour that may be challenging as they grow. It is of importance to monitor the child in order to understand their development.

Importantly, the maintenance of a relationship between the child and the parent has significant influence in the aspects of growth and development of the child. In light of this, where the skills of parenting coupled with their behaviour are optimal, it can lead to an impact that is positive on the self-esteem, the achievement of the school and cognitive capability as well as behaviour development. The father and the mother are key to the development if the child through their different stages of development. Thus, the parents are pertinent to the growth of the child in regards to the provision of encouragement, accessibility

to the activities and support to facilitate the child in mastering the tasks of development. Finally, different types of behavioural interventions have been discussed. These are a direct outcome of the identifying of behavioural problems, which itself is dependent on coherency in their definition.

2.8.1 Rationale for the research project

The above discussion of the research indicates that aspects of unacceptable behaviour tend to fall into a number of categories, namely, a combination of disobedience, disruptive or aggressive behaviours, alongside prolonged periods of shyness or fear being evidenced in a child's behaviour. However, what is considered as socially and non-socially accepted behaviours is related and shaped by cultural aspects. Consequently, a child's social behaviours are shaped by the environment in which the child is raised. As discussed above the main influential factors on a child's behaviours are the parents and family in which the child is raised. A child's behaviour is dependent upon the interaction that occurs with parent(s) and it is for this reason that parental approaches are important. In the literature, parental styles have been described as authoritative, neglectful and permissive. Parenting styles play an important factor in the prevalence of socially acceptable and unacceptable behaviours. Similarly, teacher's styles and personal beliefs determine which behaviours within the classroom are accepted or not accepted, especially when there is a lack of guidelines or code of practice as in the case for early childhood education in Saudi Arabia. Although there is much research examining these issues in western counties, there are gaps in regards to Saudi child behaviour (Abar et al, 2009; Buchele, 2010). These gaps in the literature based upon two main reasons: firstly, there is a lack of formal documentation, programme, plans and codes of practice (Bashatah, 2016; Habib, 2012) and, secondly, there is a lack of formal or structured body or vehicle to deliver such programmes, plans and codes of practice.

A summary of the key reasons for this research is presented below:

a) Lack of literature on socially acceptable or unacceptable child behaviour in the context of Saudi Arabia;

b) Lack of programmes, plans and a Saudi codes of practice to evaluate child behaviour;

c) The absence of teacher training in regards to socially acceptable or unacceptable child behaviour;

d) The absence of vehicles to identify, assess and promote socially acceptable or unacceptable child behaviour;

e) The absence of role model or programmes to provide guidance and support to parents;

f) Lack of formal accepted methods to deal with child behaviour/s.

As a result, the proposed research is attempting to investigate parents and teachers perspectives on what is considered as socially acceptable or unacceptable child behaviourin an attempt to provide some guidance and support to both parents and teachers. Thus, this research aims to provideinsights for three elements:

1. assist to identify in Saudi context what is meant with socially acceptable and unacceptable behaviour in early childhood;

2. Support early childhood teachers in terms of understanding what is socially acceptable or unacceptable child behaviour so they can prevent Saudi children from the negative effect of unacceptable social behaviour. It is important to highlight that addressing unacceptable behaviour or promoting good behaviour in kindergartens requires enormous collaborative effort from teachers, parent and the authority (policy makers);

3. Support parents in their understanding about a child's behaviour.

Chapter 3: Methodology

3.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the data acquisition procedures and type of methods used in this chapter. The first and foremost aspect of any research is to identify the nature, purpose and rationale of the research, such as its theoretical and practical contributions. Identification of the research purpose helps in identifying the kind of objectives that the research aims to achieve. This research involves identifying difference in perception of different groups of individuals and firstly establishes whether there is difference in teachers' and parents' perception of socially acceptable or unacceptable behaviour in pre-school children, before exploring the causes and implications of any differences in their perceptions. In addition, this chapter discusses the data and methodology used for this research.

The first and foremost aspect of any research is to identify its purpose, such as its theoretical and practical contributions (Singh, 2007). Identification helps in determining the objectives that the research aims to achieve. Methodological discourse thus begins with identification of research philosophy which comprises three parts: axiology, epistemology and ontology (Jupp, 2006). In other words, there need to be a definition of the values, knowledge and notions of reality that underpin the society, the researcher and the participants in the research.

As the title indicates, this research adopts mixed methodology which is driven from a pragmatic examination of axiological, epistemological and ontological perceptions that are evident in this context. This research is aimed at investigating parents' and teachers' perception of child behaviour. Human behaviour is complex and should be examined using methods and information collection tools that took into account its complexity (Jupp, 2006). It is often advised to use multiple methods to obtain multiple perspective (Creswell, 2009; Shapiro and Kratochwill, 2000). Most of the previous research on children behaviour have utilised quantitative methodologies (Pastor et al, 2012; Prakash et al, 2008). There are several reasons for this, such as potential generalisation, validity, and reliability. However, the perception of behaviour is contextual and influenced by such aspects as socio-cultural background, education, and demographics. Certain behaviours may be considered socially unacceptable in one community, but not in another. Hence, it is essential to understand the

context in which are perceived. This supports the use of qualitative approach to investigate child behaviour.

Research at group level is best conducted using quantitative methods, however, as it helps in achieving generalisation (Jupp, 2006). However, qualitative methodology is considered best for studying perception because it helps in understanding in detail not only how individual level perception may differ, but also the underlying reasons explaining these differences. Understanding this detail is critical because merely identifying that differences or similarities exist in perceptions of different group of individuals is not practically useful unless we understand its causes and/or implications. This is the reason why pragmatic epistemology and mixed methodology was considered useful for this research.

Differences in perceptions about behaviour of children may differ at individual levels. For example, one individual may consider some form of behaviour as completely normal while other may find it socially unacceptable. Such differences may exist even amongst members of same family. The diversity in perspectives and opinions of individuals makes the realist and pragmatist philosophy useful for this research. This is discussed in more detail later in this chapter.

Data for this research was obtained initially by using two questionnaire surveys and three focus groups. Questionnaire surveys were conducted for teachers and parents, whilst focus groups were conducted with three groups of individuals; teachers, fathers and mothers. Such an arrangement was essential due to gender segregation in Saudi Arabia, which meant it was not possible to conduct a mixed gender focus group. The first and foremost issue the researcher needed to focus on was what she was trying to answer. The nature of the research questions had a strong impact on the choice of method and, for this, the researcher should focus on the keywords in the research questions. After identifying the nature of the research questions, the researcher planned the data collection, taking availability and access to data into consideration (Leedy and Ormrod, 2010). The key consideration in choosing a research methodology is the selection of the research philosophy. It acted as a guiding tool for the selection of the rest of the research elements, such as the research approach and strategy, as well as the data collection tools.

Because of that, this research takes the nature of a case study because it handles few and specific units at a time. These are the socially acceptable and unacceptable child behaviours in a specific place, Saudi Arabia, though in various contexts. Case study design is useful in studying a subject thoroughly in context with specificity as it goes deep to ensure the participants studied are studied consistently. In this research the context is the socio-cultural backgrounds of the teachers and parents, which determines the acceptance or rejection of some behaviour among the children who grow under the care of these two groups of people with direct conduct. The culturally bound perspective requires the use of case study design supported by qualitative data collection methods. Case study design is useful because it allows the researcher to use multiple methods while maintaining the contextual boundaries (Jupp, 2006; Yin, 2009).

3.2 Purpose of the research

One important motive for conducting this research is the huge gap in literature about unacceptable Saudi children behaviour. It is clear from the literature review that research on Saudi pre-school children's social behaviours is still in the infancy as far as scholarly and meticulous research is concerned.

It is generally a worrying state, causedby the speed of change, from the days when it was a norm for children to respect the elderly or the experts. Several times, for example, young children have been seen punching their parents in the face or throwing insults for having refused to purchase them toys. This is openly unacceptable behaviour, but who is to blame between the child and the parent?   In addition, some children are rude and disobedient to their teachers these days. It is known that in Islamic culture disobeying a parent is sinful. In this research we propose to find out why it is happening whilst it is a religious doctrine and Muslims are strict to their doctrines. It will be useful to find out if there are other sources of by-laws or guidelines on child behaviour apart from the religious doctrines. Also the research looks forward to establishing if rudeness and disobedience are unacceptable behaviours and if there are other behaviours besides these that are deemed unacceptable among children. The ultimate purpose of the research is to provide teachers and parents with guidance on how to bring up children in the manner that is acceptable in the society. Clearly finding out the cause of the unacceptable behaviours among pre-school children will serve as a reliable stepping

stone towards elimination of the behaviour. Once the behaviour is eliminated in one generation, the subsequent generation will probably inherit the behaviour.

The literature review revealed that Saudi Arabia did not have any specific code of practice that sets out how to deal with children's social behaviours in pre-school settings. Several head teachers, as well as officials working in educational institutes, were interviewed during preliminary study and confirmed that there is no such policy. Furthermore, they stated that they find it extremely difficult to determine and measure socially acceptable or unacceptable behaviour and how they should best deal with them. This indicates the importance of the current study, as it sheds some light on issues around social behaviours in pre-school children in Saudi Arabia.

This research aims to investigate parents' and teachers' perspectives on pre-school children's behaviour issues or behaviour problems in Riyadh city. A few studies have been conducted on children's behaviour in Saudi Arabia. One study examined the extent of kindergarten female teachers' methods for developing internal control (Alrugaib, 2011) while another study examined the effectiveness of a training programme for developing some social skills in children suffering from ADHD (Alamaar, 2011). No such research has been conducted in Saudi context for studying socially acceptable or unacceptable behaviour of Saudi pre-schoolchildren, however, except for Al-Bughami, (2007) who studied the issue in context of orphans. She found that pre-school children's behaviour issues lacked attention from authority and parents alike (Al-Bughami, 2007). The current study focuses on gaining insights into teachers' and parents' perspective of unacceptable behaviour among Saudi pre-school children. Due to the lack of existing research in this subject in Saudi context the most reliable and useful source of information for the researcher was the data obtained through the initial pilot study.

Participants in this pilot study confirmed that there is lack of awareness on this subject. For example, there are no child behaviour specialists in almost all the kindergartens in Saudi Arabia and teachers are also poorly trained to provide child behaviour related interventions. In addition, the general lack of social psychologists and psychiatric specialists for children in Saudi Arabia indicates that there is an overall lack of awareness and interest on this issue in the country. This research purposes to serve as informative to the responsible authorities to see the need of having child behaviour specialists in schools.

However, some research has been carried out in other Arabic countries to study social behaviours in children (Ahmed, 2004;Hassan, 1996). These studies have investigated social behaviours such as excessive motor activity, lying, stealingand being cruel to peers and truancy. Each of these studies, and most of the Western ones, has used quantitative research methods such as scales or questionnaires. Western populations are culturally different from Arab societies in general and Saudi society in particular (Abar et al, 2009; Buchele, 2010). Although there is a similar culture between Arabic populations, there are still important differences, especially in the Saudi community. These differences could be due to socioeconomic factors or other special traditions and habits. For example, due to the high economic status in Saudi, the vast majority of families use babysitters to take care of their children and this could really affect their socialisation. They also follow strict Islamic religious practices. The above cited study were conducted in Egypt a country where Muslims are the dominant and is the society which is at a lower economic level and less religiously stringent because there are also Christians. For example, unlike Saudi society, Egyptian society is more tolerant about mixing between genders and, whilst this could be reflected in the Egyptian perspective of behaviour problem, due to gender segregation in Saudi Arabia, it may not be applicable.

Many studies have examined unacceptable social behaviours using parents' and teachers' reports, albeit in other contexts than Saudi Arabia. These studies showed that parents' and teachers' views have not revealed similar results. Both these groups of individuals have a significant impact on the development of the children as both spend considerable time with the children. Therefore, data was collected from individuals from both groups to pave way for formulation of policies for social code of conduct for children. In most of the Arabic studies data collection have relied on quantitative research strategies and questionnaires, but the present study uses mixed methods because the researcher found it essential to generalise while simultaneously looking to deepen insight into how Saudi teachers and parents may perceive behavioural problem in children. One of the benefits of mixed methods studies is that it allows accommodating multiple and diverse perspectives (Jupp, 2006). The current study collected data from parents and female teachers, while most of the past studies used only one set of participants. For that reason, this research is more detailed and more informative.

The aforementioned argumentsthus demonstrate an urgent need for this type of study in Saudi society, which is different from other countries in its social, religious, cultural, political and economic context (Pochtar and Vecchio, 2014). This study provided important information about the unacceptable social behaviours of children for decision-makers in Saudi educational institutions. This information enlightens the intervention programmes for the unacceptable social behaviours of children, hopefully to prevent these problems turning into behavioural disorders.

Furthermore, there have been no documented studies of unacceptable social behaviours among Saudi pre-school children, whose age range is from four to six years. This age period is very important in developing a child's personality. Therefore, identifying these problems as early as possible is helpful for teachers and parents in providing possible solutions to eradicate the unacceptable behaviour, hence assisting children in overcoming these problems and providing opportunities for proper growth in the children's future.

Social behaviours were explored by collecting data from parents and teachers who responded to interview questions and others filled in the questionnaires. Headteachers also participated in the research, but only for the pilot study when they provided a contribution in terms of enhancing the researcher's knowledge and in terms of helping the researcher in clarifying questions for the focus group.

As stated earlier, there was not yet a Saudi code of practice to guide teachers in dealing with children with awkward and unacceptable social behaviours. This research is based on the view that having such a code is critical because it will help in ensuring a consistent and coordinated response to such behavioural issues. This code can also help the authorities in setting adequate policies for teachers to address unacceptable social behaviour issues among pre-school children This will also make it comparatively easier to train the teachers on identifying what kind of behaviours need intervention and what kind of interventions should be provided to children with unacceptable social behaviour according to the code of practice (Clare et al, 2002; Coard et al, 2004). All these attempts are to assist pre-school children in overcoming social behaviour challenges and ultimately contribute to their positive growth to be useful and acceptable in the society.

3.3 The Nature of the Research

The aim of this research is to explore teachers' and parents' views on awkward and unacceptable social behaviours among pre-school children, combined with extensive literature review to bring about the differences in parents' and teachers' perspectives on socially acceptable and unacceptable behaviour in the same context. The previous chapter identified the need to investigate the differences in those perspectives. In particular, it highlighted how they may affect the interventions provided to pre-schoolers with awkward and unacceptable social behaviours (Clare et al, 2002; Coard et al, 2004). From the literature review, it is clear that a consistent view of awkward and unacceptable social behaviours is essential in developing coordinated strategy and policy to resolve the issues. Past research studies (Crick and Grotpeter, 1995; Crick, 2003) have not focused on developing such a consistent view of socially unacceptable behaviour among pre-schoolers, especially not in the context of cultural differences, where cultural factors play a very important role in the differences in perceptions of different adult groups (Pochtar and Vecchio, 2014).

Hence, this research takes on that challenge and provides the basis for development of consistent intervention policies and mechanisms for identifying and addressing socially unacceptable behaviour among pre-school children in Saudi Arabia. The perspectives and approaches developed in the context of Western nations are not entirely applicable to this research context where significant cultural differences exist, especially relating to the religious differences. Therefore, this research embarked on grounded approach to explore the differences in perspectives of Saudi teachers and parents on the issue.

The literature review has revealed several forms of unacceptable social behaviours which can be categorised as physical, behavioural, psychological or relational. Some of these (such as physical aggression) were more apparent and considered as severe on the scale of awkward and unacceptable social behaviours and to be considered as behavioural problems, while others are less explicit and often ignored.

3.3.1 Pragmatism research

As was shown in the literature reviews, children might exhibit sometimesunacceptable behaviour as a result of the pressures surrounding their lives. As a result, most research studies have indicated that the majority of the problems exhibited by the children in their social as well as behavioural improvement are vital pointers of a behaviour that may be challenging as they grow (Card and Little, 2006). According to Gulzhan et al. (2014) it is important for parents and teachers to monitor the child in order to understand their improvement. Children with difficulty in learning as a result of other children's behaviour have direct influence on the way children understand instruction. Therefore, without the recognition by others of their problem a child may act as defiant, as well as non-compliant, towards the completion of their work or their house instruction (Gulzhanet al, 2014).

Importantly, the maintenance of a relationship between the child and the parent has significant influence in the aspects of growth and learning. In light of this case, where the knowledge of parenting (authoritative and authoritarian) is grounded –parents who adjust work commitment and child needs - this can lead to an impact that is positive on children's self-esteem, the achievement of the school and cognitive and behavioural development (Burke et al, 2006). The parenting style is important in shaping the child behaviour through their different stages of learning. It comprises of the physical, social, emotional and the intellectual development. Thus, parents are pertinent to the growth of the child in regards to the provision of encouragement, accessibility to the activities and support to facilitate the child in mastering the tasks of development.

Pragmatic research enables qualitative inquiry of the implementation of evidence based practice, allowing for unrestricted possibilities of realities. An example of pragmatist's approach is when behaviour is indicative of multiple sources such as when children exhibit the behaviour that is bad as their way of calling for assistance. For instance, in a family where a child is the youngest, they might feel powerless against their other siblings that are older and as a result, may lash out. Besides, they may resort to the behaviour of yelling to get attention or communicating resentment, for instance, in order to get the attention of the parents, especially where there is dominance of other siblings (Tillery et al, 2010). The children note that the parent requires offering increased protection to the child that is the youngest to protect them from the behaviour that is bad. In addition, another technique to

protect the young child is by urging the children that are older to show more kindness as well as being increasingly mindful of the sibling that is young. On the other hand, critics of pragmatism pointed out issues such as controversies, contradictions and emerging confluences (Guba et al, 2005) Further, pragmatists are accused of pushing forcefully methodological boundaries of research, claiming that social change are forcing scholars to seek new ways to meet the growing need for emergent methods within and across the disciplines (Hesse-Biber et al, 2008).

3.3.2   Pragmatism as a tool to help in research complexity

The following study will require an interaction between the teachers and the parents to get a deeper understanding of the acceptable and the unacceptable behaviours in the society. Pragmatism is, therefore, the tool that will be used in the research due to the complexity of the study. Regarding the above argument pragmatism is observed to have the potential of bringing out clearly the intellectual coherency related to the interaction design born out of practice, human interaction, and experience (Dewey 2005). In addition, pragmatism as a tool of research helps in the provision of methods which can be used to reveal how this field gives a contribution in generating knowledge that relates to the world (Bacon 2012). Therefore, pragmatism, in this case, will help in providing the methods which will be used in revealing how the field will contribute in knowing more about the parents' and teacher's perspectives on what is considered to be the acceptable and unacceptable behaviour of children in the Saudi Arabia society. The building blocks for the foundation of this research will include the pragmatist concepts of experience, interpretation and judgment.

Some past theories support the pragmatist design view. According to Wright and McCarthy (2010), pragmatism is an approach that is considered as a revisionary approach that helps to understand the technology through practical experience. Also, pragmatism helps in understanding through experience (Doll and True n.d.). Therefore, in this case, pragmatism will assist in understanding the perceptions of the parents and the teachers about the behaviour that is acceptable in Saudi through practical experience which is necessitated by the pragmatism approach.

Pragmatism contributions, and especially Dewey's, go beyond the borders of philosophy (Hildebrand, 2003). Moreover, these contributions influenced the social, political, and the educational developments during his time until the present. To re-examine the foundational questions and the current metaphysical truths, the pragmatists did not replace the old philosophical truths (Rescher, 2012). It is observed that pragmatism is a tool of research that is believed not to leave any room for absolutes and uncertainties (Doll and True n.d.). Therefore, when identifying to the parents and teachers which behaviours are acceptable in the Saudi context, the method will consider each and every feedback as essential and thus leave no room for uncertainty.

To understand the acceptable and unacceptable behaviours of young children in Saudi Arabia, pragmatism is the best tool for this research since experience will be the starting point. Furthermore, experience as a variable is regarded as the starting point of the philosophical thinking in pragmatism (Odin, 1996). Additionally, the perspectives of the parents and the children must be experienced and, therefore, pragmatism helps to discover the truth through experience (Fairfield, 2010). As such, pragmatism will be the best tool to be used in studying the perspectives of the parents and teachers about acceptable behaviours in the Saudi context as it will help in giving the right information through the exclusive integrity that it has.

3.4 Research Paradigms

3.4.1   Type of research paradigms

A research paradigm basically refers to how the researcher views the problem being investigated; it's her viewpoint of problem and the solution(s) (Rubin and Rubin 2005). The position of the researcher on the issue focused on is mainly derived from the philosophical paradigm, which says, for example, "If the researcher believes in the existence of the truth/reality, the best approach is to use a quantitative methodology in order to establish the reality." This approach thus is suitable for a research that requires a single outcome. However, if the researcher believes there are multiple realities, a qualitative methodology is most suitable to understand all the perspectives about those realities from various points of view (Fellows and Liu, 2008). This research on child social behaviour in Saudi Arabia has

multiple realities because different target groups (teachers and parents) hold different perspectives on the social behaviour of pre-schoolers. Due to this, mixed methods (quantitative and qualitative) are used to offer sufficient explanations for a better understanding of the underlying realities. This mix creates an easier way of settling on the solutions for the research questions with a clear illustration of what acceptable and unacceptable social behaviour are among children. This is a single reality with multiple perspectives (Fellows and Liu, 2008). There are primarily four kinds of research paradigm as shown in table below:

Table 4: Overview of different types of paradigms

Positivism	Interpretivism	Realism	Pragmatism
Single reality and hence discoverable using scientific and objective methods	Multiple realities, hence discovery of absolute truth is not possible, but rather construction/interpretation of what constitutes reality is achieved using subjective methods	Single reality, but multiple perspectives, hence a combination of subjective and objective methods is required	Based on the practical effect of ideas and hence places no limit on the use of objective or subjective methods
Findings were independent of the researcher and hence the expertise of the researcher is not critical	Findings were dependent on the quality of the interpretation of the data, and hence the researcher must have some expertise to be able to make sense of them	Initially, the researcher remained independent as he or she discovers the reality, but may need expertise to explain the reality in context	The author is independent in using a pragmatic approach to discover and explains reality; may take his/her expertise as well as the availability of data into consideration.

Source: (Rubin and Rubin 2005)

Positivists support a universally consistent worldview and support the use of scientific methods to identify universally acceptable answers. Interpretivists do not seek such universal

acceptance, but rather they believe in individual and unique perspectives. They believe that the solutions depend on our experiences, views, knowledge and perceptions and since these vary from individual to individual, so does our views of the solutions. Realists adopt a neutral view and believe that none of the problems and their solutions are singular in nature, so taking extreme positivist or interpretivist stance is not the right approach. They recommend using an open approach, adopting interpretivism or positivism as the situation demands. For example, a researcher may believe that a universally acceptable truth may exist, but it may not be possible to collect verifiable data to uncover the universally acceptable truth. This research also adopts a pragmatist philosophy combined with mixed methodology.

Differences in adult groups' perceptions of unacceptable social behaviours in pre-schoolers are the primary barrier to resolving unacceptable behaviour issue, because different perceptions lead to different efforts. A behaviour that is taken as unacceptable by one group is taken as a normal behaviour among children by another group of adults. We need convergence in our efforts, and therefore a consistent perspective of unacceptable behaviour in pre-schoolers. Firstly, this research is looking to uncover the difference in perceptions of different groups of individuals targeted for this research. This fundamentally means that there is a possibility that individuals will have different perception of unacceptable social behaviour among children. This supports the interpretivist philosophy. However, this research also assumes that there may be clearly distinguishable differences in perceptions of different groups of individuals. The differences in the perceptions warrant the use of positivist philosophy. This means that answering the research questions would require the researcher to use both positivist and interpretivist philosophies, as proposed by pragmatists.

This research assumes that our perceptions of unacceptable social behaviours are context-dependent, and hence based on the participant's construction. But this research is aimed at finding a consistent perspective of unacceptable social behaviour among children from all different groups. In other words, developing a consensual perspective is the primary objective of this research. Despite the divergence in our perceptions of what constitutes unacceptable social behaviours, convergence is required to deal with unacceptable social behaviours in pre-schoolers. Furthermore, policymakers needed to work at the national level, using a holistic perspective of unacceptable social behaviours to address the issue at more general level. The generalisation required calls for a positivist approach to behavioural problem research, but accommodating and acknowledging diverse perspectives requires an interpretivist approach.

Hence their research contains both interpretivist and positivist philosophy and, consequently, a pragmatist standpoint was considered most suitable for this research.

In line with pragmatist epistemological stance, mixed ontology was considered useful for this research. As a result, this research mixed subjectivist and objectivist ontological standpoints, as pragmatism recommended. Subjectivist ontology illuminated the key underlying reasons as to why there exist differences in parents' and teachers' perceptions on social child behaviour. Objectivist ontology helped establish the differences. Positivist research was useful when a single truth existed and could be found. For human perceptions, this single truth did not exist. Positivists had used quantitative measures such as participant ratings as a measure of unacceptable social behaviours. Oliver and Conole (2003) term this as "the tendency to measure what is easily measured." However, it is believed that such an approach limits our ability to identify unacceptable social behaviours as such, because we are locked in the figures. This is unlike situations when there is room for qualitative measures which provide room for one to explain their interpretations to the best of their understanding.

Finally, as mentioned earlier, there is little information available about unacceptable social behaviours of pre-schoolers in Saudi Arabia. According to Quinn et al. (1998), "a single source of information generally does not produce sufficiently accurate information, especially if the problem behaviour served several functions that vary according to circumstance". In this research the main purpose is to identify the difference between perceptions of different groups and for this reason it is essential to learn about diverse perspectives. Mixing methods can help one understand the diverse views and assumptions, through the application of different methods of collecting and analysing data (Singh, 2007; Creswell, 2009). For this reason, in this research multiple methods approach and methodology are adopted.

3.4.2   Why pragmatism?

Paradigms lay foundations for research, allowing the researcher to identify the best methods and approaches to reach what the research aimed to achieve. This study will use pragmatism paradigm to explain the research process and give explanation to its findings. Krauss (2005) states that: "Despite many proposed differences between quantitative and qualitative epistemologies, ultimately, the heart of the quantitative-qualitative 'debate' is philosophical,

not methodological. Philosophical assumptions or a theoretical paradigm about the nature of reality are crucial to understanding the overall perspective from which the study is designed and carried out."

One key benefit of applying a pragmatic approach is that it helps to enhance the working space. Pragmatism allow for multiple standpoints to explore parents' and teachers' perceptions and to help the researcher to construct parental perceptions of behaviour through cultural characterisation (Pochtar and Vecchio, 2014). In other words, it allows for an in-depth investigation of behavioural differences among participants. The rationale behind discussing the pragmatic approach is to link the researcher findings with literature. For example, Vygotskian and social theory influence the interpretation and define the significance of the perceptions of pre-school children's behaviour. If realismwas the only approach to be applied in this research, the results on what constitute acceptable and unacceptable behaviour will settle around measures –frequency or consistency- and not values. However, if pragmatist's approach is put into consideration, such as the likelihood of the children engaging in socio-dramatic behaviours, then the results will vary depending on the environment, such as those that are group-oriented as in Saudi Arabia. Thus, values give the guidance on settling for acceptable and unacceptable child social behaviour (Christie, 1982). Together, these concepts are very important aspects of the contribution to knowledge because it is a unique combination of methodological approaches, and so will be central in the discussion.

3.4.3 Mixed method

The researcherconsidered mixed methods approach for a number of reasons. For example, data availability is consistent with successful quantitative methods results. The presences of large amount of data that describe the problem help the statistical analysis in reducing and improving the probability of success. Large amount of data help the researcher to endorse the result certainly from an informed point of view. Quantitative method is given an upper hand in this research. One key aspect of using quantitative method is the ease of procedures for data collection and data analysis (Jupp, 2006).

Qualitative method is also considered in this research. One important aspect about qualitative method useful for this research is it allows parent and teachers to elaborate or explain in their own words how they perceive acceptable/unacceptable child behaviour. Qualitative methods allow the researcher to capture important data relevant to the Saudi cultural context. Although qualitative data can be challenging to gather and assemble, one keyword can help the researcher to solve the problem and assist the researcher's to make sense of it (Singh, 2007). Mixed method approach is about combining qualitative and quantitative methods to allow the researcher to make best use of both methods interpretation, depending on the complexity of the research question and the availability of data. The researcher can overcome the shortcomings of one method with the strengths of the other. For example, the researcher can investigate relationships using quantitative methods and use qualitative methods to reflect on the nature of relationships. Mixed method approach in child behaviour research needs to focus on keeping the research consistently independent of the research outcome.

To benefit from both quantitative and qualitative methods the researcher needs to remain independent and able to use either method, based on the situation and context, to interpret the findings accurately (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2011). Onwuegbuzie and Daniel (2002) suggested that no research is purely quantitative or qualitative and that mixed methods help researchers to combine qualitative and quantitative methods to achieve multiple objectives. Their position on mixed methods has been adopted the researcher, with the only difference being that the data about child behaviour is secondary, acquired from parents' and teachers' perceptions.

This approach has not frequently been used to investigate what the components of the child's unacceptable social behaviours are, but the researcher supported its use to benefit from both depth and generalisation. One of the key aims of this research was a consistent and comprehensive perspective of "awkward and unacceptable social behaviours in pre-schoolers" which policymakers can use nationwide. Generalisation is a requirement for this objective. Also, perspectives on the issue were best investigated using multiple methods, as envisioned in pragmatist philosophical standpoints. As mentioned in the research philosophy section, the use of multiple methods is central to this research because it not only investigated the divergence in perceptions of child behaviours, but also proposes a comprehensive definition of the term.

Human behaviour is complex and should be examined using methods and information collection tools that considered its complexity. Consequently, using one method to collect data from one source about different behaviours is a weak procedure compared to using different methods and different sources (Shapiro and Kratochwill, 2000). Traditionally, for child behaviour, researchers have focused mainly on quantitative methodologies (Pastor et al, 2012; Prakash et al, 2008). There are several reasons for this, such as the ability to generalise, and demonstrate validity and reliability. However, the perception of behaviour is contextual and influenced by such aspects as socio-cultural background, education and demographics. Certain behaviours may be considered socially unacceptable in one community, but not in another. Hence, it is essential to understand the context in which they are perceived. This supports the use of qualitative research in this enquiry.

One of the problems with children behaviour research has been the selection of participants. Children were not considered to be appropriate participants and there are certain ethical issues regarding research involving them. Hence, children, thought the target of such research, are often not considered suitable for participation. The data was collected from the adult groups who interact with children on a regular basis, mostly parents and teachers. In fact, the nature of the sample was what had driven the researcher to select mixed methods. For example, the size of the population of the two groups (teachers and parents) was significantly different, requiring different methods to be used for the two groups.

3.5 Data collection

Data for this research was collected using three methods; informal discussions which we can term as one on one interview, questionnaire survey and focus groups. The data collection was intended to bring forth the information about the subject under research. The data collection methods were aimed at gaining insight into the subject studied to refine the purpose, aim and objectives of the research as well as to get some feedback on the questionnaire. It was considered when gathering the data and the items were formatted to use plain language. The data was collected and written in a direct technique, using simple language and avoiding technical terms and acronyms. Due to the nature of the Arabic language, in terms of grammar and the cultural nature of the vocabulary, the items were originally written in the Arabic

language to ensure that these items are consistent with a Saudi cultural context. The questionnaire, literally translated into English, is attached with the study.

3.5.1 The preliminary study

The preliminary study began in January 2013. At the beginning the researcher conducted preliminary discussions with pre-school headteachers from Riyadh. Extensive discussions took place regarding the research topic, with the researcher explaining that she was looking to investigate the field of child behaviour. Participants emphasised lack of awareness about the subject and agreed with the researcher about the lack of resources, code of practice and policies on the subject, not only in Riyadh, but also in Saudi Arabia as a country at large.

3.5.2 Questionnaire survey

The questionnaire survey stage itself comprised of several steps. Questions were first identified based on extensive literature review. Following this, two focus groups were conducted, one with the teachers and one with the parents, to develop better understanding of the issue and identify further questions for the survey. This was then followed by two pilot surveys. The first pilot study was conducted in two schools and was aimed at developing understanding, clarity and readability of the questionnaire for parents and teachers.   The second pilot survey was aimed at testing the psychometric properties of the questionnaire to ensure that parents' and teachers' perception were valid and reliable. The second pilot study samples included four schools. The psychometric properties assessment adopted with the expert assessment of the questionnaire revealed the importance of cultural influence. This is because the behaviour that anybody has depends so much on the culture in the place where they have been brought up from. Finally, the questionnaire survey was conducted with the parents and teachers.

3.5.3 Focus groups

Focus groups were conducted with parents and teachers to obtain more extensive data regarding the topic. Three focus groups were conducted; one with teachers, one with fathers and one with the mothers. In Saudi culture, mother and father may have different perceptions of unacceptable social behaviour in pre-school children due to the different upbringings of the males and females. It was thus considered essential to conduct two separate focus groups for that reason, whilst also noting that mixed focus groups could not be conducted due to gender segregation in Saudi culture (Abar et al, 2009; Buchele, 2010).

3.6 Questionnaire survey

3.6.1 Questionnaire development process

The purpose of this research is to identify the differences in teachers' and parents' perspective of socially unacceptable behaviour among pre-school children in Saudi Arabiato develop a consistent perspective. This perspective needs to accommodate both Saudi teachers' views of social behaviours among pre-school children. Out of the two methods used for collecting data, one was questionnaire survey. Questionnaires are quite useful in this study because:

- Questionnaires are useful for generalisation. In this study, it is required to verify whether teachers and parents have different perceptions of unacceptable behaviour in pre-school children. The difference can only be established through generalisation for which questionnaires are useful.

- Because these could be self-administered it is useful in overcoming sample limitations. This is especially useful in this research where the researcher (being female) cannot contact the male participants (i.e. fathers of children) directly due to cultural gender segregation.

- The participants may provide inaccurate responses due to perceived embarrassment; for example, some parents may say that they consider some behaviour as unacceptable even though they may consider it acceptable, as saying the truth may be

embarrassing. Questionnaires allow them to comment anonymously so the participants are more likely to speak the truth.

Questionnaires are the most common data collection method used for research involving social behaviours in children and extensive quantitative research has resulted in some standardised questionnaires which have been used to analyse social behaviours among children. For example, Prakash et al. (2008) used Achenbach's Child Behaviour Checklist (CBCL) which is a family of self-rated instruments that survey a broad range of difficulties encountered in children from pre-school age through to adolescence. CBCL is a multi-axial scale formed by age and gender. Various versions of CBCL have been designed to obtain similar types of data in a similar format from the perspectives of different adult groups such as parents, teachers and youth.

The process of development of the questionnaire began with review of existing literature including, in particular, studies which have used questionnaires as data collection tools. These articles were firstly organised depending on whether the study was conducted in Arabic country or non-Arabic country. Most of the studies conducted were in context of western nations (Bernedo et al. 2012; Eyberg and Ross, 1978; Gross et al. 2004; Gross et al.2007; Kristensen et al. 2010; Merrell, 2002; Miller et al. 1997), but some research has been conducted in the context of Arabic nations as well (Ahmed, 2004; Alsmaduna, 1990; Elewa, 1998; Elshekhs, 1994; Hassan, 1996). These articles were reviewed to see which questionnaire is most comprehensive and which questions are suitable for Saudi context.

As the literature review shows, there is not yet a perspective of socially unacceptable behaviour that is consistent with the Saudi cultural context; thus, a developing a consistently perceived view of socially unacceptablebehaviour is being identified. To do so, two focus groups were conducted; one with teachers and one with mothers. Ten mothers were asked to attend the focus group, but only six of them actually attended. In addition, five teachers and headteachers were asked to participate in a focus group, out of which four attended. The researcher managed these two focus groups. The discussions focused on behaviour that could be considered socially unacceptable. The discussions showed that for both mothers and teachers there are consistencies in perception of some behaviour as unacceptable, such as lying and stealing. Many of these were found consistent with unacceptable behaviour definitions from western nations. However, there are some differences in this concept. For

example, boys' playing with girls is seen as normal in Western culture, while it is considered a sign of socially unacceptable behaviour according to parents in Saudi Arabian culture. Asking teachers or teachers to explain their behaviour could be considered a sign of lack of respect towards adults, as parents usually take their children with them to the mosque and children refusing to go may be considered a violation of religious rules towards parents (Abar et al, 2009). In Western culture, on the other hand, this would be considered as practicing a personal right. Therefore, this was taken into account when the items for the questionnaire were developed when the items were formatted to use plain language. The items have been written in a direct way, using simple language and avoiding technical terms and acronyms. Due to the nature of the Arabic language, in terms of grammar and the cultural nature of the vocabulary, the items were originally written in the Arabic language to ensure that these items are consistent with a Saudi cultural context (Jianzhong, 1998). The questionnaire is paper-based and has been administered in person to teachers who sent it in an envelope with children to their parents.

3.6.2 Pilot survey

In all two pilot surveys were conducted. Table 5 gives the target population for the pilot surveys.

Table 5 Pilot study samples

Study	Sample
1st Pilot study	30 parents and 12 teachers from2 schools
2nd Pilot study	200 parents and 60 teachers from 4 schools

3.6.2.1 First pilot survey

Questionnaires are generally self-administered. While self-administered questionnaire surveys increase the response rate by giving participants more flexibility, there remains a strong likelihood of errors in questionnaire survey. One method to reduce the errors in questionnaire surveys is carry out pilot survey to ease out the issues such as ambiguity, poor readability, misinterpretation and misunderstanding in the questions. In February 2014 the questionnaire was piloted. The procedure was aimed to ensure: 1) the items are well worded;

2) the items are understandable and readable by the participant. 3) The instructions are clear and applicable. To complete these procedures, a sample of 30 parents and 12 teachers were asked to participate in the pilot study. The questionnaire was sent to parents by the head teachers of schools via the children. The researcher sent the questionnaire to the teachers. Twenty-one parents returned the questionnaire reaching 70 per cent participation, and all 12 teachers completed the questionnaire reaching 100 per cent participation. The participants were asked to state whether the items were well understood and the instructions were clear and could be followed. The first pilot study procedures took about six months, including obtaining informed consent, discussion with teachers regarding the presence of a code of practice and policy, carrying out focus groups with parents and teachers, items generation, reviewing the previous scale and questionnaire and review of the questionnaire by a group of experts.

1st Pilot study analysis: The analysis of wording, understanding and readability of the questionnaire for parent and teachers were assumed by consulting experts from four Saudi universities, with the advice of 11 experts being taken.

1st Pilot study outcomes: The first pilot study shed light on several issues such as the length of the questionnaire, the cultural influence and the sample size. The number of questions in the questionnaire was reduced from 82 questions to 76 questions only. The six questions were omitted because they didn't relate to the Saudi culture. Based on suggestions from the participants some questions were re-worded and a final form of the questionnaire was produced. It was thendecided that the sample size need to be increased from 30 to 200 in order to manage and improve readability and understandability of the questionnaire.

3.6.2.2 Second pilot survey

The aim of this second pilot study, conducted in August 2014, was to discover the psychometric properties of the questionnaire to ensure that it is valid and reliable for investigating behavioural problems. Another reason was to apply the outcome from the first pilot study, for example the sample size and the cultural influence. The sample of parents was increased to 200 and the sample of 60 teachers who were randomly selected. As the main aim of the enquiry was to explore awkward and unacceptable behaviours that are not due to

mental disorders or intellectual disabilities parents of children who have a record of mental disorders or intellectual disabilities were not selected. All participants (200 parents and 60 teachers) received the questionnaire. The parents were contacted first by the headteacher to ask them to participate in the study and introduce the researcher to them. When their preliminary agreement had been gained, the researcher sent out an information sheet, consent form and a questionnaire with their children.

- **2st Pilot study outcomes:**

Wording, understanding and readability of the questionnaire for parent and teachers were examined by consulting expert from four Saudi universities. Experts' advice following the first pilotwas to reduce the items from 82 questions to 76 questions as six questions were deemed less reflective of the Saudi cultural context. After the second pilot study, the questions were reduced from 76 to 59 for parents and from 59 to 42 for teachers. The questions were reduced citing the lengthy time it takes parents and teachers to complete the questions so that to ensure 100 per cent response from the targeted sample size.

3.6.3 Behaviour statement generation

Existing research was reviewed to understand how these investigate behaviour in Saudi context which indicates that Arabic studies lack depth in the way they examined behaviour as these merely follow western methods. At this point the researcher needed to know what is meant by socially unacceptable behaviour in Saudi context and needed to identify different types of behaviour such as, aggression, fear and shyness. Another objective was to uncover any issues in regards to culture segregation. Based on a review of the studies that have investigated behavioural problems and the results of focus groups, six aspects of socially unacceptable behaviourwere identified to develop the scale. These include aggressive behaviours (27 items), lying (12 items), fear (18), social problems (9 items), breaking school rules (10 items) and strange habits (6 items). Consequently, 82 items were obtained in six areas of behavioural problems.

To measure to what extent the behaviours listed in the questionnaire are considered to besocially unacceptable, a Likert type scale of five responses (strongly agree, agree, not sure, disagree, and strongly disagree) has been used. In addition, a five-response scale (never, seldom, not sure, often, always) has been used to measure how often these behaviours

happen. It was taken into account that this measure must be applicable to a sample of parents and teachers. All items were reviewed by 11 educational psychologists from Saudi universities who were asked to evaluate whether the items were suitable for measuring behavioural problems or not and whether the items needed to be modified. After the consideration of experts' comments, six items were eliminated and others modified. Three items were removed as they were reported as not being suitable for the age of pre-school children; these items were drug abuse, threatening others using weapons and sexual abuse of others. The other items were omitted due to duplication. Consequently, 59 and 42 items remained for further validation procedures.

3.6.4   Summary of questionnaire preparation

Table 6Steps followed for item generation

Method/ instruments	Participants	Outcomes
Initial item of behaviour	Focus group with parents and teachers/ literature review	82 item scale. aggressive behaviours (27 items), lying (12 items), fear (18), social problems (9 items), breaking school rules (10 items) and strange habits (6
Handling questionnaire	11 psychologists and educational psychologists from	6 items from the original 82 item scale were removed leaving 76 items
First pilot study-Questionnaire survey	21 parents and 12 teachers	To ensure appropriate wording, understanding and clarity
Second pilot study-Questionnaire survey	200 parents and 60 teachers	To discover the psychometric properties of the questionnaire to ensure that it is valid and reliable for examining behavioural problems

Table 7 Kindergartens selection characteristics

No	Area	Management	Years of operation
1	Al Iskan	Private	7 years
2	Al Munsiyah	Government	25 years
3	Al Murabba	Government	17 years
4	An Narjis	Government	22 years

3.6.5 Questionnaire administration

The researcher decided to use questionnaire because this approach fit well with the Saudi traditional conservative society where people often tend not to engage in discussion with unknown individuals. The questionnaire was paper-based and has been administered in person to teachers who sent it in an envelope with children to their parents. The study was conducted in Arabic language. In fact the questionnaire was designed in the Arabic language. The reason for that all of participant spoke in Arabic, while only few spoke English.   The items were written in a direct way, using simple language and avoiding technical terms and acronyms. Due to the nature of the Arabic language, in terms of grammar and the cultural nature of the vocabulary, the items were originally written in the Arabic language to ensure that these items are consistent with a Saudi cultural context. The questionnaire, literally translated into English, is attached as Appendix 3.

Questionnaires were designed approximately to take 15-30 minutes of participants' time and included three open questions to obtain additional information about socially acceptable and unacceptable behaviour. However, none of the participants answered the open questions in the questionnaire which was unexpected.

3.6.6 Quantitative study sample

The sampling for this research was not based on probabilities because the sample was picked with certainty. This kind of sampling is referred to as purposive sampling which is strategically a representative of a typical case. According to Babbie (2010: 173), sampling is "a method of selecting some part of a group to represent the entire population". Strydom and Venter (2002: 198) refer to sampling as, "taking a portion of that population or universe and considering it representative of that population or universe". The research cannot collect data from the whole population in random, so it was essential for the researcher to identify reasonable representative sampling method. According to Fisher (2007), accurate sampling is required to ensure that there is no bias in selecting the data and that the sample represents the whole population.

By making use of purposive sampling the research had to avoid children with disorders like mental illness, physical disability and autism. This is because their behaviours are not normaland they cannot help us find out socially acceptable and or unacceptable behaviours as they are special cases.

For this research, data was collected from the parents and teachers of pre-school children studying in Riyadh because this has been selected as targeted populationfor this research. Also, parents and teachers are two of the adult groups which frequently interacted with the pre-school children and are best positioned to diagnose unacceptable social behaviour in pre-school children. In order to increase the sample size, it was decided to contact both mothers and fathers of pre-school children in Riyadh. The data were collected from the adult groups who interact with children on a regular basis and these were the teachers and parents. The sample selection for the quantitative study were based and extended from the previous preliminary and pilot studies. The total number of possible participants was 260 including 200 parents and 60 teachers. It was not possible to hit the 100 percent response target, but 190 parents and 40 teachers responded and brought back the questionnaires. This cumulatively resulted to 88.5 per cent of the targeted participants.Parents were explicitly requested to answer the questions with reference to their own child(ren) and not with reference to children's behaviour in general.

Table 8: Response rate

Category of respondent	Number of individuals contacted	Number of participants
Parents	200	190 (128 fathers, 62 mothers)
Teachers	60	40
Total	260	230

Teachers were contacted directly by the researcher in their school. Sixty teachers were selected; only 40 of them returned questionnaires that were eligible for statistical analysis.

There were several reasons why a paper format questionnaire was preferred over digital form:

- Not all the parents have access to computers and internet and not all of them have emails.
- With online questionnaires, there is the perceived possibility of tracing the respondent, but in case of hard copies, there is no such possibility.
- Participants do not need to fill in the complete questionnaire in a single sitting, whereas in the case of online questionnaires, participantshave tocomplete the questionnaire in one sitting, because shutting down the browser would end the session.
- Responses received were manually put into the SPSS file which was then used for statistical analysis.
- Number of target participants was not large and participants were not geographically dispersed. It was much easier to contact the participants through the teachers as they had contact details of the parents.

3.6.7 Quantitative data analysis

Data from the questionnaire was uploaded into the SPSS software. Following this, the responses were rearranged to eliminate any randomness contained in the questionnaire to ensure that the responses are valid and that the participants had read the question in order to answer it. Following this, statistical tests were conducted to compare the responses from the parents and teacher groups.

3.7 The qualitative study

Most of the past research studies into social behaviours have relied extensively on quantitative methods. However, the nature of this research, which involved establishing a new framework/ theory of social behaviours in pre-school children, requires the use of qualitative research. This was based on the view that individuals' perceptions of acceptable and unacceptable social behaviours in pre-school children are contextually and culturally bound and hence it is essential to capture the context in which they are defined.

One important revelation that influenced the qualitative study was that during the quantitative study participants were reluctant to answer the open questions. As a result, further investigation is needed to explore areas not covered by the quantitative study questionnaire. Parents may decide to conceal information to protect their children or to avoid feelings of embarrassment. They may be more willing to be open to the idea of discussing their children's behaviour among other parents. For example, if one person expresses an opinion other participants may not feel any embarrassment in supporting them because they know that they are not the only one expressing that kind of opinion.

Parents may be willing to trust focus group setting with other parents rather than giving information about their children. This research aimed at exploring the differences and similarities in the perceptions of different adult groups and to go further beyond listing the differences and similarities in perspectives, qualitative research should allow the researcher to investigate the underlying causes leading to differences and similarities. This approach is essential to aid the research to build up a comprehensive definition that can be used across the board by all stakeholders. The qualitative data for this research was collected using three focus groups, one each with mothers, fathers and teachers.

3.7.1 The qualitative study data collection method via focus groups

A focus group is an instrument designed with a specific purpose and mandate to assist researchers to explore and understand a particular social phenomenon. The focus group discussion involves small number of participants, led by few moderators and interpreters interchangeably, which seeks to gain an insight into the participants' experiences, attitudes

and/or perceptions (Barbour, 2007; Singh, 2007). There are several benefits to using focus groups. For example, a cross verification of responses is performed simultaneously because it involves more than one participant. Focus groups are conducted in a social environment and are less formal. This could reduce the level of stress or anxiety that some participants may face, but at the same time it increases the risk of losing focus. It is researcher's responsibility to ensure that the focus groups stays on the agenda and does not drift away.

The focus groups were aimed at understanding teachers' and parents' perspectives on the social behaviours of pre-school children that occur at home and in school. The main questions that this part aimed to answer were: which were the most commonly unacceptable social behaviours in pre-school children, what needed to be done to resolve the unacceptable social behaviours in pre-school children, and what do the teachers and parents think about unacceptable social behaviours in pre-school children?

Focus groups have been extensively used in child psychology research in last two decades. McMahon and Patton (1997) used it in their research on school counselling while MacMullin and Odeh (1999) used it in their research on child psychiatry. According to O'Driscoll et al. (2010: 25):

> *Focus groups are a recognised tool for elucidating rich personal data from participants through the 'explicit use of group interaction' to produce data and insights. Participantsare able to agree or disagree and develop themes introduced by other group members during the group discussion and interaction; there is no compulsion to reach consensus and additionally no participant is required to contribute.*

The qualitative study data collection followed a number of criteria for example, to allow for group interaction, no pressure on participants to reach consent or agreement and no demands them to engage in the discussion.

3.7.2 Conducting Focus Group Sessions

The researcher approached the parents and teachers via the headteacher who forwarded information sheets and consent forms to all the parents and teachers. Participants were asked to fill in the information sheet and return it to the researcher in the self-addressed envelopes provided. The researcher then directly contacted the individuals who sent their consent for participation in the focus group. The focus groups for teachers and mother were arranged in Princess Norah University campus because this is a female university, meaning none of the participants should have reservations in attending the focus group as there would be no males present. The focus group for the fathers was arranged in King Saud University campus which is an all-male university.

The researcher herself conducted the focus groups for the teachers and mothers, but due to Saudi culture, which prevents any contact between unfamiliar male and females, the researcher could not manage the focus group for fathers. This was instead managed by two assistant moderators and one translator. These were thoroughly instructed by the researcher about the purpose and the kind of questions that are to be asked. The researcher was in constant touch with one of the moderators through mobile phone so as to keep track of the progress of the focus group and ask questions when needed.

The focus groups were conducted in six stages: question formation, group preparation, data collection, data preparation, data analysis and interpretation. The focus group interview process is aimed at exploring group member perception in the presence of other parents and teachers. The types of interview questions in this study are broad to allow the focus group participants maximum opportunity to elaborate, an opportunity that was missing during the quantitative questionnaire. Another important issue was that the researcher while conducting the focus group was able to observe behaviour like persistence, jealousy, aggression, nervousness, nail-biting, sucking fingers, involuntary urination, defecation, lying, stealing, refusing to go to school and hyperactivity.

Four kindergartens were selected carefully; these included three government managed kindergartens and one privately run. The reason behind this selection was to diligently represent Riyadh city pre-school kindergarten population to investigate how the participants define unacceptable behaviour in pre-school children. In addition, the aim is to categorise the results of focus group members' observations about pre-school children behaviour in various types and explain whether these observations were socially acceptable.

3.7.2.1 Question formation

The questions used in the questionnaire were used as a basis for the questions for the focus group which were planned to bring forth the inner-most feelings from the group participants' perspective of the seven constructs. For example, aggression, lying, shyness etc. The main focal point is to determine acceptable /unacceptable children behaviour. The number of questions for focus groups were limited to seven only, one for each construct.

3.7.2.2 Group preparation

This stage began with identifying the potential participants for the focus groups. The help of contacts in Riyadh's kindergarten schools was sought to contact school administrators. After obtaining the permission, individual teachers were contacted to participate in the focus groups. Individuals were arranged to prepare homogenous focus groups of between 7-10 individuals in each. The number selected to keep a buffer of participants as some may fail to attend the focus group. Some of the criteria for selecting the participants were based on; the education background, the years of experience working with pre-school children's and knowledge about research ethics and procedures.

The researcher then contacted the participants to ask them about the date and time that was most convenient for them. Most of the participants suggested that an afternoon on a weekend would be a better time because this is the time when most people who go to work throughout the week are free and can offer help in the research as their leisure activity. Following three focus groups were organised for this research:

- Group A (mothers' group): Conducted November, 2015. Participants (N=7); four of them were working in governmental organisations and others were housewives with education level range from undergraduate diploma to a bachelors' degree.
- Group B (fathers' group): Conducted December, 2017. Participants (N=8); three of them were working in governmental organisations, four in private companies and one is running his own business.
- Group C (teachers' group): Conducted January, 2016. Participants (N=9) were

female. Seven of them were working in public schools and two in private schools. Six of them were married and all of those married had their own children. Three were fresh graduates from teachers' training colleges and were yet to be married, neither did they have children.

Questions were designed to elicit information from the groups on their viewpoints of behaviour problems, types of these problems and to determine what extent these behaviours were socially acceptable or not. The researcher conducted a pilot focus group in October 2015 aiming to determine the success of questions, the amount of discussion generated by questions and the time required by a focus group for discussion.

The guidelines mentioned by Krueger (1998) were used to structure the focus groups. All the focus groups were conducted in the Arabic language to ensure homogeneity as some participants may not understand English. The researcher sent a sample question set with the information sheet to ensure that the respondent knew what kind of questions to expect in the focus group. All participants signed a consent form, and they were told that they have right to withdraw at any stage without giving any reasons.

The session began with the researcher/moderator introducing themselves. Due to social limitations direct contact between men and women who are not relatives is not acceptable. Therefore, two male moderators conducted the focus group in the fathers' group. The researcher/ moderator provided a short orientation as to how the discussion would be conducted. The participants were asked to decide whether they prefer to use their real names or nicknames during the meetings. They agreed to use nicknames that they selected. Participants were seated facing each other around tables with name placards (nicknames) for identification purposes.

Researcher asked the participants if they will be comfortable with the focus group being audio recorded. However, some of the participants commented that they were not comfortable with the idea of audio recording the focus groups and hence the researcher decided to take down notes only. The researcher explained in brief the purpose and aim of the research and the participants were then presented with a series of questions to gain insight into their knowledge, views behaviour problems in pre-schoolchildren. At the end of each

focus group, the moderator and the researcher reviewed the focus group and made a record that ensured anonymity for group member individual responses.

3.7.2.3 Focus Group Composition

A total of three focus groups were developed and conducted, all of them were in Riyadh city. Each of the groups was composed as follows:

Group A (mothers' group): Conducted November 2015. Participants (N=7); four of them were working in governmental organisations, and others were housewives. The education level for all of them was between diploma and bachelor degree. Location of the focus group was the conference room in Princess Nourah University in Riyadh city.

Group B (fathers' group): Conducted December 2017. Participants (N=8); three of them were working in governmental organisations, four in private companies and one is running his own business. Location of the focus group was the conference room in King Saud University in Riyadh city.

Group C (teachers' group): Conducted January 2016. Participants (N=9) were female. Seven of them were working in public schools and two in private schools. Six of them were married. Location of the focus group was the conference room in Princess Nourah University in Riyadh city.

3.7.2.4 Data collection

The focus group was conducted by a team consisting of five members that include the researcher herself, the moderator who facilitates the discussion, arranges the rooms, provides guidance to participants and took notes. The researcher asked for the consent of the moderators if they agree to do the tasks required of them. Two moderators were recruited from Princess Nourah University and two from King Saud University (See Table 3.5e Moderators and translators for all focus groups).The focus groups moderators were organised to allow for cultural limitations and gender segregation as follows; 1 female moderator and 1

female translator for the mothers' group, 2 male moderators and 1 male translator for fathers' group and, 1 female moderator and 1 female translator for teachers' group.

Extensive discussion took place between the researcher and the moderators and among the moderators themselves to ensure that they understood the nature of the research to guarantee that they will deliver the interview as closely as possible to the other focus groups process. The researchers intended goal was to avoid any possible biases because of gender differences since the children themselves were not separated. She explained the nature of study, the objectives and foreseen issues on how to conduct the interviews. The researcher went through the questions of the focus group several times with those running the fathers' focus group. From all the above reasons that she explained to the moderators and the focus groups participants so they understood the nature of the research process and the task in hand.

The researcher learnt more about conducting effective focus groups through her participation and by working with several other researchers over the course of her study. She also learnt about what to do and what not to do while conducting focus group by noticing the impact on willingness to talk depending on the actions and behaviour of other participants and the moderators. The lessons learnt during these focus groups proved enormously valuable to her research.

The focus group were designed to elicit information from three groups on their viewpoints of pre-school children's behaviours. The meetings of all focus groups were scheduled to allow for two hours of discussion. The moderators and translators were organised as shown in Table 9, with moderators recruited to allow for privacy and gender segregation as highlighted previously.

Table 9 Group participant's moderators / translators for the focus groups

Group participants	Number of moderators	Translator
Mothers	1 (Female)	1 (Female)
Fathers	2 (Male)	1 (Male)
Teachers	1 (Female)	1 (Female)

Focus Group participants were recruited from four schools in Riyadh city.

Table 10 Kindergartens selection characteristics

No	Area	Management	Years
1	Al Iskan	Private	7 years
2	Al Rbwah	Government	25 years
3	Al Murabba	Government	17 years
4	An Narjis	Government	22 years

They were selected to represent the groups and the purpose of the study based on the following criteria: mothers and fathers of children in pre-school classes and their children. The selectionomitted any children's with previously diagnosed with any known disorder such as autism spectrum disorder or ADHD. In addition, teachers who were participants had to be those who working with pre-school children. It was planned to have 10 participants in each group of those who agreed to participate. However, groups were comprised of seven to nine participants in fathers', mothers' and teachers' group respectively. Other participants apologised for the attendance due to special circumstances. Refreshments were provided for the participants.

3.7.3   Group A (mothers' group)

This focus group was conducted in November 2015. Participants (N=7); four of them were working in governmental organisations and the rest were housewives. The education level for all of them was between diploma and bachelor degree.

Table 11 Mother's focus groups characteristics

No	Age	Education level	Parental (Years)	Employment (Years)
1	32	Bachelor	5	5

2	29	Housewife	1	0
3	28	Diploma	3	1
4	36	Housewife	13	3
5	39	Diploma	7	3
6	40	Bachelor	9	11
7	45	Housewife	15	2

3.7.4 Group B (fathers' group)

This focus group was conducted in December 2015 and the meeting took place in a meeting room in King Saud University. Participants (N=8); three of them were working in governmental institutions, four in private companies and one is running his own business. Due to Saudi culture certain limitations were imposed: direct contact between men and women who are not relatives is not allowed, therefore two male moderators and translator conducted the fathers' focus group. To do that, the researcher looked for moderators with an academic background, well-trained and experienced in conducting focus group interviews. The moderators and translators were working in King Saud and Princess Nourah Universities in the Department of Education. Their consent was obtained according to the research ethics and the guidelines of the university and worked under the researcher's supervision. Since the researcher could not be present during the fathers' focus group, she remained in contact with the moderators through phone.

Table 12 Father's focus groups characteristics

No	Age	Gender	Education level	Job	Employment (Years)
1	43	M	Diploma	Private company	25
2	39	M	Bachelor	Government	15
3	33	M	Diploma	Government	12
4	31	M	Bachelor	Private company	12
5	29	M	Diploma	Entrepreneur	10

6	49	M	Bachelor	Government	26
7	41	M	Bachelor	Private company	11
8	39	M	Diploma	Private company	5

The researcher is highly convinced that the focus group was consistent with the instructions and directions delivered to them carefully in many occasions. Moreover, they were familiar with the thesis because majority were Princess Nourah University lecturers.

3.7.5 Group C (teachers' group)

This group was conducted in January, 2016. Participants (N=9) were female. Seven of them were working in public schools and two in private schools. The meeting has taken place in a meeting room in Princess Nourah University in Riyadh city.

Table 13 Teacher's focus groups characteristics

No	Age	Gender	Education	School	Work experience
1	50	F	Master	Government	25
2	46	F	Diploma	Government	18
3	44	F	Bachelor	Government	15
4	39	F	Diploma	Private	5
5	37	F	Bachelor	Government	7
6	35	F	Diploma	Government	9
7	42	F	Bachelor	Government	11
8	49	F	Master	Government	20
9	40	F	Bachelor	Private	6

3.7.6 Data preparation

Focus groups were aimed at collecting qualitative data. However, since not all participants were fluent in English, the focus groups were conducted in Arabic. All of the participants

spoke fluent Arabic as all of them are native Arabic speakers. Content translation like faithful translation produces the precise contextual meaning of the original within the text and the constraints of the text grammatical structures (Jianzhong, 1998; McGorry, 2000). However, this method is not suitable for this study since the Saudi dialect is substantially different from that of the Formal Arabic language (Farghal and Shunnaq, 1992; Jupp, 2006). Finally, the researcher instructed the translator to combine both idiomatic translations (Gruber, 1993; Jianzhong, 1998) that normally reproduces the concept of the original. However, this method tends to omit noises or meaningless words (Mossop, 1990) by preferring colloquialisms and idioms where these noises or meaningless words extracted from the original word. Communicative translation is a type of translation where the exact contextual meaning of the original (Gruber, 1993) such that both content and language are readily acceptable and comprehensible to the audience (Jianzhong, 1998). Furthermore, the researcher discussed with the translator the research objectives and methodologies to produce a near cultural equivalent to the concepts and constructs of pre-school children behaviour (Jianzhong, 1998; Singh, 2007).

3.7.7 Focus group data analysis

Content analysis was used for data analysis. In the current study, specific questions were developed and the analysis was based on the questions. Therefore, codes based on the types of unacceptable social behaviour were created. It is worth mentioning this study followed quantitative studies on behavioural effects which identified categories of behavioural effects among pre-school children which allowed for the development of questions for the focus groups, built on the basis of the categories mentioned. Consequently, the coding followed two procedures: the first, prior coding, for which the categories were based on what had been obtained in the previous studies and, second, open coding used for the purpose of defining the new categories that arise during the examination of the data. As a result, another category was created called "regulations obedience-related problems."

For example, when the participants were asked to talk about aggressive behaviours they have observed in pre-school children, participants of the teachers' focus group (Group C) mentioned during their answers: *"Hits other children and make them cry." "takes belongings of others without their permission." "Destroys school property, for example, the*

blackboard", "hits the door with his foot row", "Speak bad words with his peers". Among the fathers' focus group (Group B) participants said, for example: *"hits his brothers with anything in his hand." "Screaming loudly", "It takes belongings of his brothers, especially when they are bringing new things to them." "She was strongly upset when bringing gifts to her brothers or sisters, even if there was a gift for her".*

Participants of the focus groups agreed that statements that reflect the actions of an aggressive behaviour (such as hitting, screaming, sabotages, breaking, speak bad words/ language) should be considered as aggressive behaviours. At the same time, the frequency of behaviours was measured by repeating the same phrase or words carrying the same meaning. The frequency was also measured by the approval of the other participants on the existence of behaviours of this kind. Approval has often been expressed either verbally, such as *"I agree with you," "it happened with me as well," "I noticed that too."* In addition, some participants were expressing their agreement on the presence of behaviours that were under discussion by using signs and gestures by hands or head.

The data coding method is aimed at developing a storyline to reveal parent and teacher's perception in sequence. This is to say, parents' and teachers' perception is captured without prior assumptions towards behaviour statements designed previously. Therefore, the focus group's data coding served the process of combining text voice and gesture to capture the focus groups trend, character and themes. The voice recording was refused by most of the participants. Relevant text was colour in data analysis and marked yellow to reflect trend and theme and green to reveal character and data theme. The frequency of similar behaviours was identified to measure the effect of semantic and phrases. The data was then analysed qualitatively where key words meanings were interpreted by arranging the data according to the contrasting viewpoints that they present. The followings are example of the focus groups data coding

The discussions about fears that children may have, were held with the mother's focus group (Group A).

"My child has a tendency of being afraid of going to the toilet alone and this mind set of my child has caused me much struggle in handling my daily schedule in the house because I run

a relatively busy schedule on daily basis, but this child demands much attention and therefore consumes more of my time required for other chores and attending to the rest of the kids".

One mother looked like she disagreed

"My daughter fears being treated and she is very much scared whenever she sees a doctor or a nurse or anybody dressed like a doctor or a nurse. It is really a big problem whenever I take her to hospital. The nurses and doctors also find it hard to offer medical services to her because she becomes stubborn all the time."

"My child is cowardly for he fears to be left alone especially in places where there are so many people or a place that is enclosed with low light intensity. During his sleep, I have to leave the lights of the room on."

The adjacent motherlifts up her hand in agreement

While among the fathers' focus group (Group B) participants said, for example:

"He beats his brothers or peers with anything in his hand."
"Screaming loudly"
"He takes belongings of his brothers, especially when they are bringing new things to them."
"She was very feeling bad when bringing gifts to her brothers or sisters, even if there was a gift to her."

Gesture with nodding shoulders from one of the fathers indicating similar responses.

For example, when the participants were asked to talk about aggressive behaviours they have observed it while in pre-school children, participants of the teachers' focus group (Group C) mentioned during their answers:

"Cruel to other children and make them unhappy."
"Take belongings of other children without the particular owner's permission or consent."
"Vandalises school property, for example, the blackboard"
"He bangs the door with his foot"

"Speak unfriendly language with his peers."

One of the teachers nods his head

Table 14 Data coding results

Behaviour type	Fathers	Mothers	Teachers
Aggression (gesture)	1	3	2
Aggression (verbal)	3	12	6
Aggression (voice)	n/a	n/a	n/a

In summary, the participants were more vocal compared to other data sources such as gesture and voice. Most of the participants focus groups agreed that statements that reflect the actions of an aggressive behaviour (such as hitting, screaming on others, sabotage, breaking, speak in bad language) should be considered as aggressive behaviours. At the same time, the frequency of behaviours was measured by repeating the same phrase or words carrying the same meaning. The frequency was also measured by the approval of the other participants on the existence of behaviours of this kind. Approval has often been expressed either verbally, such as *"I agree with you," "it happened with me as well," "I noticed that too"*. In addition, some participants were expressing their agreement on the presence of behaviours that were under discussion by using signs and gestures by hands or head. Most of the participants of the focus groups agreed that statements that reflect the actions of an aggressive behaviour (such as hitting, screaming on others, sabotages, breaking, speak in bad language) should be considered as aggressive behaviours. This is the first study that captures male perception and voice on behaviour of children has been captured in a direct way.

3.3.1.1 Access and Sampling

The current study underwent three major stages of research: data collection, data analysis and data interpretation (Creswell, 2009).Quantitative and qualitative methods have been used. First, a questionnaire was conducted in homes and four schools to identify how parents and teachers perceive socially acceptable or unacceptable behaviour in pre-school children in Saudi Arabia using a sample size of 260 adults comprising 200 parents and 60 teachers. Data has been collected, entered and analysed. A qualitative research approach (focus group) was

employed to intensely explore the concept of socially acceptable or unacceptable behaviour in pre-school children. The first and foremost issue the researcher needed to focus on was what he or she was trying to answer. The nature of the research process had a strong impact on the choice of method. In a research on social life, quantitative method alone cannot answer the research questions completely until the qualitative method is brought in to offer clarification and theoretical points of view. For this, the researcher should focus on the keywords parent and teachers deliver to answer the research questions. After identifying the nature of the research task, the researcher has to plan the data collection, taking availability and access to data into consideration (Leedy and Ormrod, 2010). The key consideration in choosing a research methodology is the selection of the pragmatist philosophy. It acted as a guiding tool for the selection of the rest of the research elements, such as the research approach and strategy, as well as the data collection tools (Krauss, 2005).

The planned date for conducting the focus group was October 2015. Participants had already been asked to join the focus groups with a prior knowledge of the purpose of the focus groups. Riyadh city has four main zones. These zones are culturally similar in terms of religion, language and customs. However, they are different in economic status, as well as the educational level of the parents. Accordingly, to choose a representative sample of this city four kindergartens were selected from these four zones, one from each. The participants were recruited from two types of schools: private and governmental schools. The number of private schools in the city was around a quarter of the number of total schools. Therefore, three public schools and one private school were selected randomly to ensure selecting a representative sample.

The participants included teachers, and parents of pre-school children. The selected schools in Riyadh city were contacted and their permission was obtained. A formal agreement was issued by the authorities of the education services in the city after they had received a letter from Canterbury Christ Church University. The duration of all focus groups session was arranged to last for about two hours. They are offered starting time of 15 minutes prior to the actual start of the focus group session to allow for filling out necessary paperwork, having a bite to eat and settling in with other group members.

With regards to sampling, it was important to mention here that, according to Saudi law, the workforce in kindergartens was composed only of female teachers. Therefore, men were not

allowed to access to school due to cultural differences. Accordingly, it was the responsibility of mothers to attend school meetings. Dropping off and picking up children to and from school is done by school bus. Therefore, the sample of teachers included females only. Sixty teachers were selected randomly, ensuring representation from each school.

3.7.7.2 Statistical methods

In this study there were two types of categorical variables in this study: ordinal and non-ordinal variables. Each type was coded using appropriate procedures. The statistical data analysis used in the study is frequency tabulation, descriptive statistics and non-parametric statistical tests. Since the dataset is not normally distributed, non-parametric methods are used. The Mann-Whitney test wasused to compare the difference ordinal variables (exposure issues) between binary variables. The chi-square test is to be used to compare the difference in proportion of non-ordinal variable between binary variables (American Psychiatric Association, 2000).

3.7.7.3 Limitations of Focus Groups

One of the key limitations of this study is the nature of the topic which may be quite sensitive for the individuals involved. The cultural aspects of Saudi Arabia which makes it even more sensitive as parents often do not like to acknowledge or perceive their child's behaviour as erratic or unacceptable (Abar et al, 2009; Buchele, 2010). This meant that discussing the topic and making sure that the participants gave their candid responses was an even bigger challenge. There is a possibility that due to the feelings of embarrassment many of the participants would not register true and complete responses. Parents also fear to expose their children's unacceptable behaviour because they feel they would be blamed for the same. The researcher tried to overcome this issue by directing the questions to the unacceptable behavioural problem in children in general, rather than the behavioural problems in the children of the participants so that the response given looks like it is referring to a third party.

Another limitation with a focus group is that some of the members may be more vocal and expressive than others owing to their personality, talking style, knowledge, education or some other factor (O'Driscoll et al., 2010). This means that the data can be biased according to the

views of the more expressive participants, while others could remain underrepresented. To eliminate such a possibility researcher/ moderators tried to keep an eye on the members who spoke less and motivated them to present their views.

It is normal to get less than 100 per cent targeted response to self-completion surveys, but is satisfactorily good to have 99, 98 or 95 per cent (American Psychiatric Association, 2000). Having attained 88.5 per cent response may be an indicator of too many targeted participants having fallen off and putting the research below the minimum acceptable confidence interval.

3.7.7.4 Other Considerations

To ensure methodological coherence, participants were given sufficient prior information as well as time to prepare themselves for the focus group. Participants were also given sufficient time to ask for any explanations before or during the focus group. Moderators also explained any terms they expected to be somewhat difficult or confusing for the participants. Also, the focus group size was maintained between five and 10 people to ensure it was not too empty or too crowded.

All information was disclosed completely and truthfully to the participants. Disclosure and transparency between the researcher and the participants is a key factor in ensuring the research delivers the best based on the willingness to give information needed (Barbour, 2007). Participation in a research is voluntary; one joins and leaves at their own will (Flick, 2007). Participants were also gives right to voluntary participation and freedom to withdraw. To maintain a panel, there should be incentives and motivation to persuade them and prevent or reduce the rate of dropping out. In this research, the only form of compensation provided was light refreshments. Participants were informed at the time of consent that no other form of compensation was to be provided. The researcher also guaranteed protection of privacy and anonymity of the participants. That is why the names of neither the participants, northe schools, are mentioned here.

3.8 Ethics

This research intended to identify social behaviours in pre-school children. Accordingly, a questionnaire for parents and teachers was developed, along with questions for focus group interviews with teachers.

The researcher obtained ethical approval for the study from the Faculty of Education, Ethics Committee at Canterbury Christ Church University (Appendix 1). All participants (parents and teachers) were provided with an information sheet on the study. Other principles of ethics were strictly followed. For example, the aims and nature of the study were explained to the participants (Light, 2001). Moreover, the participants were notified that they can freely withdraw from the study at any time or stage without any obligation, and, also, they were informed that their withdrawal will not have any negative effect in any way. Moreover, they were not asked to provide any reason for their withdrawal.

With regard to the participation of parents and teachers, an information sheet was presented to them to illustrate the aims, procedures and nature of the study(Appendix 2). In addition, they were asked to participate in the study and respond by completing a questionnaire or by participating in the focus group. They were asked to sign a consent form before data collection(Appendix 3).

To maintain the confidentiality all data has been saved on a computer that is password protected. The data was later saved on CDs and will be stored at Canterbury Christ Church University. The researcher has taken the necessary action to prevent anyone gaining access to the contents of the questionnaire and focus groups, except of course for the researcher and supervisors.

The researcher ensured that the names of all the participants remained anonymous, and they were saved in encrypted files on a protected database. The researcher coded these names.

3.8.1 Limitations

One of the limitations of the current approach was that there was no definition of behaviour problems that was consistent with Saudi culture. Most of the current literature and such studies have been conducted with Western populations. In contrast, it was known that Saudi

culture had different values and standards. Therefore, it was not suitable to use the definition that has been developed in Western culture in the current study.

There exists a difference among the parents' perception on what is socially acceptable or unacceptable behaviour. What the mothers feel is wrong the fathers tend to see it normal, and vice-versa, because in Saudi Arabia there is a significantly high level of gender segregation. Pre-schoolers are at the discovery age and this is where people develop behaviour whether good or bad. In Saudi Arabia, children have minimum touch with fathers and male people because even school meetings are attended by only mothers and the teachers for pre-school are only females (Alanazi, 2008). For these reasons, fathers had little information to give about child social behaviour.

3.9 Conclusion

In conclusion, this chapter focused on discussing the details of the research methodology adopted. In the beginning the chapteroutlined what had been achieved in the previous chapters and how this discussionintended to add to the sequence of steps required accomplishing the objectives of this research. After this, the purpose of the research was discussed. In the discussion of the purpose of the research, it came out vividly that the purpose was to arrive at a clear definition of unacceptable behaviour. This was followed by a discussion of the research philosophy. Within the research philosophy, four different kinds of philosophical standpoints were discussed, along with the key differences and their applicability in different or same areas in research.

From the research philosophy, it came out clearly that this research was a pragmatist piece of research which was based on the aim to understand through comparing and contrasting the perspectives (Rubin and Rubin, 2005). In this context, the research was to bring out the various perspectives of the adults' groups and it was essential to look at the problem from different perspectives. Pragmatism was adopted because it supported multiple perspectives and a pluralist approach. Consequently, a pragmatic philosophical standpoint had been used as it allows the use of multiple methods which were useful to investigate the problem from diverse perspectives.

Following the research philosophy, the choice of a mixed methods (Quantitative and Qualitative) strategy was discussed. Traditionally, unacceptable social behaviours researchers focused mainly on quantitative methodologies due to their benefits, such as the ease to generalise andensure validity and reliability among other advantages (Jupp, 2006).However, the researcher considers that social behaviours were culturally and contextually bound and hence this supported the use of qualitative research for behavioural problems. Consequently, there have been calls for multi-level mixed methods strategy. This research also adopted a mixed level multi-methods strategy to meet the desired level of a research being informative and detailed.

The data collection tools used for this research have also been described. The reason for the selection of questionnaires and focus groups has been justified and details of their application in the data collection process are provided along with their limitations and benefits. The sampling strategy adopted for both have been discussed, along with the data analysis approach used for both qualitative and quantitative data. The sample of participants only included adults because it is against the research ethics to include children (Light, 2001)

Chapter 4 Results

4.1 Quantitative results - Introduction

The previous chapter presented how the research data was been obtained and analysed. It also explained the need for a mixed methods approach. This chapter presents both the results of quantitative data analysis of survey data and findings from the qualitative focus group data. Even though the focus group data was qualitative, or narrative, the analysis takes a partly quantitative approach based on the frequency and key terms that reflect the research question.

4.2 Numerical analysis

The objectives of the study were achieved by using the statistical package SPSS to analyse the data collected from parents and teachers. One of the key criticisms made of educational researchers is that they take too exploratory an approach to statistical analysis, with the risk that some relationships will appear significant simply by chance (Gorard, 2001). This is a particular risk with Likert-type (e.g. strongly agree to strongly disagree) responses, since they can be added together or manipulated in ways which create confusion or overlook the assumptions which must be satisfied for inferential statistics. It is important to keep to some ground rules, for example avoiding the fallacy of equal intervals by not using inferential statistics on single items (Cohen, Manion, and Morrison, 2011). Instead, analysis should only be used on scales created from 3 or more items (Boone and Boone, 2012).

As a further check, the reliability of each scale should not be taken for granted and should be tested using Cronbach's alpha (Bryman and Cramer, 2012). This is particularly relevant to the context of this thesis because the latent variables from a survey designed in a western culture cannot be assumed to have transferability to a Saudi Arabian context. As well as testing the reliability of scales, it is therefore also necessary to look at potential refinements or new scales suitable for this different context – a task which is assisted by exploratory factor analysis using rotation (Field, 2009).

4.2.1 Teachers
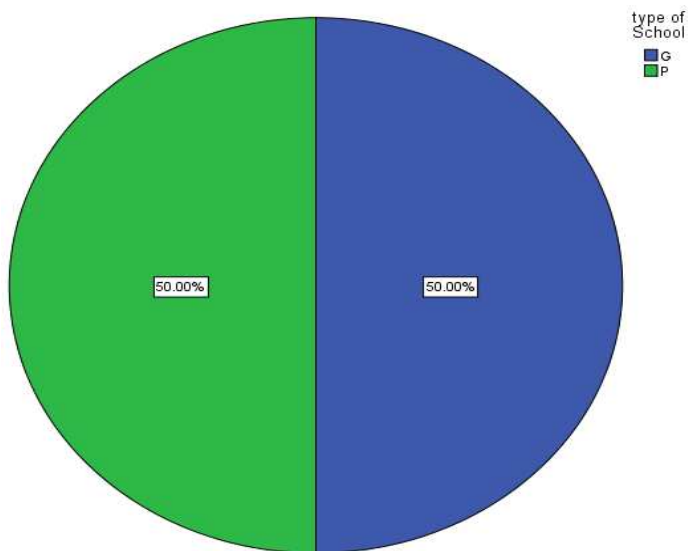
Figure 1 Distribution of teachers in terms of private and government schools

This study focussed on two types of school: government and private. Figure 1 shows that 50 per cent of teachers were drawn from the private schools, which indicates a good mix. This is essential because the culture and, to some degree, level of professionalism of teachers may differ in public and private schools with private school teachers, often paid more, expected to be more qualified, skilled and professional as compared to public school teachers, who are paid significantly less. This difference in professionalism may also affect their attitude towards socially unacceptable behaviour among children.
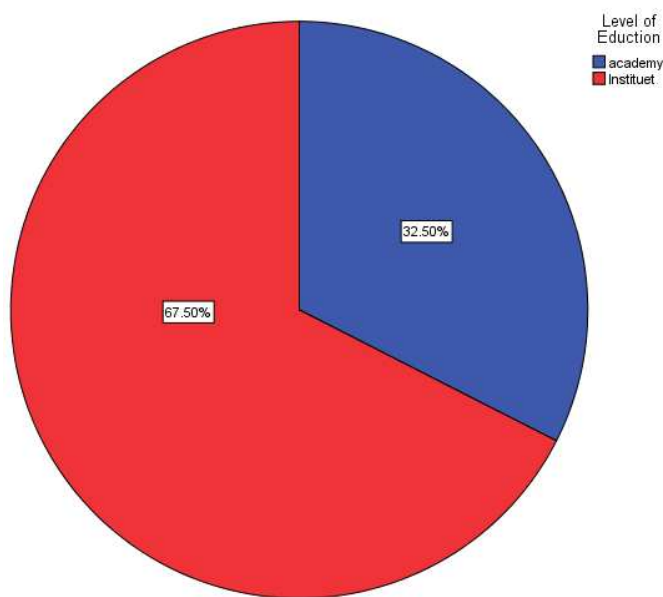
Figure 2 Distribution of teachers in terms of education level

More than half of the teachers held academic qualifications (67.5 per cent), while the rest held institutional qualifications (see Figure 2). Academic qualifications in teaching show the level of professionalism because in those undertaking initial teacher training also learn about class management, which includes managing socially unacceptable behaviour. That does not mean that the teachers will be able to manage all kinds of socially unacceptable behaviour, but it may raise their awareness. However, since many teachers in Saudi Arabia have only institutional qualifications, it was essential to include them in the survey. Distribution indicates that both groups, academically qualified and institutionally qualified, have adequate representation in the sample.
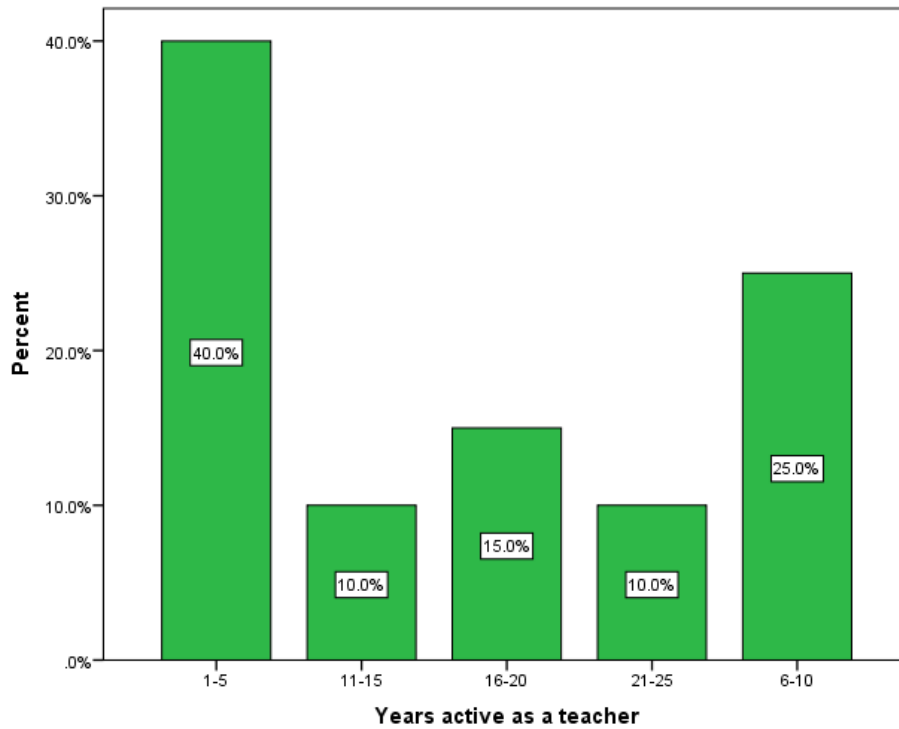
Figure 3 Distribution of teachers in terms of working as an active teacher

About 40 per cent of the teachers had worked between 1 and 5 years, whereas 25 per cent of them had worked between 6 and 10 years (see Figure 5.3). This means that 60 per cent of the participants had more than 5 years' work experience. This is important for this research because teachers can only answer the question accurately if they had sufficient experience of dealing with socially unacceptable behaviour issues in children.
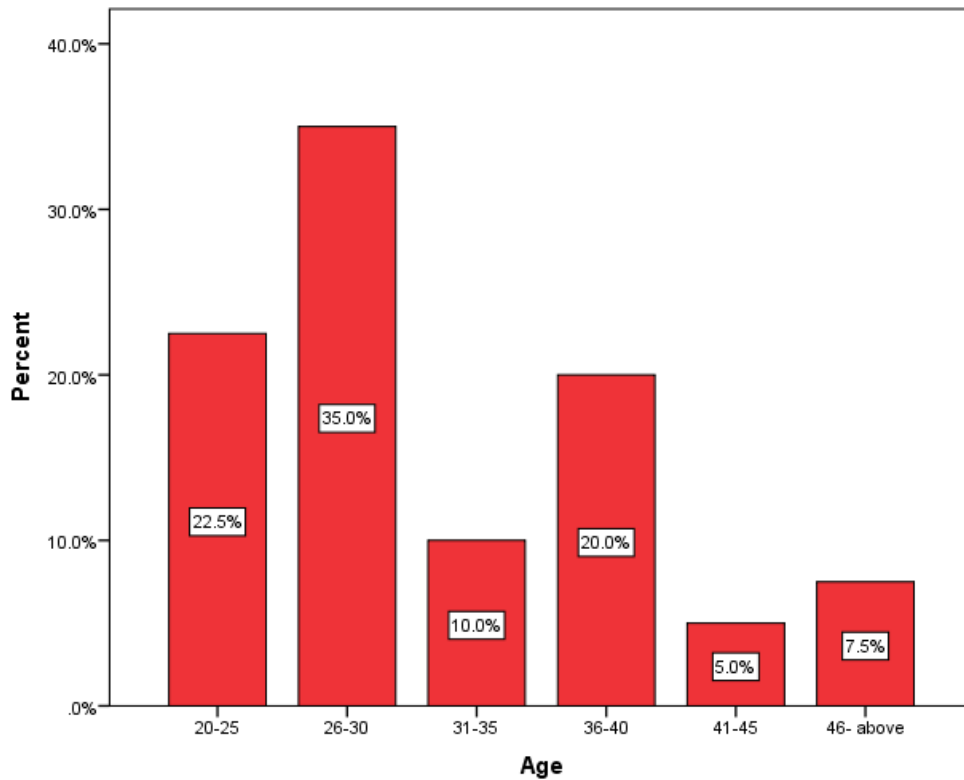
Figure 4 Distribution of teachers in terms of age

The ages of the majority of teachers (35 per cent) ranged between 26 and 30 years, and 22.5 per cent of them ranged between 20 and 25 years (Figure 4). The sample also seems well distributed with representation of almost all age groups.

4.2.1.1 Aggression

Aggression was the largest Likert scale, comprising 25 items. Table 4.2 below shows the descriptive statistics for this scale.

Table 15 Aggressive Behaviours scale descriptive statistics

Aggressive Behaviours scale descriptive statistics

N	Valid	40
	Missing	0
Mean		3.4350
Median		3.6000
Std. Deviation		.90293
Range		3.84
Minimum		1.16
Maximum		5.00

Table 16 Frequency of aggressive behaviours

Frequency of aggressive behaviours

N	Valid	40
	Missing	0
Mean		2.5570
Median		2.2000
Std. Deviation		1.15386
Range		3.84
Minimum		1.16
Maximum		5.00

Remembering that 1 was the lowest possible score and 5 the highest, a mean of 3.44 represents moderate agreement that aggressive behaviour is considered to be a problem by teachers. Similarly, the frequency scale runs from 1 (never) to 5 (always), so the mean of 2.56 is between "sometimes" and "not sure", suggesting that aggressive behaviour is infrequent.

Correlation testing, shown below, indicated that there was no statistically significant relationship between the behaviour being considered a problem and the behaviour being frequent. For example, it might be thought that more frequent misbehaviours would be more concerning or, conversely, that either rarer misbehaviour was taken more seriously or that

those behaviours taken most seriously would become rarer. However, this appeared to not be the case.

Table 17 Correlation of aggressive behaviour scale and frequency of aggressive behaviour

		AggressiveBehaviours scale	Frequency of AggressiveBehaviours
AggressiveBehaviours scale	Pearson Correlation	1	.276
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.085
	N	40	40
Frequency of AggressiveBehaviours	Pearson Correlation	.276	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.085	
	N	40	40

The overall reliability of the scale given by Cronbach's alpha was .967, and there were no items which were recommended for removal following listwise deletion testing. This indicates that the aggressive behaviours scale was robust and that each item was helpful. However, this is an in-depth survey and it would be helpful to find the most relevant items so that teachers will not always have to answer 25 separate items. As recommended by Boone and Boone (2012), an ideal scale will use only 5-7 items to get the right balance between predictive power and participant convenience. This is also helpful for avoiding respondent fatigue, since they could start paying less attention when faced with too many similar questions (Iarossi, 2005).

Principal component analysis indicates whether there is an underlying common theme in the variables; this allows grouping together of the variables thereby minimising the number of themes. An initial attempt at factor reduction using principal component analysis showed similar importance for each item. A rotated solution was then sought, using varimax rotation with Kaiser normalisation to try separate out sub-themes within the scale. The results for this

are shown below – for example, component 2 seems to emphasise attention-seeking types of aggression and draws these together with theft. However, these components all seem to mix together different types of aggressive behaviour and there is no clear pattern such as physical aggression or manipulative behaviour. Despite the practical disadvantages of using such a large scale on a questionnaire, it would therefore appear that these disadvantages are necessary given the complex and multi-faceted nature of aggressive behaviours.

Table 18 Rotated Component Matrix

	Component			
	1	2	3	4
Does not obey teachers' directions and orders	.852			
Throws rubbish on the floor in spite of the presence of a waste basket	.831			
Draws on walls and doors on purpose	.825			
Damages their own properties such as clothes, bags, etc.	.743			
Damages friends' belongings such as their clothes or bags	.730		.494	
Says nasty words	.666		.520	
Trips up peers on purpose while they are walking	.661	.524		
Challenges the teacher and replies to her (speaks back)	.624		.485	.506
Assaults on colleagues by hitting, biting, or pulling hair	.538		.503	.527
Cries in the classroom and asks to go home		.823		
Insists that a relative attends the class with him or her		.815		
Tells you about the mistakes of others so that you punish them		.731	.463	
Tends towards violent play	.491	.638		
Crushes children and pushes them away		.604		.489
Takes other children's toys when they cannot notice it		.592	.494	
Makes a lot of noise	.463	.496		.431
Seizes other peers' belongings by force		.413	.729	
Insults his or her peers	.488		.728	
Threatens his or her friends	.401		.677	
Hurts others on purpose when he or she notices that nobody can see them	.495		.644	
Prevents other children from playing and doing activities		.441	.582	.504
Uses things like sticks, shoes, etc. to hit or threaten	.499		.552	.525
Controls other children				.784
Fights other children		.551		.629

Mocks his or her peers		.401	.608

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalisation.

Rotation converged in 63 iterations.

Responses from teachers also seemed consistent across different teacher traits. Using the Chi-square test, differences in scale ratings were explored based on years of experience, type of school, level of education, teacher age and the age range taught. However, none of these were statistically significant differences. This adds further support to the idea that aggressive behaviour is a well-defined construct for these teachers, despite its complexity. The agreement, irrespective of different levels of experience or teaching context, would similarly indicate that this construct is based in truth and is not just the perception of some teachers in some contexts.

4.2.1.2 Lying

Lying was a scale made up of 6 items. The descriptive statistics are given below in table 19.

Table 19 Lying scale descriptive statistics

Lying scale descriptive statistics

N	Valid	40
	Missing	0
Mean		3.5042
Median		3.6667
Std. Deviation		.78491
Range		3.33
Minimum		1.33
Maximum		4.67

Frequency of lying scale descriptive statistics

N	Valid	40
	Missing	0
Mean		2.5000
Median		2.2500
Std. Deviation		1.00426
Range		4.00
Minimum		1.00
Maximum		5.00

The means are both higher than for aggressive behaviour, suggesting that lying is both more of a concern and more common than aggressive behaviour, albeit only slightly. As with aggressive behaviour, there was no meaningful correlation between concern and frequency (r=.349, p=.27), suggesting only a weak relationship between the two scales.

Cronbach's alpha was .524, making the scale unreliable. An alternative was suggested by listwise deletion testing, which indicated that question 28 ("claims that he or she needs to go to the toilet often") could be removed. This would improve the reliability of the scale to a much stronger .826, but has the disadvantage of reducing the scale to just two items, which limits its usefulness for inferential statistics since the range of scores is not broad enough to be treated as a scale. Overall, it is better to use a smaller and more reliable measure, so the non-parametric testing reported later in this chapter uses a modification of the lying scale from the teachers' questionnaire which disregards question 28. One simple explanation for this could be that the age range in the sample is younger than the range the questionnaire was designed for, so there could be complicating factors from children in this sample still being toilet-trained. Parents of young children are likely to encourage erring on the side of caution, so a toddler making repeated toilet requests is different from a teenager showing the same behaviour.

4.2.1.3 Social fields

Misbehaviour as measured by the social fields scale showed similar trends to the previous two scales, being a moderate concern, but relatively infrequent occurrence. Descriptive statistics are shown below.

Table 20 Social Field descriptive statistics

Social Field descriptive statistics

N	Valid	40
	Missing	0
Mean		3.1050
Median		3.0000
Std. Deviation		1.05148
Range		3.80

Minimum		1.20
Maximum		5.00

Frequency of social field descriptive statistics

N	Valid	40
	Missing	0
Mean		2.3500
Median		1.9000
Std. Deviation		1.19979
Range		4.00
Minimum		1.00
Maximum		5.00

Again, there was no statistically significant correlation between the concern and frequency scales for social field misbehaviour (r=-.071, p=.662). Slight improvements to scale reliability were found by removing the "prevents others from finishing their work in the class".

4.2.1.4 Fear

The fear scale comprised six items. Descriptive statistics are shown below.

Table 21 Fear descriptive statistics

Fear descriptive statistics

N	Valid	40
	Missing	0
Mean		3.1292
Median		3.0833
Std. Deviation		1.10134
Range		4.00

Minimum	1.00	
Maximum	5.00	

Frequency of fear descriptive statistics

N	Valid	40
	Missing	0
Mean		2.4042
Median		2.0000
Std. Deviation		1.17844
Range		4.00
Minimum		1.00
Maximum		5.00

As with the other scales, this indicates moderate concern and infrequent occurrence. There was also no correlation between the two scales with an almost perfectly random relationship (r=-.03, p=.855). The scale reliability could not be improved by removing any of the items. Combined with the strength of the scale reliability (Cronbach's alpha=.951), this suggests the scale was very robust.

4.2.1.5 Relationship between Social behaviours

It is important to explore whether the presence of one problem is combined with other problems in terms of perception or frequency. This was tested with Pearson's correlation. There were positive relationships found between fear and aggressive behaviours (r=.623, p<.01), fear and lying (r=.630, p<.01), aggressive behaviours and social field (r=.621, p<.01), and aggressive behaviours and lying (r=.823, p<.01). This suggests a very strong relationship between aggressive behaviours and lying, and moderately strong relationships for fear/aggression, fear/lying, and aggression/social field pairings.

Frequency of occurrences were much more inter-related, with each scale positively correlating with all the other frequency scales as shown below.

Table 22Correlation between frequency of fear, aggressive behaviour, social field and lying

		Frequency Fear	Frequency AggressiveBehaviours	Frequency SocialField	Frequency Lying
Frequency Fear	Pearson Correlation	1	.821**	.902**	.814**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.000
	N	40	40	40	40
Frequency Aggressive Behaviours	Pearson Correlation	.821**	1	.819**	.915**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.000
	N	40	40	40	40
Frequency Social Field	Pearson Correlation	.902**	.819**	1	.761**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000		.000
	N	40	40	40	40
Frequency Lying	Pearson Correlation	.814**	.915**	.761**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	
	N	40	40	40	40

This suggests that the frequencies of these behaviours are related to each other, so it is not the case that some teachers perceive some types of misbehaviour more than other types. This could in turn suggest that classrooms where misbehaviour is more frequent will experience

each of the misbehaviour types more frequently. This also shows that teachers are paying attention to all the different types, so a teacher who has to deal with more frequent aggressive behaviour is no less attentive to lying behaviours.

To look for any other differences in the scales, a range of chi-squared tests were run. This looks at differences between groups and the mean of their scores on each scale(split into quartiles) to see if there are any differences. While the chi-squared test is designed for comparing variables with a small number of categories, and so does not take account of factors such as one age group being older than the other, Field (2009) recommends the test as a first-check because it is simpler to understand and helps to give a rough guide to where meaningful relationships might be found. For example, it is illustrative to simply see if there are any differences in the responses from older and younger teachers before more detailed testing to explore what those differences might be or the ways in which age influences those differences.

Tests were conducted for years of teaching experience in 5 groups, state or public school, whether teachers had a diploma or licence, teachers' ages in 6 groups and the age range taught in 3 groups. For each group, differences were explored for all 8 scales. This means that 40 comparisons were made. Setting significance at the standard 5 per cent therefore means that up to 2 spurious or coincidental results could be expected (i.e. a type 1 error), so it would be important to look for a convincing narrative behind any differences by drawing upon the focus group data as a kind of triangulation.

There were no statistically significant differences based on level of teaching experience, teacher age, or teaching qualification, which is surprising as it might be assumed that newer, younger or less trained teachers would face more behaviour challenges. The same lack of difference was observed for type of school. This could be explained either by the two different types of school having similar experiences and pupil intakes, or that teachers' judgements in the scales were norm-referenced. Similarly, there were no differences based on the pupil age range being taught, which, again, is rather surprising as it might be expected that pupils just starting school may need more socialisation. Again, this could suggest norm-referencing, as teachers make allowances for such concerns.

Expanding the cut-off for significance could indicate some possible trends, so there may be a slight indication that more highly qualified teachers reported fewer incidents of misbehaviour, but these relationships were still weak even after making allowances for the small sample size. It therefore seems that, whether due to norm-referencing or genuine similarities, there was little to no difference reported on any of the scales based on teacher or school attributes.

One key limitation of chi-squared testing is that it only looks for differences in mean, so more complex relationships are missed. An alternative is to treat the scales as continuous data, thereby allowing the more sophisticated Mann-Whitney test to be used, which allows for more nuance and also has the advantage of taking into account data not following a normal distribution. Another advantage is that scale data can be left intact and does not have to be forced into quartiles to create categories. However, there is a related disadvantage of increasing the chance of creating Type 1 errors given the small sample size and high level of precision in the scales. Another disadvantage is that the Mann-Whitney test requires changing independent variables to two groups. This potentially increases the number of tests possible, and therefore the chance of reading too much meaning into relationships. For example, the results will differ based on how teachers' ages are categorised. Simply assigning to two categories by rank, so the youngest 20 and oldest 20, would be different from deciding on a meaningful cut-off between 'young' and 'old' teachers.

This was not a problem for independent variables, which were already in two categories, such as the type of school and type of teaching qualification. This showed some difference between state and public schools based on three scales. These were the frequency of aggressive behaviours (U=117, p=.025; higher in government schools), frequency of social field misbehaviours (U=100.5, p=.007; higher in government schools), and frequency of fear displays (U=138, p=.093; higher in government schools). The differences all support each other in terms of a narrative: that higher frequency of misbehaviour is reported in government than private schools. Despite the risk of spurious relationships due to the large number of tests, this narrative seems convincing.

The other Mann-Whitney test which did not require transforming data into categories was based on teachers' levels of education. There were two groups, those who trained at an academy and those who trained at an institute. Statistically significant differences were found

for frequency of aggressive behaviour (U=98, p=.025), frequency of lying (U=103, p=.036), and frequency of fear (U=104, p=.038). As with the type of school, each of these differences were also in the same direction – teachers trained at academies reported higher frequencies of these three misbehaviour scales than teachers trained at institutes. The other frequency scale, frequency of social field misbehaviours, showed the same relationship, but missed out on the 5 per cent significance level (p=.068), which again strengthens the overall narrative that academy-trained teachers reported more frequent behaviour problems.

These results may be indicating that professionally trained teachers may be more vigilant and aware of socially unacceptable behaviour because they are professionally trained in class management. On the other hand, teachers trained at institutes may not have the same level of knowledge and awareness. This is evident in their responses with the teachers trained at academies reporting more instances of socially unacceptable behaviour as compared to those trained at the institution. This finding also lends support to this research which argues for a consistent definition of socially unacceptable behaviour for all the concerned individuals to be aware of this.

Grouping age into evenly-sized categories gave 20-30 and 31+ as age groups, with 57.5 per cent of teachers 30 or below and 42.5 per cent of teachers 31 or above. Using these groups, no statistically significant differences were found on any scale. The tests were therefore re-run with just the youngest category separated, giving one group of 22.5 per cent of teachers 25 or younger and the remaining 77.5 per cent aged 26 or over. Even with this grouping of just the youngest teachers from the sample, no statistically significant differences were found. Coupled with the earlier chi-squared findings, it can therefore be confidently stated that there were no differences in responses related to the age of the teacher.

Similar categories were created for testing the impact of teaching experience. The first groupings were simply looking for evenly sized groups, creating a '10 years and fewer' category with 50 per cent of teachers and an '11 years and more' category with the other 50 per cent. Another grouping took just the least experienced, from 1-5 years, at 40 per cent of teachers, leaving the other group as the 60 per cent of teachers with more than 5 years' experience.

Using the first pair of groups, the only statistically significant result found was for the concern about fear-based behaviours scale (U=118.5, p=.027). When using the more extreme groupings, this was still found to be statistically significant (U=97.5, p=.09), as was concern about lying behaviours (U=117.5, p=.039). Concerns about social field and aggressive behaviours were also near to significance at p=.061 and p=.066, respectively. In each case, concern was found to be highest for the most experienced teachers. This indicates that teachers learn about socially unacceptable behaviour through their experience as well. It is understandable because not all the teachers will experience or witness all kinds of socially unacceptable behaviour in the first few years of their profession. However, as they continue to work, over time they will supervise many children, some of which may exhibit some kind of socially unacceptable behaviour. This is likely to improve their knowledge and awareness of what constitutes socially unacceptable behaviour as is evident in the results above.

4.3 Parents

Parents in the sample were well-qualified, with only around 10 per cent lacking higher education and over 15 per cent holding post graduate degrees, including doctorates.
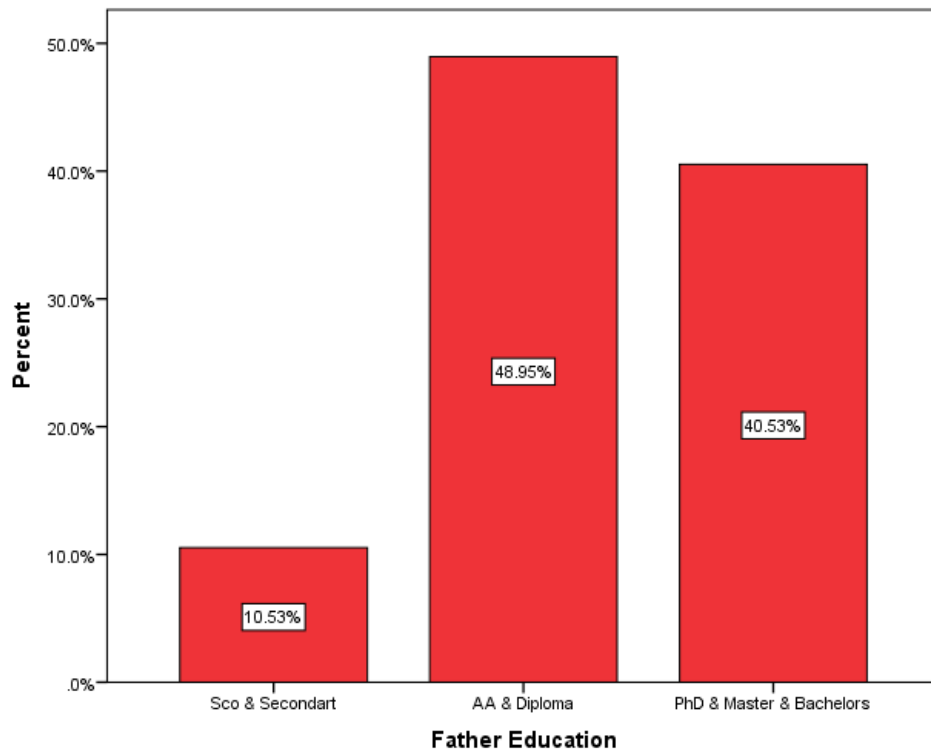
Figure 5 Distribution of fathers' educations
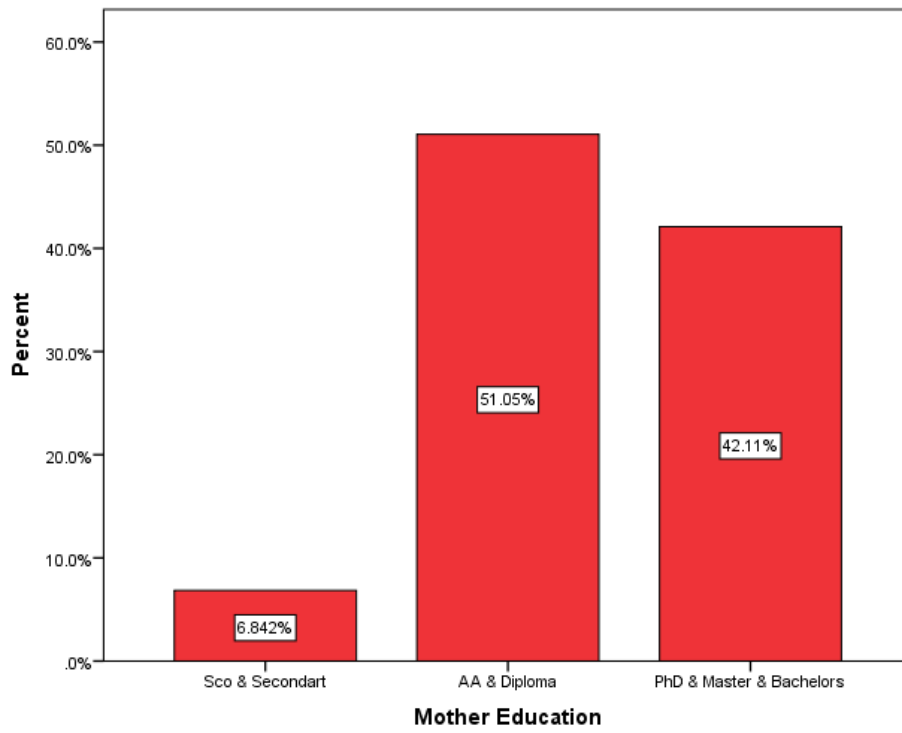
Figure 6 Distribution of mothers' educations

Charts indicate that mothers were slightly higher qualified than fathers, but differences were relatively minor (see Figures 5 and 6). It is useful that all the parents were somewhat educated because this ensured that could understand the questionnaire and fill it accurately.

Figure 5.7: Distribution of jobs for fathers
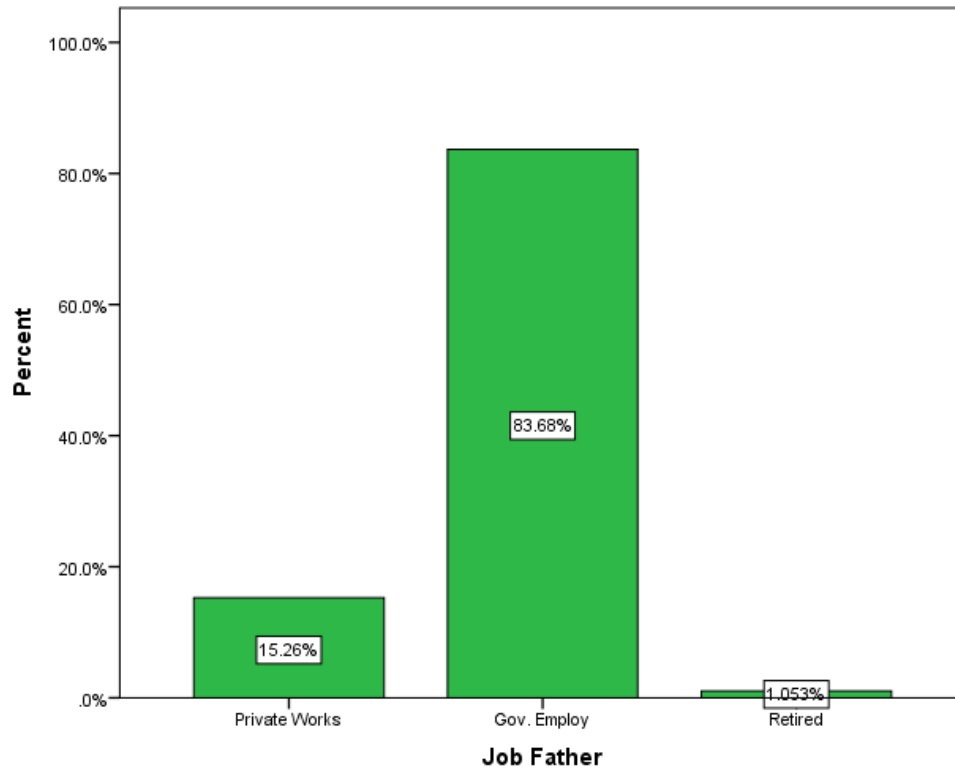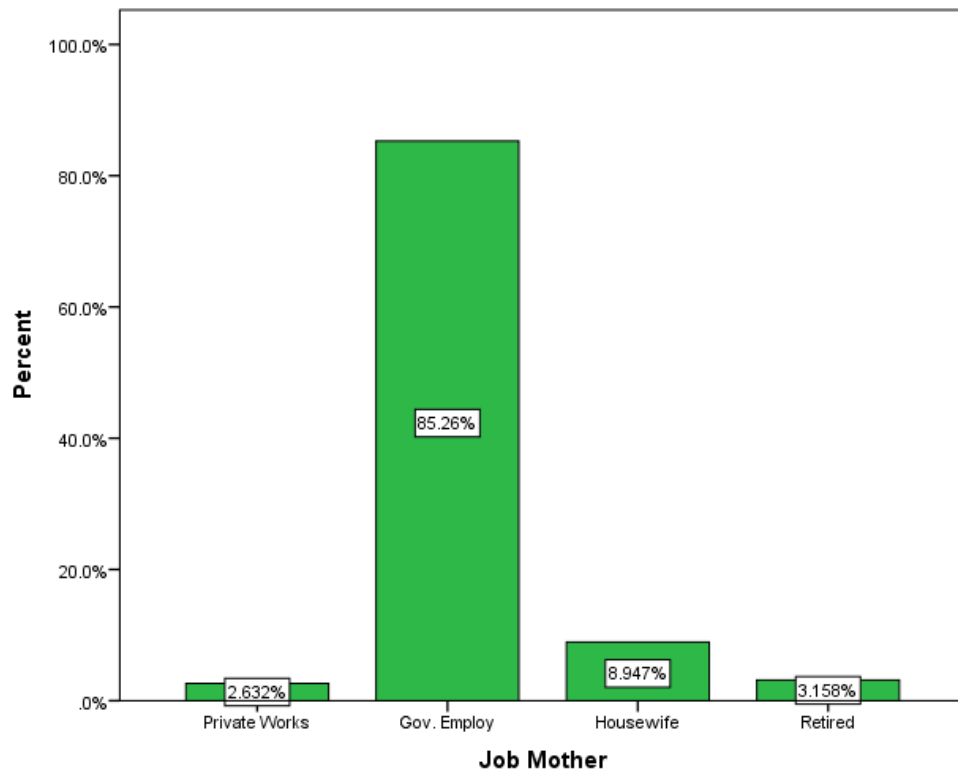
Figure 7 Distribution of jobs for mothers

Results indicate that most of the parents who participated in the survey worked in the public sector with around 85 per cent of parents employed in the government sector (see Figure 7). Unemployment was non-existent, with just a few retirees in the sample and around 9 per cent of mothers being housewives (see Figure 8). Public sector remains the largest employer in Saudi Arabia for the local population and this is evident in the results. Employment in public and private sector is relevant for this research because people working in public sector may be exposed to a different work culture which may be different than private sector organisational culture which is expected to be more disciplined and professional in comparison. On the other hand, public sector culture is more relaxed and bureaucratic and this may also affect employees' behaviour somewhat.
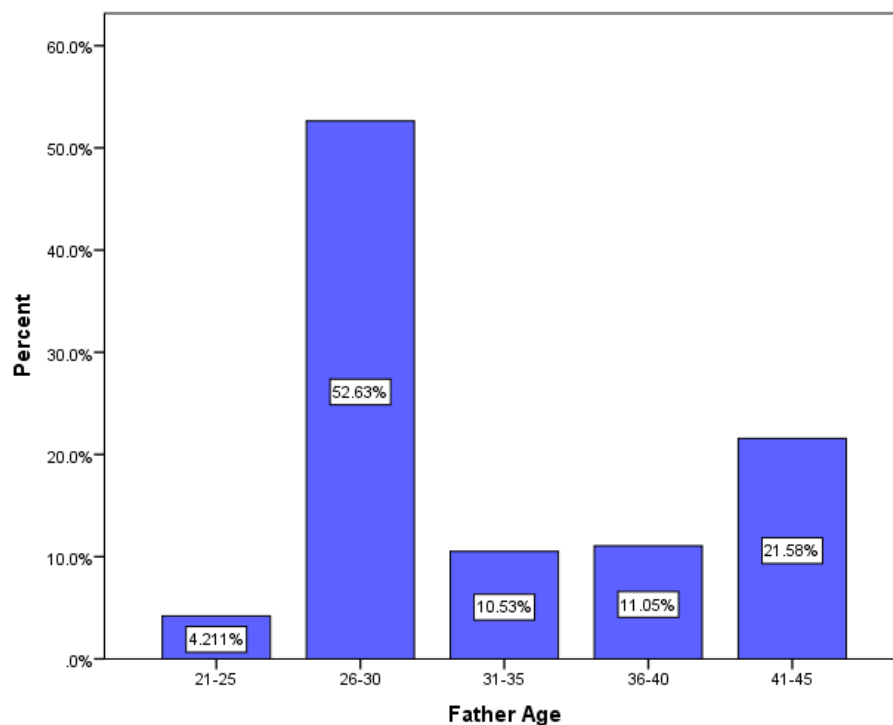
Figure 8 Distribution of age for fathers
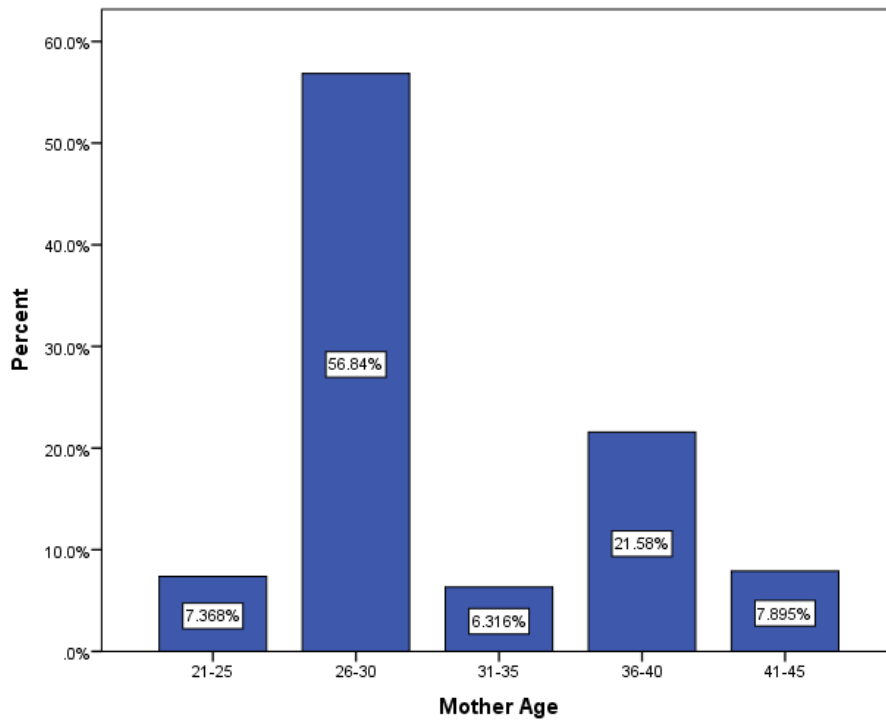
Figure 9 5.10: Distribution of age for mothers

In terms of age, about half of fathers (52.63 per cent) were 26 to 30 years of age, and 21.58 per cent of them were 41 to 45 years of age (see Figure 9). Likewise, more than half of mothers (56.84 per cent) were 26 to 30 years of age, and 21.58 per cent of them were 36 to 40 years of age (see Figure 10). This indicates that almost 2/3rd of the participants were young parents (under the age of 35).
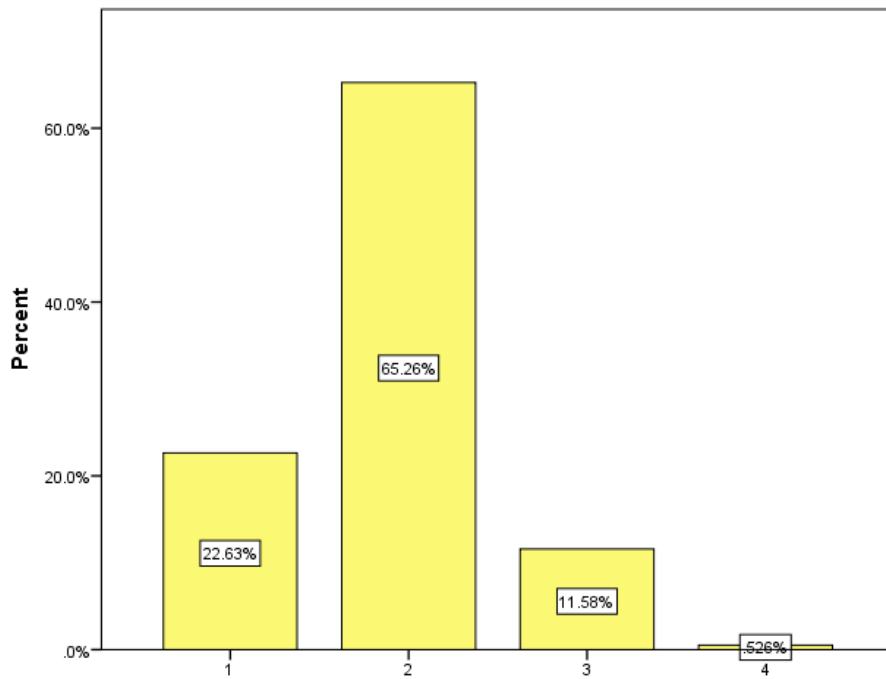
Figure 10 Distribution of boys within families
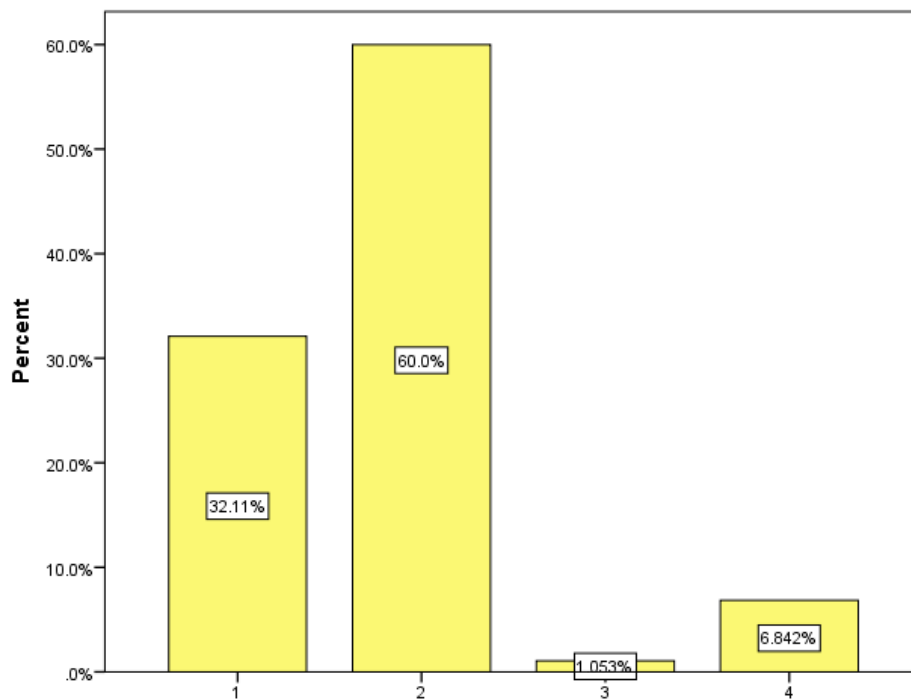
Figure 11 Distribution of girls within families

In terms of boys, less than two thirds of families (65.26 per cent) had two boys, and 22.63 per cent of them had one boy. A similar result was seen for girls, in that less than two thirds of

families (60 per cent) had two girls and third of families (32.11 per cent) had one girl (see Figures 11 and 12). This family composition may be relevant because in Saudi culture parents often have different expectations in terms of socially unacceptable behaviour for boys and girls. Even in the families with both boys and girls the socially acceptable behaviour of the girls and boys differ.

4.3.1 Aggression

As with the teachers' questionnaire, aggression was the largest Likert scale. Where teachers responded to 25 items relating to aggression, parents responded to 19. Descriptive statistics for the scale are shown below.

Table 23 Aggressive behaviours

Aggressive behaviours

N	Valid	190
	Missing	0
Mean		3.1083
Median		3.0000
Std. Deviation		.99647
Range		4.00
Minimum		1.00
Maximum		5.00

Frequency of Aggressive behaviours

N	Valid	190
	Missing	0
Mean		2.3086
Median		2.3684
Std. Deviation		.86897
Range		4.00
Minimum		1.00
Maximum		5.00

Remembering that 1 was the lowest possible score and 5 the highest, a mean of 3.10 represents is only somewhat higher than the neutral response (represented by score of 3). This is somewhat closer to the 3.44 (moderate agreement) score of responses from teachers. This indicates that there is some degree of convergence among parents' and teachers' opinion on this factor. Similarly, the frequency scale runs from 1 (never) to 5 (always), so the mean of 2.31 is between "sometimes" and "not sure", suggesting that aggressive behaviour is infrequent. Compared with the teachers' mean of 2.56, this shows that perceptions of frequency and the extent of concern are both lower for parents than for teachers, but not too far. This indicates that teachers and parents somewhat agree on perception and frequency of aggressive behaviour in children. The partial difference between the two could be because teachers witness children's behaviour with unrelated children while parents view their behaviour mainly with their siblings. It could be that children exhibit different behaviour towards unrelated children than towards their siblings or it could be that parents are more liberal towards aggressive behaviour of their children.

Correlation testing showed a statistically significant and moderately strong negative relationship between the two aggression scales (r= -.521, p<.01). Given that teachers did not show a correlation between these scales, this could suggest that parents' conceptualised aggressive behaviours somewhat differently from teachers – less concerning and less frequent, but also with a relationship between frequency and occurrence. It is also interesting that this is a negative correlation, which suggests that less frequent misbehaviours were more concerning or that those behaviours parents most concerned about were rarer.

The overall reliability of the scale given by Cronbach's alpha was .953, and there were no items which were recommended for removal following listwise deletion testing. This indicates that the aggressive behaviours scale was robust and that each item was helpful. This matches with the results from teachers, suggesting that both questionnaires were very reliable. As with the aggression scale given to teachers, factor analysis was unhelpful in highlighting any redundant items.

Due perhaps to the larger sample size for parents than teachers, more options were available for testing differences based on parent traits due to a more normal distribution in the data. The Kruskal-Wallis test was therefore used to look for differences based on whether the

mother or father was responding, parent education levels, parent occupation types, parent ages, numbers of boys and girls in the family, if parents lived together, if other adults such as grandparents or au pairs were used for childrearing, if children were aged 3-6 and parental salary. This resulted in 26 different tests, so again caution was needed with a 5 per cent significance level to avoid false positives.

The majority of tests (16 of 26) retained the null hypothesis, meaning that there were no statistically significant differences. However, some differences were found to be statistically significant and so the null hypotheses were rejected for the frequency of aggressive behaviours scale across father job type, concern over aggressive behaviours across mother job type, both scales across father age, frequency of aggressive behaviours across mother age, both scales across number of boys in the family, the same for girls and frequency of aggressive behaviours across primary caregiver categories. The significance levels for each of these is shown in the SPSS output appendix.

Table 24Aggressive behaviours frequency reporting by father's job

AggressiveBehaviours;

FreqAggressiveBehaviours * Job Father

Job Father		Aggressive Behaviours	Freq Aggressive Behaviours
Private Works	Mean	3.3358	2.5299
	N	29	29
Gov. Employ	Mean	3.0755	2.2489
	N	159	159
Retired	Mean	2.4211	3.8421
	N	2	2
Total	Mean	3.1083	2.3086
	N	190	190

Table 25Aggressive behaviours frequency reporting by mother's job

AggressiveBehaviours

FreqAggressiveBehaviours * Job Mother

Job Mother		Aggressive Behaviours	Freq Aggressive Behaviours
Private Works	Mean	3.4632	2.0947
	N	5	5
Gov. Employ	Mean	3.0552	2.2914
	N	162	162
Housewife	Mean	3.6594	2.1610
	N	17	17
Retired	Mean	2.6842	3.3684
	N	6	6
Total	Mean	3.1083	2.3086
	N	190	190

For job type, retired fathers reported a high frequency of aggressive misbehaviour and, while this was a very small sample, a similar result was found for retired mothers reporting concern over aggressive misbehaviour. This could be because retired person means that the responding individuals are older in age. There is a possibility that people, as they get older, tend to become less tolerant of aggressive behaviour.

A more complex relationship was found for parental age, with a general trend for more concern and reported frequency from younger parents, although this was not an entirely linear relationship.

Table 26Aggressive behaviours frequency reporting by father's age

AggressiveBehaviours

FreqAggressiveBehaviours * Father Age

Father Age		Aggressive Behaviours	Freq Aggressive Behaviours
21-25	Mean	3.7895	2.2763
	N	8	8
26-30	Mean	3.2268	2.2121
	N	100	100
31-35	Mean	3.0421	2.1763
	N	20	20
36-40	Mean	3.4461	1.9073
	N	21	21
41-45	Mean	2.5456	2.8203
	N	41	41
Total	Mean	3.1083	2.3086
	N	190	190

Table 27Aggressive behaviours frequency reporting by mother's age

AggressiveBehaviours

FreqAggressiveBehaviours * Mother Age

Mother Age		Aggressive Behaviours	Freq Aggressive Behaviours
21-25	Mean	3.2857	2.9098
	N	14	14
26-30	Mean	3.1365	2.2802
	N	108	108
31-35	Mean	3.2807	1.8596
	N	12	12
36-40	Mean	2.9525	2.3119
	N	41	41
41-45	Mean	3.0281	2.3018
	N	15	15
Total	Mean	3.1083	2.3086
	N	190	190

The number of children also showed a general trend, if small categories are ignored, of less concern over aggressive misbehaviour as parents have more children. This may reflect less concern as parents become more experienced and change their expectations. For example, it is expected by such parents that children's play may involve some degree of injury. They may refrain from disciplining the child exhibiting aggressive behaviour due to the fear that they may be seen as taking sides. Likewise, the increased frequency of reported misbehaviour makes sense since parents will have more children to potentially misbehave. In this context, the increased frequency of misbehaviour for each additional child seems relatively minor. Again, this could suggest a shifting of parental expectations or some kind of mental adjustment when they are thinking of how to respond to the questions.

Table 28Aggressive behaviours frequency reporting by number of boys

AggressiveBehaviours

FreqAggressiveBehaviours * Number boys

Number boys		Aggressive Behaviours	FreqAggressive Behaviours
1	Mean	3.4676	2.0110
	N	43	43
2	Mean	3.0361	2.3239
	N	124	124
3	Mean	2.8421	2.7943
	N	22	22
4	Mean	2.4737	2.5263
	N	1	1
Total	Mean	3.1083	2.3086
	N	190	190

Table 29Aggressive behaviours frequency reporting by number of girls

AggressiveBehaviours

FreqAggressiveBehaviours * Number girls

Number girls		Aggressive Behaviours	FreqAggressive Behaviours
1	Mean	3.4072	2.3296
	N	61	61
2	Mean	3.0628	2.2341
	N	114	114
3	Mean	4.3421	1.0000
	N	2	2
4	Mean	1.9150	3.0648
	N	13	13
Total	Mean	3.1083	2.3086
	N	190	190

Frequency of aggressive misbehaviour was also reported more when grandparents took on childrearing duties. This was still significant despite the relatively small number of grandparents in such roles, and could indicate higher expectations imposed by grandparents or behaviour issues resulting from absent parents.

4.3.2 Lying

Lying was a scale made up of 8 items, two items more than the equivalent scale for teachers. Cronbach's alpha was .903, showing strong reliability which could not be improved through removing any of the items. Similar conclusions were reached from factor analysis, with no distinct sub-pattern in how the items related to each other. This demonstrates that the questionnaire items reliably related to lying behaviours in general. The descriptive statistics are given below.

Table 30 Lying descriptive statistics

Lying scale descriptive statistics

N	Valid	190
	Missing	0
Mean		3.1914
Median		3.0000
Std. Deviation		1.01474
Range		4.00
Minimum		1.00
Maximum		5.00

Lying frequency scale descriptive statistics

N	Valid	190
	Missing	0
Mean		2.3007
Median		2.3125
Std. Deviation		.90358
Range		4.00
Minimum		1.00
Maximum		5.00

This showed a similar response to the aggression scales, with neutral concern and infrequent occurrence. As with the aggression scales responses from parents are also more positive than those from teachers. Another similarity with the aggression scales was the negative correlation ($r= -.499$, $p<.01$). Again, this may suggest that the most concerning misbehaviour was less frequent.

As described in 5.4.4, 26 non-parametric tests were run for lying and frequency of lying scales, the output of which is given in the appendix. As with aggression10 of 26 null hypotheses were rejected and exhibited a similar pattern. Differences were found for frequency of lying across both mother and father job types, lying concern across father age groups, frequency of lying misbehaviours across both mother and father age groups, both scales across numbers of boys and girls and frequency of lying across main caregiver categories.

In terms of job type, the mean of frequency of lying behaviours was higher for both retired mothers and fathers. This may be due to more contact time with children, meaning that there are more opportunities to see their children lying. However, if this was the case then housewives might also be expected to report more frequent lyingand this is not the case. An alternative generational explanation - i.e. that retired parents would be stricter in their views of children's behaviour due to being older - found some support in the higher frequency of lying where grandparents were primary caregiver. However, more generally, the generational explanation was refuted by analysis of age groups which showed that younger parents were generally more concerned with lying behaviours and reported more frequent lying.

As with aggression, private sector workers reported more frequent lying than government sector workers. Without more detail on job type, it is difficult to explain whether this is a proxy for social class, although even if this were the case then the lack of difference based on parents' levels of education would suggest otherwise anyway. As mentioned before, private sector employees may be more disciplined due to issues of accountability and this could explain their lesser tolerance towards lying behaviour as compared to public sector employees.

Frequency of lying increased as the number of children, either boys or girls, increased. Again, this can be simply explained by the larger number of children who might be observed. Also,

children may consider this as a part of play trying to shift the blame for their mistakes on their siblings. However, with no siblings it is difficult for the child to lie.

At the same time, concern over lying misbehaviours decreased as the number of children (again, of either sex) increased. This may suggest a greater incidence of children lying to each other, being less concerning for parents than children *without* siblings who are lying to adults.

4.3.3 Fear

The fear scale comprised 12 items, making it twice the size as the fear scales used in the teachers' questionnaire. Cronbach's alpha was .932, with no improvements possible from removing items. This demonstrates that the scales were robust, perceived as similar by participants and that no improvements could be made. Factor analysis was then performed to see if there were sub-scales within the overall fear scales. The pattern matrix, shown below, suggests that fear may be conceptualised in two distinct ways by the participants.

Table 31 Pattern matrix

Pattern Matrix[a]

	Component	
	1	2
Afraid of entering a crowded place	.914	
Yells or cries strongly when his/her room door is closed, asking to open it	.875	
Afraid of new places	.861	
Gets confused when an adult talks to him/her	.843	
Complains of headaches or any pain, claiming that he or she is sick	.816	
Afraid of going to school and refuses it	.796	
Afraid of going to the toilet alone	.775	
Talks about scary things like demons	.537	
Afraid of darkness		.939
Cries if he/she sees a doctor or a nurse		.909
Yells or runs away when he/she sees a bug		.486
Afraid of staying alone		.457

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalisation.

a. Rotation converged in 4 iterations.

The four items drawn together in Component 2 suggest a slightly different type of fear from the items which remain in Component 1. However, there does not seem to be an obvious interpretation to the strong relationship between being afraid of the dark and being afraid of medical staff, although being afraid of the dark and being afraid of staying alone make intuitive sense together. Even here, however, a relationship might be expected with the other items related to being alone, such as bedroom doors being closed or going to the toilet alone.

Table 32 Fear Descriptive statistics

Fear descriptive statistics

N Valid	190
Missing	0
Mean	3.1478
Median	3.0000
Std. Deviation	.96567
Range	4.00
Minimum	1.00
Maximum	5.00

Frequency of Fear descriptive statistics

N Valid	190
Missing	0
Mean	3.5846
Median	3.5000
Std. Deviation	.90102
Range	3.17
Minimum	1.83
Maximum	5.00

These scales reported means above the neutral score, indicating mild concern and somewhat regular occurrence of fear-related behaviours. This was a similar level of concern as expressed by teachers, and a higher level of frequency. One explanation for the higher level of concern over fear reported by parents for fear than for other scales could be that these are less obviously misbehaviours and may be seen as normal behaviour. For example, children being afraid of the dark hardly seems to be misbehaviour, although statistically it still varies in the same way as the other items in the scale. In addition, teachers observe children in school where they are in company of other children, and in daylight. Also, the playing atmosphere may take their mind off such matters. However, at home they may spend a lot of time alone where they may feel and consequently express feelings of fear more. This could be one of the reasons why parents reported occurrence of fear more than the teachers.

Correlation between the two scales was weak, but statistically significant (r=.412, p<.01), suggesting that concern over fearful behaviour is higher for more frequent fearful behaviour. While explanations for correlation were problematic for the other scales - in particular whether more concerning misbehaviour was more concerning because it was rarer - this correlation of the fear scales makes more intuitive sense.

Non-parametric tests are reported in the appendix. Of the 26 tests, the null hypothesis was rejected in 11 cases. Concern over fear varied according to father educational level and job type, frequency of fear behaviours varied by mother job type, both scales varied by father age and number of boys in the family, frequency of fear varied by number of girls, concern over fear differed depending on whether parents lived together, and both scales varied by the main caregiver.

While means varied according to father education level, differences were not in any discernible pattern other than higher levels of concern in the middle and lower levels of concern among the highest and lowest educated categories. Government employees were slightly more concerned than private sector workers, but it is difficult to read much meaning into this as the categories are so broad. For example, participants were not asked about the level of their position. Nevertheless, salary can be taken as a rough proxy of seniority and there were no differences found according to salary, which suggests that there may be something about the nature of the fathers' jobs (separate from seniority) which influenced their perceptions. The same trend was also true for mother job types, with the added category

of housewife also having a much higher mean. One simple explanation might therefore be that government workers work shorter hours, so have more time to experience the behaviours. Even so, the increased mean frequency for housewives could be a concern as it would normally be expected that children spending more time with their mother in their formative years is advantageous to their development, but this data would suggest that the children are becoming too attached and therefore fearful when on their own.

Despite variance in both scales according to father age groups, these variances were not linear nor did they follow any obvious patterns other than a slightly higher concern and frequency in the middle of the range. This pattern was similar to the impact of age on the other scales, but there is still no clear explanation.

Both concern and frequency decreased consistently as families had more boys, which could suggest that siblings are supportive of each other. A similar pattern for number of girls supports this interpretation. It is also possible that with more siblings the parents take such behaviour as natural and not as socially unacceptable. It is also possible that children observe each other and this may take away their feelings of fear somewhat thereby affecting the low occurrence and possibly lower concern. Given that several of the items mention fear when left alone, lower scores could also simply reflect that children with siblings are alone less often. This idea may also be supported by the higher levels of concern reported by parents who did not live together, which may relate to increased time alone. It might also be the case that being away from parents increases fear behaviour, which would also make sense of the increased concerns and frequency of fear displays when grandmothers were responsible for childrearing.

4.3.4 Social field

The social field measure comprised 5 items and had Cronbach's alpha of .865 with no improvements possible from deletion, indicating a robust scale of an ideal size for treating as a scale variable. Descriptive statistics are given below.

Table 33 Social Field descriptive statistics

SocialField descriptive statistics

N	Valid	190
	Missing	0
Mean		3.0383
Median		3.0000
Std. Deviation		.91946
Range		4.00
Minimum		1.00
Maximum		5.00

Frequency of Social Field descriptive statistics

N	Valid	190
	Missing	0
Mean		3.5090
Median		3.4286
Std. Deviation		1.00419
Range		4.00
Minimum		1.00
Maximum		5.00

The means indicate a neutral level of concern and moderately frequent occurrence. In contrast, teachers had slightly more concern, but reported much less frequent occurrence. Correlation between the two scales was positive at a moderately strong $r=.542$ ($p<.01$), suggesting that concern and frequency varied together in the same direction. This could be interpreted as more frequently occurring social field misbehaviour being more concerning to parents.

The same 26 non-parametric tests were conducted for the two social field misbehaviours scales, with results shown in the appendix. The null hypothesis was again rejected in 10 of the 26 results, with some similarities to the other scales. Differences were found for frequency of social field behaviours and parent gender, frequency of social field misbehaviours and mother job type, concern over social field misbehaviours and father age, both scales and number of boys or girls, concern over social field misbehaviours and whether parents lived together and both scales across primary caregiver categories.

Mothers reported more frequent social field misbehaviours than fathers. This could relate to the higher frequencies reported by mothers who were retired and housewives, which were a higher proportion than in the male sample and could therefore be confusing the interpretation of gender effects. Age continued to show a complex influence, with older fathers generally being more concerned about social field misbehaviour, but this trend reversing for the oldest age group whose mean is actually closest to the youngest (and least concerned) age group.

Siblings appeared to have a positive impact, since increases in either brothers or sisters was associated with less parental concern and reports of frequency regarding social field misbehaviours. This interpretation is supported by the decreased concern for parents who lived together, which suggests that more social interaction opportunities in the home was helpful in reducing social field concerns more generally. With more data, it would be helpful to see if this is related to the number of people in the home (i.e. if the 'not living together' negative impact still held for parents who had new partners, and perhaps even their children, living with them). As with other scales, means were higher where grandparents were taking on childrearing duties. While a grandparent could offer increased opportunities for socialisation, it appears that this was not allaying the concerns of parents.

4.3.5 School-related problems

School-related problems was a scale made up of 4 items, with no equivalent scale on the teachers' questionnaire. The Cronbach's alpha score was .907. A slight improvement to .924 was possible from removing item 47 ("does not easily accept regulations"), which makes sense since this could relate to rules outside of school. In general, however, the scale was strong enough to warrant keeping all four items. Descriptive statistics for both scales are given below.

Table 34 School-related problems descriptive statistics

School-related problems descriptive statistics

N	Valid	190
	Missing	0
Mean		3.2447
Median		3.0000
Std. Deviation		1.11891
Range		4.00
Minimum		1.00
Maximum		5.00

Frequency of School-related problems descriptive statistics

N	Valid	190
	Missing	0
Mean		3.6579
Median		3.5000
Std. Deviation		1.03800
Range		4.00
Minimum		1.00
Maximum		5.00

Of the 26 nonparametric tests, the null hypothesis was rejected for 11 results. These were concern across father and mother job types, both scales across father age groups, both scales across both number of boys and girls, both scales across categories of main caregiver and frequency of school-related problems across salary groups.

Concern over school-related problems was lower for government than private sector workers, and highest of all for housewives. Concern and frequency was highest for the 36-40 age ranges for both mothers and fathers, otherwise the impact of age was too complex to discern a pattern. Both scales declined as the numbers of boys or girls increased. Grandmothers taking on childrearing duties was also associated with much lower levels of concern over school-related problems, but a higher frequency. This went against the overall trend of both scales varying in the same direction, with a strong positive correlation (r=.644, p<.01). Finally, frequency decreased as salaries increased.

4.3.6 Strange habits

The final scale, strange habits, was made up of 9 items. There was no equivalent scale on the teachers' questionnaire. Reliability for the scale given by Cronbach's alpha was a strong .945, with no improvements possible by removing items. Since this was a large scale, factor analysis was used to look for any clustering within the 9 items which could suggest sub-scales. This suggested a relationship between Items 57 and 58, which makes intuitive sense since both relate to sleep (Item 57 is refusing to go to bed, Item 58 is refusing to get up in the morning). This may suggest that sleep is conceptualised differently from the other Items in this scale, so for example refusing to eat (Item 59) is a different type of refusal to refusing to go to or get out of bed. These two behaviours are also perhaps relatively normal when compared to others in the list, such as strange touching (Item 54) or sudden yelling (Item 56), although the mean scores were very similar for each item in the scale, with no statistically significant differences. The strange behaviours scale was therefore kept as stated, including the two sleep-related items, since these seemed to be experienced as frequently and cause the same level of concern for parents as any of the other strange behaviour items. Descriptive statistics for both scales are given below.

Table 35 StrangeHabits descriptive statistics

StrangeHabits descriptive statistics

N	Valid	190
	Missing	0
Mean		3.2977
Median		3.0000

Std. Deviation	1.10040
Range	4.00
Minimum	1.00
Maximum	5.00

Frequency of StrangeHabits descriptive statistics

N	Valid	190
	Missing	0
Mean		3.7076
Median		3.7222
Std. Deviation		1.03402
Range		3.78
Minimum		1.22
Maximum		5.00

As can be seen, frequency was higher than concern, suggesting that strange habits are fairly common, with a level of concern slightly above neutral. The same 26 nonparametric were used, as shown in the appendix, with 12 of the 26 null hypotheses rejected. This suggested there were differences in concern over strange habits and mother's educational level, both scales according to mother job type, concern according to father age, both scales according to numbers of boys or girls, both scales according to whether parents lived together, and both scales according to caregivers.

Concern over strange habits declined for higher educated mothers, showing both a consistent linear decline and the largest difference in means for any of the nonparametric tests with PhD mothers showing a much lower level of concern (M=2.52) than secondary educated mothers (M=3.78). Mothers working in the private sector reported lower levels of concern and frequency than mothers working in the government sector, but the biggest differences were for housewives, who reported a much higher mean of frequency (M=4.17), indicating occurrence between 'often' and 'always'.

Age continued to show complex patterns in differences, with no discernible pattern other than higher levels of concern from fathers aged 36-40. Both concern and frequency declined for families with more children, with similar decreases regardless of whether siblings were boys or girls. This may suggest that parents become used to strange behaviour and shift their conceptualisation as they compare siblings to decide what 'strange' means. As with the other scales, concern and frequency were both higher for parents who did not live together. Grandmothers in caregiver roles were associated with lower concern and frequency. The scales also varied together, with a strong positive correlation (r=.639, p<.01) suggesting that concern decreases as frequency decreases.

One of the key aspects to be noticed is parents are likely to have slightly different conceptualisation of socially unacceptable behaviour than teachers because of the environment in which teachers and parents monitor children. Parents often monitor children at home where there are in company of their siblings and other children of the family. On the other hand, teachers monitor children when they are in company of other unrelated children. It is possible that children's behaviour in the two cases, i.e. when they are in company of related or unrelated children, may itself be different. It is therefore critical to pay attention to the views of the teachers and then look at whether parents' views reflect the same level of concerns.

4.4 Qualitative results (Focus Group)

4.4.1 Focus groups results

As mentioned in the methodology chapter, in total three focus groups were conducted, one each with mothers, fathers and teachers. This section focuses on the results from the focus group discussions. The three focus group sessions results were tabulated and presented for each group session and gave the following themes:

- Aggressive behaviour: All of the participants in the mothers' focus group suggested strong reservations against physically aggressive behaviour. On the other hand, some of the mothers considered non-physical aggressive behaviour as tolerable, at least in certain circumstances, while the remainder suggested that such behaviour amounts to

disobedience and disrespect and should not be tolerated. Views expressed by fathers somewhat diverged from mothers' views. Some of the fathers considered aggressive acts of all children (boys and girls) as socially unacceptable, while some others viewed aggressive behaviour as unacceptable for girls and acceptable for boys. This indicates some degree of gender bias in consideration of what can be perceived as socially acceptable or unacceptable. Teachers' focus group viewed all kinds of aggressive behaviour as socially unacceptable, with some teachers viewing aggressive behaviour as disruptive to other children.

- Fear and Shyness behaviours: All focus groups agreed fear or shyness is unacceptable, however, they differ on their tolerance to such behaviours. For example, shyness and fear when there are guests, afraid of the dark or with a tendency of violent types of behaviours were considered socially unacceptable by all three groups. Parents perceived fear and shyness related to acts of male children as unacceptable, but were in disagreement regarding the reasons unacceptable behaviour affects young children's learning and development. The teachers and all of the participants agreed disturbance to others related behaviours are the dividing line between normal conduct and behaviour problems.

- Lying and Social behaviour: All focus groups agreed social behaviour that causes disturbance to others is the dividing line of unacceptable behaviour. However, on behaviour that constitutes lying, participants entirely agreed that this is unacceptable even if no harm or damage occurs to anyone. Participants believed that lying occasionally could soon turn into a habit and they also suggested that it is unethical and immoral, even according to principles of religion.

- Disobedience and Ddisturbance:All focus groups agreed that disturbance is unacceptable and that disobedience to adults is unacceptable. The fathers' group discussed the implications of disobedience on mothers. The teachers'group express their needs to involve parents with children's disobedient behaviour. Mothers expressed high suffering with their children as a result of disturbance behaviour.

4.4.2 Mothers' focus group

A series of questions were presented to mothers. The moderator led extensive discussions about the questions with mothers, whilst the assistant moderator took notes directly. The

results of these discussions are shown as follows.

Aggressive behaviour: Table 36 shows the findings regarding aggressive behaviours as reported by mothers. All of the mothers agreed that physically aggressive behaviour is definitely socially not acceptable. As one of the mothers commented:

"I am always worried about even the kind of games children play. I want to make sure that no harm is caused to any child, whether it is mine or someone else's. That why I am strictly against giving weapon-like toys to children to play. I hate aggressiveness even if it is in the game." Other mothers nodded in agreement. Another mother supported her comment and said: *"I agree. I hate kids playing aggressively and I don't like when one child behaves aggressively towards others. My older son used to push other children while walking and I had to be very strict with him to make him stop that. The problem is that children do not see the consequences of their aggressive behaviour. It can be life threatening. I was always worried if my son would push any child down the stairs and something very bad might happen."*

One of mothers said during the interview:

"My son hits other kids either his brothers or the neighbour's children, including holding their hands and shoes. This sort of behaviour angers me a lot and causes me embarrassment with neighbours..." One of the mothers commented: *"I have seen many kids acting aggressively, pushing or hitting other children even when playing. This is very bad. I would never let my daughter play with children who hit others. I mean even with a reason children should be taught not to hit anyone."*

In general, all mothers who participated in the focus group reported hitting others and yelling as the most aggressive behaviour they experienced from children. In addition, the majority of the participants have also experienced other types of aggressive behaviours such as damaging their toys, others' objects, hitting babies and using shoes to hit other children. However, other kinds of aggressive behaviours are witnessed occasionally. As one of the mothers commented:

"a few times I saw my son pulling his hair in anger. But I think he learnt his lesson because it hurt him only. Also I did not pay any attention to his behaviour so probably he realised it will not work on me"

Table 36 Aggressive behaviours reported from the mothers' focus group perception

Aggressive behaviour	Frequency
Makes a lot of noise (yells or hits)	7
Damages other children's things such as their clothes or bags	6
Hurts babies when s/he notices that nobody can see them	6
Uses things like sticks and shoes to hit	6
Damages his/her own property such as clothes and toys	6
Controls other kids	5
Seizes other children's younger than him/her, things by force	5
Says nasty words	5
Throws rubbish on the floor in spite of the presence of a waste basket	5
Assaults on peers by hitting, biting, or pulling hair	4

All participants believed that these behaviours were unacceptable. However, some of them mentioned that some of these behaviours should be assigned to disruptive children, especially when there is no means for them to defuse their energy. This point in particular was mentioned more frequently among working mothers, since most of the time is spent between work and home.

Making noise was by far one of the most commonly observed socially unacceptable behaviour reported by mothers. One of the mothers commented *"I think yelling is so common that most of the mothers take this us normal child tantrums and pay no attention. To be honest I also never used to pay attention to my son when he used to yell. But once I was in shopping centre and he made a lot of noise asking me to buy things for him. That day I felt so embarrassed and ashamed, I realised that this is not right. Since then I started to consider such behaviour problematic."*

Another mother supported her and commented
"it's true. Most of us consider it quite normal for children to shout and make noise. I mean we do not focus on such behaviours whether it happens in our home or in someone else's. I remember my mother in law used to say- he is just kid so let him shout. Don't pay any attention and he will be fine. This shows our culture of ignoring such behaviour."

These responses indicate that there seems to be a culture of ignoring some kind of aggressive behaviours such as shouting and yelling. People often believe that children will outgrow such behaviour.

One of the participants commented

"my son does not let my daughter play with her father. Whenever, father tries to play with the daughter he will come and interrupt. He would want everyone to play with him, but not with her."

Another respondent commented *"my son often complains about his brother not letting him play. Whenever he loses he will take the ball away and refuse to give it back. I told him to accept both victory and defeat as part of the game but he does not understand."*

Not letting other children play or interfering in their activities is also considered as a form of aggressive behaviour.

All of the mothers commented that aggressive behaviours are quite prevalent and yet quite commonly ignored unless these cause physical harm. On the other hand, most mothers agreed that aggressive behaviours should be considered socially unacceptable because it affects the children themselves as well as those around them. As one mother explained:

"I saw my son hitting his brother with a stick. When I asked him, he said he was applying with his friend and he taught him this game. I was so annoyed and asked him never to play with that friend again. Children learn. They have little knowledge of what is right and what is wrong. It is therefore, more important for us to be concerned about the kind of behaviour they show. But unfortunately we think it is how children learn. That's not true and not correct."

Lying: On the matter of lying behaviours, four mothers acknowledged that lying is a common behaviour among children, but they believed it is innocent because they often do so to protect themselves. As one mother suggested:

"I have seen my son lie many times but it is when he has done something and he thinks I will get angry for what he has done. I try not to get angry and I teach him that I will not get angry if he made a mistake but I will get angry if he lies to me."

Other mothers also explained that their children have been caught lying often, but they

considered it an innocent mistake. One mother said:

"My son sometimes claims that his brothers beat him, but always his claim is not true. I know he is trying to get attention and more of my love."

Another mother added:

"there have been situations with me too. But my kids lie when they know they have done something which is prohibited". More, this mother commented, *"lies are not acceptable in our society, but some lying may reflect the imaginative ability of the child...."*

Another commented:

"we must teach our children that it is immoral and unethical to lie. Lying is prohibited and considered harm in Islam. If we don't teach them today they will not learn about the mistake they are committing by lying."

Another mother commented:

"my daughter often lies that she is sick so that she does not have to go to school especially when she has not done her homework. Initially I used to give her holiday, but then I realised what she was doing and I stopped. Now I tell her that whatever happens she has to go to school and face the consequences of her carelessness."

Most of the mothers suggested that their children lie in order to get holiday from school, with some mothers suggesting their child do more often while some suggesting their child does this occasionally.

Table 37 Lying behaviours from the mothers' focus group perception

Lying	Frequency
Pretends that he/she is sick in order to gain attention and sympathy	6
Accuses others of beating or assaulting him/her	4
Falsely accuses other children	4
Asks for things for him/herself claiming that the teacher asked for them	2
Lies to get rid of embarrassment in some situations	1

One of the mothers suggested that her child does lie to get rid of embarrassment of being scolded in public. She recollected:

"once we were eating out and he dropped his spoon which spoiled the clothes of the women sitting on the next table. My son lied that it was not his spoon and therefore did not apologise. Even I argued in his support because I thought he was telling the truth. Later on I realised it was his spoon and I apologised to that woman. I have seen him lying in such situations many times." Another mother commented*: "my daughter often lies that her teacher was very happy with her work and said you are the best student and gave her a chocolate. She is a good student no doubt but I remember twice when she said so and I found out that her teacher that she was talking about did not even come to school that day. Actually her teacher is my friend and we talk on phone quite often, so I know."*

Table 37 shows in general that these problems may be less frequent compared to other type of behaviours. However, claiming being sick in order to attract attention, especially to the parents, or to achieve certain desires seems more common as mentioned by six of mothers. Other problems were less frequent. Behaviours such as inventing or accusing other children of beating them is less frequent, as reflected by this group. The same applied to behaviours associated with false claims that the teachers is asking for things from the house to avoid embarrassment in some situations.

It seems that getting attention, sympathy or appreciation or preventing situations of embarrassment are the main reasons for children to lie. However, most mothers agree that children should not lie.

Social behaviour-related problems:Social behaviour related problems refer to the problems in interacting with unfamiliar people as well as working in social settings. One mother said:

"My children generally prefer electronic games instead of other games and share with others. Frankly, sometimes I ignore it because I am often busy with the housework. However, I am concerned about it as I am afraid that my son may prefer to remain isolated in the community."

Another mother pointed to a similar problem where she said:*"my son would prefer to play alone rather than participate with other children, and even with his brothers or sisters...".*

All of the mothers agree that their children are more involved in electronic games rather than

playing with their friends. One of the mothers complained:

"my son used to play with his friends, but my husband brought him PlayStation on his last birthday and ever since I have seen him playing with his friends barely once or twice. As soon as he comes home, he will start playing on PlayStation will the dinner time. He has started to gain weight also and I am quite worried of what will happen to him."

Almost all of the mothers agreed that kids spend too much time playing on PlayStation, video games or games on mobile phones. The results show that preferring electronic games was the most frequent problems which were reported by all the participants.

Another high frequency problem was refusal to follow home or parents' supervision rules. As one of the mothers commented: *"we have certain rules in home like not eating in the bedroom and not eating without washing hands. But my son does not want to follow these. So many times I have to remind him and sometimes he gets angry. Everyone in the house follows it, so should he."*

Many other mothers also suggested that not following the rules of the house is one of the problems. One of the mothers commented:

"the problem is with other house members. Like my mother in law will always remind me that he is only a child and setting rules for him is not good for his upbringing. I should let him play and have fun. This gives him more freedom to do what he wants because every time I say something he will run away to his grandmother and start complaining about me, how I am being too tough."

Two other mothers also complained that when children get a sense of protection from someone else in the family they tend to not follow the rules as long as the person protecting them has more authority in the house. Mothers in the group agreed that such behaviours are socially unacceptable and must be treated as such.

Table 38 Social behaviour-related problems from the mothers' focus group perception

Social behaviour-related problems	Frequency
Prefers e-games to sharing with others in playing	7
Does not easily accept regulations	6
Shy when there are guests	5
Prefers to play alone	4
Suddenly yells at others	4
Avoids dealing with strangers	3

Most mothers also reported poor social behaviour in front of guests. One of the mothers commented: *"I have noticed so many times not only with my child, but with other children also, when parents ask them to say hello to guests they simply ignore and leave. It's quite embarrassing, but I have never seen any parent paying attention to this behaviour. Most of us will say- oh, he is shy and others think its okay."*

Other mothers in the group agreed with her. One of the other mothers commented: *"I think as a society we do not teach our children to be bold and to act as grown-ups. We treat them like kids. I mean I will be more angry if he does not say hello to someone his age, but not so much when he does not greet anyone elder than him like my friends. This is what we expect I believe, but I think it is wrong."*

One mother however, contradicted her and commented: *"kids learn from us. We do not say hello when their friends come, so how do we expect them to say hello to our friends. I think it is wrong to blame the children on this because they only do what they see. I say hello to my son's friend and he greets my friends. This is a culture we have set in the family."*

When asked if they will consider this to be socially unacceptable, most mothers conceded that at the social level this may be acceptable, at least in Saudi society, because in Saudi culture some gap of authority is expected between people of different generations. However, it does affect child's ability to interact with strangers especially people of different age group.

Disobedience issues: Children's obedience behaviour to the adults is of great importance in

the Arab culture and, therefore, it is considered a problem lacking obedience of children to adults in general and parents in particular. One mother said:

"The behaviour that bothers me the most is the lack of obedience towards me or other elders in the family. Sometimes they refuse to perform their duties despite the urgency and follow-up."

In the same context, another mother said, *"I find it difficult to make my kids go to bed on time, not to bother me too much and accept the commitment of time."* Another mother said: *"I am suffering a lot with my kids because they do not accept my orders and prefer to eat sweets and biscuits. They eat very unhealthy. This bothers me a lot and makes me fear for their health."*

The closer inspection indicates that mothers with more than one child seemed more concerned about such behaviour while those with single child did not comment much on this issue. When asked about this one of the mothers who had three children commented: *"That is because children are most likely to be disobedient when they have other children around them. They do not take things seriously and tend to forget quickly even if you scold them badly. Sometimes their brothers and sisters try to cheer them up when they get scolded and it quickly wears off any impact that the scolding had on them."*

The findings of the discussions about problems of obedience behaviour are shown in Table 39.

Table 39 Problems of Disobedient behaviour from the mothers' focus group perception

Problems of Disobedient behaviour	Frequency
Refuses to do his/her duties at home	6
Refuses to go to bed at bedtime	6
Refuses to get up in the morning	6
Refuses to eat	5
Sucks his/her fingers	4
Spits on the floor or any other place	4

Refusing to go to bed and refusing to get up on time in the morning were other disobedient

behaviours mentioned by most of the participants. However, most mothers suggested that while they face this issue they do not consider it problematic. According to one of the mothers:

"I have not seen one child which follows this and I don't think this is any issue. I think it is part of growing up. We have all done this and to be honest it's quite fun. I don't want to tie down the kids with rules. They have rules, yes but if sometime they wish to break rules like these I am okay with this."

All other mothers agreed that they have faced these issues, but most of them did not consider it problematic unless it becomes too frequent. As one of the mothers commented*: "I will tolerate such behaviour only if it happens once in a while. After all we are all humans and we have to understand that sometimes we do not wish to follow such rules. But yes, if he does it very often I will be very annoyed. Fortunately, my son is quite good, but once in a while he does want to not go to school and I let him be."*

Another participant supported her and commented: *"Sometimes I do not wish to do something which I usually do and I expect others to understand that routine can be boring at times. I expect my kids to behave like normal kids, not like some military personnel who wakes up certain time and sleep at certain time."* Similar views were expressed in terms of *'refuses to eat'*.

Mothers suggested that they face this problem quite often, but they do not consider it problematic. As one mother commented: *"I don't see anything wrong with this. Every child likes something and hates something. Even as adults we only like certain things and we do not like many things which I am sure if given to us, we will rather not eat."*

Another mother commented: *"I think every child in the world goes through this. I think it is part of our growing up process. We tend to like something as a child, but then we stop eating that and start to like something else. Happens with everyone. I don't think any mother will consider this problematic. A long as my child eats something healthy and is properly nourished I don't care. But I agree that there is a problem with children who refuse to eat everything and all the time. That is a big problem."*

Other mothers agreed with their opinion. All mothers agreed that sucking thumb and spitting

on the floor is a socially completely unacceptable. However, only four of the seven mothers agreed that they have experienced this problem with their child, especially thumb sucking.

The most reported problems in this field were refusing to do their duties at home, go to bed to bed on time and wake up in the morning. Mothers believed these behaviours are the most disturbing among all other behaviours. They expressed high suffering with their children as a result of disobedient behaviour.

Fearful behaviour: With regards to fears that children may have, discussions were held with the participants. The most commonly reported behaviour in this aspect was 'fear of staying alone'. One mother reported: *"my daughter is too scared to stay alone even when the lights are on. She is young, but still I think it is not a good thing."* Another mother reported that *"my child is afraid to go to the bathroom alone and this causes me a lot of hassle, especially when I am very busy with the housework and the rest of the kids. Also when I ask him to go to the room and if there is no one in the room he will just ignore me. But when there is someone in the room then he has no issues."*

Another mother said, *"My daughter is very much afraid of seeing a doctor or nurse, I suffer a lot when I had to take her to the hospital or dentist."* Another commented *"My child is afraid to stay alone, especially in closed and crowded places, as well as dark places I have to leave the room light on during his sleep."* The responses indicated that this is a very common fear especially of darkness and being alone. One of the mothers explained: *"I think partly we are to blame. We tell them about monsters and stories like this which scares them off. Their mind is too creative and unstable so they create anything- like a ghost under their bed or in the wardrobe. This is natural but what we need to do is teach them the right thing."*

Table 40 Children fears from mothers' focus group perception

Fears	Frequency
Afraid of staying alone	6
Cries if he/she sees a doctor or a nurse	6
Afraid of going to the bathroom alone	5
Afraid of darkness	5
Yells or cries strongly when his/her room door is closed, asking to open it	4

Afraid of entering a crowded place	4
Afraid of new places	3

The findings of discussions are presented in Table 40. This table demonstrated that fear of staying alone and crying when seeing a doctor or nurse were the most frequent fears as reported by the mothers in the focus group.

Some of mothers who participated in the focus group believed that some of these fears are normal with pre-school children's in which children with severe attachment to their mothers prefer to stay with them all the time. However, they expressed their concern that these fears may continue as they grow old. As one of the mothers commented: *"I know that she is young, but I am worried if she will still be scared of being alone when she grows up. She will miss out on so many things in life if that happens and that's what makes me worried."* The fear of darkness and of doctors is evident in many adults also; many patients have to be sedated in order to be treated, even though the treatment itself does not require any sedation. Fears such as afraid of crowded and new places were reported less. It is therefore, essential to try and rectify this behaviour at early stages of life.

4.4.3 Fathers' focus group

The questions were developed to reflect the group role in the family, comply with cultural norms of Saudi society and to elicit more information about fathers' perceptions about pre-school children's behaviour which are unusual and scarce in the literature.

Aggressive behaviour: The first question was about aggressive behaviours. All of the fathers agreed that physically aggressive behaviour should not be tolerated and is socially unacceptable. As one father commented, *"many children try to hit other children especially when no one is seeing them. It is very dangerous and very bad. I think parents should be quite harsh with their children when they see such behaviour in their children."* Another father commented: *"absolutely. This is absolutely unacceptable. I was called once to the school because my son had a fight with another boy. I was so disappointed and angry because he was just 6 and I could see him bleeding. Seeing kids in such condition is devastating for any father and I felt quite bad that day. Since then I keep on guiding my son not to fight with*

anyone".

Fathers also expressed strong reservations against loud noise. According to one of the participants: *"I hate when any of the children in our house screams or shouts. Really speaking it's not only about children. I hate anyone shouting. Why raise your voice when you can talk in normal civilised manner."* Another father commented: *"I think one of the most annoying things that most parents would complain about in their children is the loud noise and screams. They shout too much and it is embarrassing especially in public."* All other participants agreed that children tend to be noisy and they should be taught not to be too loud when talking or playing. As one of the father's commented*: "sometimes they shout in excitement. I think that is okay, but not always. I have seen some children who are making noise all the time. It is not good."* Another father added *"Some children deliberately stirring noise by shouting either higher or put on the television audio high or playing with loud voice..."* One of the fathers explained that the blame should be put on parents and other family members: *"I think child learns these things for his environment. If they see the family members shouting and yelling they will think that this is the way to talk and this is the way will learn. But if you talk gracefully and calmly with them they will be calm and composed."* In other words, children's behaviour is a reflection of the environment they encounter and the best way to teach the children is by behaving in a manner in which want the children to behave.

Fathers also commented that hitting/ assaulting the peers is socially unacceptable. One of the fathers commented: *"there should be no place for any kind of aggressive behaviour in our society and this should be taught right from childhood. I mean there is not even an argument in support for hitting someone...who in the world can defend this."* Two fathers, however, suggested that there are circumstances in which such behaviour could be tolerated. One of them commented: *"I do not teach my child to hit anyone, but I will also not teach him to not respond when someone hits him. I agree that our child should not hit anyone, but what is someone else is hitting them? I will not expect my child to just get hit and do nothing."*

One more father in the group supported his views and commented: *"that's correct. Lots of time teachers do nothing when one child hits another. If no one does anything it allows one child to bully others all the time. I think as long as there is a perfect reason like in defence it*

is okay to hit, but yes, hitting anyone without reason should be completely unacceptable." The problem with these arguments is children often fail in estimating the proportionate response. Hitting someone back does not solve the problem of that person hitting you at least in case of children because children often fail to see consequence of their actions. For example, a gentle push down the stairs can result in serious and life threatening injuries.

One of the issues that many fathers complained about is that of the games involving violence. According to one of the fathers: *"I think what is rally problematic today is the kind of violent games that kids play. They witness a lot of violence on TV and in video games. They think it's quite normal. I have seen some parents giving games like Call of Duty to their kids. Kids think they will become heroes like if they play like those games. They do not understand the difference between games and real life, but their parents understand. They should think about the consequences when they buy things for their children."*

Another father recalled: *"I remember one of my friends who gave that mini 50cc bike to his 9 year old son. That is like a real bike which can travel up to 30 miles per hour. I was shocked. What if his son had an accident? This was a disaster. I told him clearly that if anything happens to his son, he will be responsible. He understood and took the bike back or his son. But too many of us do not think what our kids are learning. Getting them toys like replica guns and swords is not funny."*

Damaging others' and own property in anger was also cited as one of the socially unacceptable behaviour by some fathers. One father commented: *"my daughter used to have bad temper. When she is angry she does not care what is in her hands, she will throw things and damage whatever is in front of her. At some times we were scared of her bad temper. I can imagine the stress that people around a child has to go through if they have bad temper like that."* Indeed bad temper of a child can have serious consequences for other people around them especially other children.

Table 41 Aggressive behaviour from the father's focus group perception

Aggressive behaviours	Frequency
Hurts babies when s/he notices that nobody can see them	7
Makes a lot of noise (yells or hits)	7
Assaults on peers by hitting, biting, or pulling hair	6
Seizes other children's, younger than him/her, things by force	6
Damages his/her own property such as clothes and toys	6
Damages other children's things such as their clothes or bags	5
Tends to violent playing	5
Starts fights	4
Says nasty words	4
Prevents other children from playing and doing activities	3
Controls other kids	3

The results of the discussions about aggressive behaviour are presented in Table 41 The findings shows that most of the participants reported behaviour such as hurting babies, making noise, hitting other children and seizing other children's belongings. In contrast, five of the fathers stated that problems such as preventing other children from playing and doing activities and controlling other kids were less frequent among their own children.

It is important to mention that fathers who participated in this focus group all agreed that these behaviours are unacceptable. However, some of them believed that male children, but not females, should have the ability to control others as their role in future is required such behaviour. As one of the fathers commented: *"I can imagine some boys may have aggressive behaviour. But girls with aggressive behaviour is not good because when they grow up they will raise their children and the children will learn from them."* Another father had similar views: *"boys are likely to face the real world out there and it sometimes requires you to be*

tough. I don't mean to say that they should go and fight with other children, but at the same time if someone picks up fight with them then they should not sit back.” There seems to be some cultural bias in participants when some of them suggested that it is okay for boys to be aggressive in specific circumstances, but girls should be passive. One of the fathers commented: *“girls are generally gentle so I don't think girls need to be aggressive. I mean I don't see girls to be too aggressive for any of the girls to be worried and aggressive. Boys, on the other hand, can be quite aggressive so it is good for boys to be tough or the other boys will just bully them. There is no such thing as bullying in girls so it is better for the girls to be gentle and caring.”*

This shows that there is expectation, at last among some fathers, for the girls to be gentle and caring while they seem to be more tolerant of aggressive behaviour in boys. According to certain participants, girls are expected to be homemakers in future and will not be required to face the world. As a homemaker they are expected to be gentle and caring and not aggressive. On the other hand, in their opinion, boys will need to face the world where they will face aggression from their peers and competitors and hence need to be bold and aggressive. These opinions highlight the gender bias that exists in Saudi society. This gender bias also affects the perception of socially unacceptable behaviour, as was highlighted in the responses received for fathers' group.

Lying behaviour: Almost all of the fathers who participated in the group agreed that lying behaviour is socially unacceptable. Like the mothers' group, participants of fathers' group also suggested that lying is unethical, immoral and against the principles of Islam. According to one of the participants: *“lying is very bad. It is mentioned in the holy book that lying is a sin. We teach our kids to learn for Quran so this is one of the main things that they should learn. Not to steal and not to lie.”* Another respondent also commented: *“lying is very bad. Why lie. Children should learn to speak the truth and face the reality not to hide behind the truth. When they lie they create mistrust which is not good for them and the people around them.”*

Lying about being sick was one of the most commonly reported issues in this category. One father said:*“Sometimes my son's claims that he is sick, especially when they want us to bring some of his stuff …”* Another father commented: *“many times my daughter claims she is not feeling well. Sometimes she doesn't want to go to school, sometimes, she wants just not to do*

anything. She uses it as excuse all the time. Earlier my wife used to be quite worried about her health, but now we have realised that she is mostly using it as an excuse."

Almost all of the participants in the fathers' group agreed that their child lies about being not well. The reason for this are varied but fathers in the group agreed that this is socially unacceptable.

The next common issue mentioned under lying category was 'falsely accusing others of hitting him/her.' According to one father *"sometimes my daughter claims that her brother had hit her, but later on clarifies that she was lying."* One of the fathers claimed: *"I remember my son always used to accuse his elder brother of hitting him. So many times we believed him and scolded his elder brother, but later on we found out that he used to lie. Our maid told us that whenever his elder brother would not listen to him he used to come to us and complain to us, sometimes falsely accusing his elder brother of hitting him."* Other fathers also recollected certain instances when their child has falsely accused others of hitting them. One of the fathers stated *"this is not right because sometimes we scold the other child even though they had made no mistake. This is too bad. It is directly affecting other children because they get punished and then they might also start doing the same in order to escape punishment."* Fathers agreed that this is socially unacceptable because it unfairly affects other children.

Some of the fathers also suggested that their child has lied about teacher asking for something that they wanted for themselves. They considered this socially unacceptable. One father commented: *"I noticed that once my daughter asked me to bring a new dress that she claimed the teacher had asked her to bring if she wanted to participate in the annual function of her school. My wife called the teacher to clarify something about what kind of dress and the teacher told her that she never asked her to bring any dress. She just wanted a new dress for herself to wear on the day of the annual function and she lied that the teacher has asked her to wear a new dress."* Two of the other participants also recollected such events. Participants considered this as socially unacceptable.

Table 42 shows the results of the question about lying behaviours. More than five of the

participants reported that children could show lying behaviours such as complaining of a headache, or any pain to claim that he or she is sick and falsely accusing other children. In contrast, they mentioned that some of their children may be lying to get rid of embarrassing situations. Another issue was raised during the discussions was that children may not be lying, but this may reflect the imagination, which children is characterised at this stage of life.

Table 42 lying behaviours from the father's focus group perception

Lying	Frequency
Complains of headaches or any pain, claiming that he or she is sick	6
Accuses others of beating or assaulting him/her	5
Falsely accuses other children	5
Asks for things for him/herself claiming that the teacher asked for them	3
Lies to get rid of embarrassment in some situations	3

All of the fathers agreed that lying is completely unacceptable. One father commented: *"it is harm to lie. If we do not teach the children today they will develop the habit of lying over everything. This is harm in Quran and not only Quran, in everything that you read you will see that lying is bad."* Other father also commented *"as a child the reasons why they lie may seem trivial and innocent, but it leads to a habit of lying. Like we do not want our friends and family members to lie to us we should tell our children not to lie to their friends or relatives or anyone. If we teach right for the childhood that lying is harm then children will learn and will become brave to their mistakes and consequences. It will only making them a better person."*

Social behaviour: Like all mothers, fathers also agreed that playing electronic games, instead of physical games, is one of the common problems with their children. All of the fathers agreed that their child plays a lot of electronic games and is not that interested in physical games. One of the fathers commented: *"my son spends nearly 3-4 hours every day after school playing on his Xbox. He knows what new games are out and is always demanding me for new video games, but I have not seen enthusiasm in him to go and play real games."* Another father complained: *"this is ironic. My son is crazy about football, but all he does is watch it on TV or play it on PlayStation. I asked him why he does not play*

football in the backyard, but he is simply not interested. I even brought him the nets and football and he has two older brothers to play with, but he is not interested." Another father complained:*"My son, despite his young age, loves computer games more than playing with other kids."* One of the fathers explained: *"this is the problem in Saudi. We do not have enough outdoor activities for kids. Everywhere you go you see kids playing video games or on mobile phones. The problem is not with children alone. Problem is with us also. What do we teach children? We are making them too soft."*

Most of the participants agreed with this view. However, they also suggested that this is socially unacceptable because it leads to isolation. As one of the participants commented: *"we have this digital generation here even the friends are electronic. No friend to play with in real life but thousand to play with online. This is no life. I mean they do not learn the real meaning of friendship."* All of the participants agreed that this is poor social behaviour as children do not learn to socialise and make friends. This also reflected in some fathers' responses that their child prefers to play alone. One such father commented: *"my son like to play alone with his toys. Whenever my friends come with their kids he would not play with them and will not bring out his toys despite me asking him several times. He is so used to playing alone that I am very worried. It is my mistake because I brought him a video game and he plays it all the time. Now he does not want to play with anyone else."*

Some fathers raised concerns about shyness in kids. One father commented: *"shyness is okay in children, but shyness with everyone is not good. I have seen kids even say no to say hello to kids their own age. Now that is not good."* Five of the eight participants suggested that shyness with guests is not a good thing. As one of the fathers commented: *"shyness, especially in boys, is not good. I know that some of us teach our daughters to not talk to strangers, but this does not mean that they will not talk to even family guests. I remember my sister's daughter, she was so shy that when we used to visit their house she wouldn't come out of her room at all. Not even when my daughter, who is same age as her, asked her to come and play with her."*

One of the fathers explained: *"forget about strangers some children do not even play with relatives. The problem with such behaviour is that when they grow up they will not be able to make friends and this will be a huge problem. This is not good for their social and personal life when they grow up. Children should be taught to play with children, make new friends.*

Even if we have gender issues, but girls can still make friends with girls and boys with other boys. I think we should promote friendship in our kids."

Fathers agreed that lack of socialisation skills can prove problematic for their future growth and development. As one of the father's commented: *"if an individual cannot interact with other people they will have serious issues in future, especially if they are males because they are expected to go out, interact with people and earn money for the family."*

The findings are presented in Table 43. Most of the participants expressed a clear concern about the spread of electronic games among their children. Seven of them reported this problem. Other problems were reported less frequent such as resisting pre-school rules, avoiding strangers, and crying suddenly at others.

Table 43 Social behaviour from the father's focus group perception

Social behaviour problems	Frequency
Prefers e-games to sharing with others in playing	7
Shy when there are guests	5
Prefers to play alone	4
Does not easily accept regulations	4
Avoids dealing with strangers	3
Suddenly yells at others	2

The participants believed that these problems may be acceptable to some extent, especially if you take into account that pre-school children at this stage might not have enough growth to integrate social behaviour with the community and other strangers. However, the participants believe that the tendency of children to engage in electronic games may have negative results in the future to develop their individual personality and social capabilities.

Disobedience issues: Arab culture considers the behaviours of the obedience of children to adults is very important and reflects the high moral values or religion and culture (Al-Turaiqi, 2008). A question was posed about behavioural problems that reflect the lack of obedience of children to their parents from the viewpoints of their fathers. Fathers commented on different kinds of disobedience issues. One of the fathers commented *"my wife gets so stressed*

because my son refuse to do what she asks him. We have tried to teach him both through love and by being strict, but no effect. His older brother is quite good, but the younger one is not quite bad at following rules." Another father commented: *"kids need to learn to follow rules. Unless they follow rules in the house you cannot expect them to lean to follow the rules when they go to school or in future when they go to work."* Fathers agreed that not following the set rules is not socially acceptable. As one of the fathers commented: *"rules are for everyone in the society to follow. If someone is not following the rules it can disrupt the whole society. That is what we call antisocial, right? And we all know that antisocial is not good."* Another respondent commented: *"In Islam we are taught to respect and obey our elders more than in western cultures. So even a bit of disobedience is not tolerable. We must teach our kidsto follow the rules and listen to the elders."*

Table 44 Disobedient behaviour from the father's focus group perception

Disobedient behaviours	Frequency
Refuses to do his/her duties at home	5
Refuses to eat	5
Sucks his/her fingers	4
Refuses to go to bed at bedtime	4
Refuses to get up in the morning	3
Spits on the floor or any other place	2

The findings are presented in Table 44. Refusing to eat is a common problem. In general, these behaviours were less reported by the fathers compared to other socially unacceptable behaviour issues. Children who refuses to do their duties and eat on time were mentioned by three of the participants. In contrast, problems such as the refusal to wake up on time in the morning and spitting on the ground were the least repeated according to the fathers.

The participants emphasised that the lack of obedient behaviour of children to their parents is unacceptable because it may lead to the violation of religious and community values in the future. One of the reasons why some of the socially unacceptable behaviours are less commonly reported by fathers, as compared to mothers, is that mothers spend considerably more time with kids than fathers in most cases. Being close to children allows mothers to monitor the behaviour of the children more closely, while fathers only observe part of their behaviour. Also, children tend to be more open around their mothers as compared to their

fathers, especially in Saudi culture where fathers tend to take the role of disciplinarian.

Fearful behaviour: Many fathers commented on fearful behaviour in their children. Most of the fathers agreed that their child is scared of the doctors. One of the fathers expressed his feelings when his child is sick and afraid to go to the doctor:*"it's scary when I go to see a doctor or nurse when my child is ill I suffer a lot ... this causes me a lot of embarrassment and hassle..."* Another father commented *"I have three children and all of them were scared of the doctor. The eldest one is better now, but the two younger ones are still scared of the doctors especially dentists"*On further questioning he explained that *"I think when my wife used to visit dentist for treatments she used to take them and they saw the doctor doing treatment to her teeth. She thought it will make them brave, but they saw the doctor giving her injection in the mouth to numb her gums and this is what probably scared them off."*On this account another father commented: *"that's true. I think we develop this fear of doctors among the children. We should take them to doctors not during treatments, but when we have some casual chat."* Another participant supported his view and further elaborated *"even at home we scare them off by saying that if you don't eat this or do that I will take you to doctor and he will give you big injection. So every time we take them to the doctor they thing they are going to get poked by a big needle. Even adults are scared of needles and these are very young children."* According to the fathers their children are scared of the doctors and this is socially unacceptable. However, they also agreed that this fear is created by the parents themselves by portraying doctors in a bad way or by exposing children to situations where they develop unnecessary fear of doctors.

Fear of staying alone was also mentioned by some fathers. One such father commented *"my son is very much afraid of staying alone in the room, especially if I was to close the door."* One other father commented*: "I feel my married life is too disrupted because my child does not want to sleep alone. If my wife leaves him alone in the room, he will wake up in middle of night and will cry very loudly shouting at the top of his voice for his mother. And sometimes he will not sleep the whole night probably fearing that his mother will leave him alone again."* The same situation was shared by another father, *"My son is often afraid of new places where he would prefer to go to places that he know previously as well as afraid of the darkness places. Often holding my hand tightly when we go through the dark places..."*

Two other fathers also mentioned that fear of being alone is a nuisance and socially

unacceptable. One father, however, disagreed and commented: *"I know many children are scared of staying alone at night, but a lot of it is because of the parents. For example, if you have some light in the room to make them at ease. Keep their favourite toys next to them. Or tell them nice story before sleep, not monster stories. Even if they wake up in night they should not feel scared. It is all about what we teach our children"*

The results shown in Table 45 demonstrates that seeing a doctor or nurse is making children crying was high among them as reported by their fathers. In addition, three of fathers in this focus group mentioned that children are afraid of staying alone and in crowded places. On the other hand, the least problems in this context were crying when their room doors closed and going alone to bathroom.

Table 45 Fears-related behaviour from the father's focus group perception

Fears	Frequency
Cries if he/she sees a doctor or a nurse	7
Afraid of staying alone	5
Afraid of darkness	5
Afraid of going to the bathroom alone	5
Afraid of entering a crowded place	4
Yells or cries strongly when his/her room door is closed, asking to open it	3
Afraid of new places	3

Fathers also agreed that children's fear of going to bathroom alone is not socially acceptable. As one of the fathers commented *"This is terrible. How can one expect someone to accompany them to the bathroom? My son does so and it makes me very angry. He will not go to bathroom without his mother. It is really embarrassing when someone is around me."*

Some of the fears were reported less often as shown in the table above. Despite these problems causing nuisance to the family fathers believe that these problems could be considered normal based on the nature of this age, unless they are repeated more frequent. In addition, these behaviours associated with fear would be acceptable in females than males as part of cultural limitation. Most of the participants who reported fearful behaviour as socially unacceptable were by the fathers who reported such behaviour about their sons. None of the fathers reported such behaviour as problematic among their daughters. One of the participants actually mentioned this: *"boys should be bold and fearless. They have to face many*

challenges in future. They have to be the protectors of the family. If they are themselves scared how will he protect their family? Girls are soft and weak so I can understand that they show such behaviour. My wife is still scared of the dark, but that does not bother me. But what will anyone think if I was scared of the dark or being alone." Since the role of the male child in the future, according to Arab culture, requires him to be able to overcome his fears and provides protection for the female.

4.4.4 Teachers' focus group

The questions were developed to show the group role in relation to children behaviour, comply with cultural norms of Saudi society and to obtain more information about teachers' views on socially acceptable behaviour among pre-school children.

It's reasonable for one to think that pre-school classroom environment is different in many ways to that of family home. More, is that certain pre-school class room environment behaviours problems should differ compared to those performed at the family environment. This nonconformity of child behaviour prompted the research to recruit and assemble the teachers' focus group, to provide wide understanding of behaviour effect among pre-school children. At the same time as children naturally exhibit pro-social behaviour, which encourages positive social interaction. Pro-social behaviours include smiling, friendly touching or patting, following or copying another person and sympathetic crying when a child sees or hears another child cry. We can infer that empathy and the desire to be with others to be acceptable and to be liked are also innate in pre-school children. The role of parents and other adults is therefore to encourage children's natural use of these pro-social behaviours, while discouraging their natural use of aggressive behaviours.

Yet with the natural propensity to use aggression individuals vary considerably with regard to how easily they can be provoked into an aggressive act and how persistently they will use aggression in response to provocation or to obtain what they want(Dodge et al, 2006). One of the teachers emphasised that, *"I have seen that some children behave more aggressively than others, but at the same time their behaviour also affects other children who start to behave in the same way. So aggressive behaviour is mainly learned through what they see, at home or*

*in school. This makes it even more important for us to deal with it."*Another teacher accentuated: *"I agree. Some children are definitely creating more problems than others. Some of the children run around a lot during the break between lessons, especially near the rows which are still occupied by students accompanied by shrieking loud noises. This distracts everyone. The problem is such kids often become the role models of the quieter kids because they are seen as brave and fearless. This creates a wrong precedent. Our hands are also tied because we cannot be too harsh with such young kids."*Another teacher commented: *"I have seen some kids who constantly interfere in the class. They will often disturb their friends, not let them work and distract them. Sometime some kids get punished, not because of their fault, but because someone else was disturbing them. I feel bad for such kids. They are so young so they are learning from everything."* Another teacher stressed that, *"some of the children not only run in the designated places to play, but also between the classrooms and kicking the doors ..."* Meanwhile, six teachers reported that the most frequent behaviours in pre-school classrooms were disturbing others including classmates and teachers, running inside the schools, making constant chaos and loud noises.

The teachers agreed that these behaviour problems outlined above were disturbing, not only to them, but also for the rest of other students and staff at the school. It also constituted a violation of the school environment rules. However, some teachers considered that this may be normal because of the nature of the growth experienced by the child in such age in spite of the inconvenience it causes them. As one of the teacher commented: *"this could be because the kids have never experienced being in a controlled environment. They need to be taught. The problem is that it cannot be done in school alone. Parents at home should also teach them to take orders and follow what they are asked to do especially in terms of sitting down."*

Table 46 Excessive-activity related behaviour from the teacher's focus group perception

Behaviour that teachers perceive in class as excessive problems	Frequency
Disturbs his/her mates	7
Disturbs the teacher in class	7
Runs inside school	6
Causes constant chaos and noise	6
Interrupts his mates continuously when they talk to their teacher	5

Loses his/her concentration easily	4
Changes seats constantly	4
Finds it difficult to finish what he/she starts	3

In contrast, the problems such as losing concentration easily, changing seats constantly and difficulties to finish their works were less frequent as reported by six of the teachers' focus group. Part of this is because these kinds of behaviours are not expected of such young children. For example, children need to be taught how to complete tasks.

In pursuit of the question about aggressive behaviours, teachers suggested various kinds of socially unacceptable aggressive behaviours exhibited by children. One teacher commented: *"some of the children hit other children in the classroom with anything they find, for example, a school bag or book. The problem is that sometime they can seriously injure other children; for example, if they hit them in the eye or on the head with a hard object. We have to be very careful with children who do that more often."* Another teacher also raised the issue of physical aggression, *"I noticed some children push others strongly when he came out of the class or school. This is very dangerous as kids can fall awkwardly and injure themselves badly".*

In terms of the issue of pulling and shoving one teacher reinforced the gender behaviour influence by confirming that, *"Some of the children pulled the hair of the other children, especially girls."* One teacher said, *"It is true that these behaviours cause inconvenience to others and the disturbance in the school environment, it may reflect the nature of the growth in this age."*

The findings on issue of aggressive behaviour are presented in Table 47.

Table 47 Aggressive behaviour from the teacher's focus group perception

Problems of aggressive behaviour	Frequency
Pushes his/her mates violently	8
Quarrels with his/her mates	7
Hits his/her mates with things in his hand	7
Scratches his/her mates' books and instruments	6
Shuts the door violently	5

Damages class furniture	4
Takes his/her mates' belongings	3
Scratches his/her mates	2
Pulls his/her mates' hair	2

The teachers' group reported that the most common problems of aggressive behaviour among the children was violently pushing their mates in the classroom. In addition, more than six of the participants reported that, the children were quarrelling, hitting their classmates with objects and scratching their mates' belongings such as books, pencils and toys. Destroying the property belonging to others is a serious antisocial behaviour which often goes unnoticed. Most of the parents did not talk about this point, but teachers spoke about this because they view children from a neutral perspective. Parents, on the other hand, are either unaware or ignore the issue of who is destroying the articles belonging to their children. In terms of injuring others there seem to be some gender differentiation. For example, girls seem to be more likely to scratch someone, or pull the hair of others, while boys are more likely to be involved in aggressive behaviours such as hitting someone or pushing someone.

In contrast to other type of behaviour, the participants mentioned during the discussions problems such as take others' belongings, scratching their classmate faces and pulling other children's hair were less frequent. This other types of behaviours were reported by six teachers. The participants indicated that the victims of pulling hair were usually female children. The participants also explained that taking others' belongings may not be considered by the children to constitute an aggressive behaviour and that is due to the nature of the Arabic culture in general and Saudi culture in particular. It's acceptable in the Saudi culture that pre-school things such as, toys and objects in school belongs to everyone and should be shared. In addition, pre-school children may have not developed the concept of personal property yet. On the other hand, it could be a problem for those who lose their belongings and this is what is causing inconvenience in pre-school classroom and may force teachers to label it as an aggressive behaviour.

The teachers' account of disobedience among children strengthens the argument to include and involve parents with their children's disobedient behaviour. One teacher highlighted that, "*Some of the children leave or enter the classroom without permission from me despite that I have often asked the children to not move around or leave or enter the class without my*

permission.” Another teacher stressed, *“some of the children turns up to the classroom late after the rest have completed their work.”* To stress this point further, one of the teachers reiterated, *“by not applying pre-school rules it becomes very disruptive for teachers. To be honest, it may be due to the lack of respect to the concept of respect for the instructions by pre-school children.”*

Writing on the walls or on other articles belonging to the school was also mentioned by most teachers as a commonly observed socially unacceptable behaviour. As one of the teachers commented: *“many students have the habit of drawing random images on the walls. I have time and again asked children to make sure that they write only on the copies provided. Writing on school walls is the same as vandalism. I am not saying that what the children are doing is vandalism, but if they learn this habit of not keeping their place clean and tidy they may develop a behaviour of vandalism as they grow up. Not respecting your environment is one of the worst things you can do.”* Another teacher supported her views *“I agree. When you go to western countries you see so much cleanliness and we complain when we see some places which are not clean. We should know what we are teaching our children. When they damage public property they cause nuisance and it all starts in childhood. We should teach them not to destroy things, especially public property.”*

Table 48 Disobedient behaviour in school from the from the teacher's focus group perception

Problems of disobedient behaviour	Frequency
Leaves class without permission	7
Scratches on walls of class and school	7
Enter class without permission	5
Causes damages to class chairs	4
Tearing teaching aids of class and school	4
Comes late to class after each break	3

The findings about disobedient behaviour are presented in Table 48. Most of the group agreed that problems, such as leaving classroom without permission and scribbles the walls of the classroom and the school, were more frequent than coming late to class after each break. With regard that leaving the classroom without permission is seen as a bad behaviour this form of behaviours (truancy) could be attributed to the fact that the child, as the participants mentioned, did not differentiate between his/her room at home and pre-school classroom. Where they can leave his/her room in the house whenever they want and,

therefore, they do the same in school. According to the teachers, truancy normally occurs during the first month of pre-school entry for most of the children's. However, this issue may continue to exist among a few children for more than a year. Less frequently reported behaviours were causing damage to classroom chairs, tearing teaching aids equipment and arriving late to the classroom after a break.

The participants were asked to talk about problems that were related to the social behaviour. In response to children's cognition one teacher explained that:*"Sometimes I ask the children to do certain activities in the classroom, for example, tell us a simple story, some children avoid that in the existence of others ...."*. In the same line of behaviour a teacher reported that, *"I noticed some children were afraid to play with others and preferred to stay or play alone with toys."*Another teacher *commented "many times when we play team games, there are children who show no interest in participating. I mean they will participate, but they will act alone as if they are not part of the team."*

All teachers agreed that ability to socialise is one of the key skills that the students need to develop for their future. One teacher commented *"this is so important for children to learn how to make friends and how to play with others. In some cases parents teach children not to mix with other children due to different reasons like different genders, socio-economic status, mannerism etc. The problem is that children do not understand the reason, but they simply stop mixing with other children. This is poor upbringing."*

One of the main issues that many teachers face is gender segregation. One teacher stressed that, *"some of the children refused to play or sit near the children of the opposite sex where some male children prefer to play with boys, while girls prefer to play with girls. This may be normal in our Saudi society, where traditions emphasise the separation of genders. In fact many times parents tell their children not to play with children of opposite sex and this is what they are following. I am not sure of how to comment on this. Going by our culture it may be okay, but if we think about the way global society is developing I think this is wrong. But we cannot force any parent about this issue."*

The results from the interviews about social behaviour are presented in Table 49. This table shows that four of the participants reported social behaviour-related issues. These issues include avoiding or fearing from participating in activities with other children, refusal to play

or to sit next to another child of a different sex. The participants stated that this behaviour should be attributed to the nature of the socialisation where these children grow. In Arab culture children are encouraged to play with children of the same gender. It may be considered socially unacceptable to play the male with the female and vice versa. Problems such as feeling embarrassed easily and staying alone were less frequent compared to other type of behaviours.

Table 49 Social behaviour from the teacher's focus group perception

Problems of social behaviour	Frequency
Avoids participating in class activities	7
Fears mixing with others	6
Avoids participating in non-class activities	6
refuse to play or seat next to child of a different sex	6
Feels embarrassed easily	5
prefer to stay alone	5

The group also mentioned some important behaviours related to child psychology, they can be divided in to two categories, fears and lying. For example one teacher said: *"I noticed that some children afraid to go alone to the bathroom and asked me to go with them and sometimes ask me to wait for them ...,"* Another teacher said, *"When we visited certain places, outside the school, some kids are afraid to enter those places and would prefer to wait in the car and not join the rest of the group ...".* Another account was for unseen objects or peoples, *"Some of the children claim that other kids beat them and when I investigate the child claim it turns out to be a false or invalid claim ..."*

Table 50 Other behaviours from the teacher's focus group perception

Other problems	Frequency
Afraid of going to the bathroom alone	7
Afraid of entering a crowded place	6

Afraid of new places	4
Pretends that he/she is sick in order to gain attention and sympathy	7
Accuses others of beating or assaulting him/her	6
Falsely accuses other children	5

The reported problems are presented in Table 50. In terms of fears, going alone to the bathroom was the most frequent among children as well as crowded and new places. With regards to lying, pretending sick to attract attention was the most reported form of lying.

4.5 Summary of Results

4.5.1 Aggressive behaviours in pre-school children

A variety of individual responses were provided when the participants were asked about aggressive behaviour among pre-school children. The study found that the underlying theme for the three focus group results was that cursing, swearing and kicking others were the most repeated behaviour. Furthermore, eight of the participants from the three groups reported behaviour such as damaging school and classroom furniture, hitting peers and harassing them as bad behaviours. Children's actions such as taking others' belongings and answering teachers with bad words contrary to their instructions were reported by most teachers' focus group. However, these behaviours were less frequent among female children. Jealousy was reported frequently in all groups. It is important to state that mothers group reported some behaviours as the most embarrassment for them such as vandalism, breaking others' belongs, hitting the other kids, shouting and speaking socially inappropriate words. However, they reported that vandalism may not be considered as problem in itself and do not reflect a behaviour problem according to Saudi culture in relation to pre-school child behaviour. Moreover, they stated that stealing others' belongings, either in house or school, or to break them is socially unacceptable. The participants agreed that children may aim to attract the attention of their parents or teachers. Some of participants in fathers group believe that it is important that boys must show some temperament in their behaviour because they will needed as part of their role in the future. Most of participants, especially teachers, stated that although jealousy causes disturbance for them, it could not be considered as problem,

especially with new born children in the family.

4.5.2 Telling lies by children

The participants said that there are behaviours indicate that children tell lies such as fabricating stories. Some children tell some events which never happened and then discovered to be untrue. Likewise, some children may claim that they underwent some events which actually never happened to them. One of the behaviours reported by the participants was the claim of being sick .They may be attributed to escaping from doing any task or homework. However, the claim of being sick is rarely recurrent among children as confirmed by parents, while teachers believe the opposite. On the issue of sickness related behaviours six out of eight from the fathers' focus group agreed that these behaviours are rarely recurrent among children. In general, mothers confirmed the recurrence of telling lies as the highest level of behaviour among children, while fathers confirmed lower levels of telling lies by the children.

All participants in the three groups consider telling lies as socially unacceptable behaviour. Nevertheless, they believed that such behaviours may reflect children's imagination. Therefore, fabricating their own stories for fun as children still confused between imagination and reality.

Teachers believe that children resort to make up lies sometimes to defend themselves, to avoid something, or to deny something they did as they fear punishment. Children may tell long stories which might appear to be true, but in fact they are made up of their imagination or they were true stories and the children added some imagination and lies to these stories to draw their parents' attention. Some fathers confirmed that children might lie when they fear punishment. The participants also confirmed that some children tell lies when they see that one of their parents tell lies before them, thus they feel that telling lies is a simple matter. A child may tell lies only for imitation. Some participants confirmed that a child may tell a lie in order to accuse others whom he hates or he is jealous of in order to embarrass them.

4.5.3 Fears by children

Fears are the behaviours which reflect distress by children under pressure which causes great

psychological stress that impedes them from practising normally in their activities. As indicated by parents and teachers, fear of foreigners and darkness is the most recurrent activity. This may be reflected in isolation and shyness. Also, the participants showed fear of seeing imaginary objects such as ghouls and ghosts who are shown on T.V. Children also fear darkness, lonely sleep and strange sounds such as thunder. Some participants also reported some children's fear of animals.

Participants agreed that these fears clearly reoccur by children, despite the fact that such fears reflect true problems. Parents believe that it is socially acceptable that girls express their fears, while it is unacceptable that boys express their fears. This is related to the social nature of the Arab society which considers the boy as a man and should be strong and never show fear.

4.5.4 Socially perceived behaviours fears by children

Participants of all groups pointed to socially perceived sets of behaviour as important for children's development such as, making friends, dealing with other groups and playing with other children. This important set of social behaviours has been replaced by computer games and the Internet. Both teachers and parents groups agreed that many children do not obey their elders and they inclined to defiance and stubbornness. This form of behaviour is completely unacceptable in the eyes of the Saudi culture and as a result children may face harsh treatment at home and in some pre-school arrangements. Teachers, however, see such behaviour as normal and it is a part of the phase of growth and as part of children's developing their self – identity. Some participants referred to the inability to distinguish what others feel, result in the fact that children's suffering from this behaviour practices which annoy other children like shouting and hitting the next child.

4.5.5 Pre-school behaviour

The participants in the teachers' focus group mentioned the presence of high frequency of behaviours such as scratching or writing on chairs and walls and anarchic behaviour. In addition, they reported other type of behaviours that occur quite often such as body

movement for example, head scratching, hair and nose, continuously looking out of the window and chair movement. In contrast, problems such as leaving the desk, standing without teacher's permission and clapping or finger snapping and roaming in class were reported less frequent.

Moreover, teachers mentioned that children at school may suffer from some problems such as, lack of desire to keep up with other in class, acting violently against belongings of the school, hitting other, defying instructions, access in movement and activity. Teachers stressed that these behaviours are widely recurrent at school. The same has also been confirmed by parents who confirmed that teachers very often talk about these problems during meetings between parents and teachers. Teachers mentioned that these behaviours are annoying indeed and they impede their work at school. Some teachers also referred to the problem of children learning and confirmed that they are not attributed to illness, but to adaptation with newcomers in the class.

4.5.6 Other problems

Parents referred to some problems such as not going early to bed, the desire to own other's belongings and toys and inclinations to not eat healthy food in favour of snacks. The participants also noticed a great desire by the children to use electronic devices. The participants mentioned that the problem of using the electronic devices is recurrent and causes isolation and lack of desire to interact with other children, not to mention parents' worry.

Some participants, mainly teachers, mentioned that some children steal others' belongings as they noticed that some belongings of the school or of other children went missing. Nevertheless, the teachers do not believe that this behaviour indisputably reflects the concept of theft, but it reflects the lack of the growth among children.

Gender base issues are of great concerns for many cultures. The segregation issue in Saudi culture is not new and adult behaviour towards boys may be perceived different to girls. Child development is influenced by culture where children grow up. Saudi culture has particular emphasis on gender. This emphasis perceived negatively or positively and depends on real things like age group and other socio economic factors such as family background

poverty and drugs abuse genetic and social psychology factors. Various studies, as mentioned in the literature review, recognised that fathers are equally having vital persuasive effect on the development of their children in varied societies. For example, the actions of the fathers depend on the socio-cultural context that in the end form the force that causes change to the child developmental trajectory and are variable. The common premise in modern social science is the impact that the fathers have is correlated to the socio-emotional development of the children. Fatherswho are involved facilitate benefits that are positive to their second generation.

Parents referred to some problems such as not going early to bed, the desire to own other's belongings and toys, and the inclination to not eat healthy food in favour of snacks. The participants also noticed a great desire by the children to use electronic devices. The participants mentioned that the problem of using the electronic devices is recurrent and causes isolation and lack of desire to interact with other children, not to mention parents' worry.

Chapter 5   Discussion

5.1   Introduction

The previous chapter presented the research findings obtained during data analysis. The quantitative results revealed general agreement between teachers and parents and, indeed, agreement across the whole sample with few variations. Nevertheless, there were also broad trends such as parents showing a lower level of concern regarding behaviour than teachers. Reliability testing showed the data collection tools to be robust and gave an encouraging indication that there were consistent parental and teacher views which could be developed into a description of how behaviour is conceptualised within a Saudi Arabian context. However, the qualitative data showed that many of the assumptions made when interpreting the quantitative data were too simple. Not only did the qualitative data indicate more subtlety and nuance in how behaviour was conceptualised, but these nuances revealed differences between mothers and fathers which had not been found in the quantitative data. This type of tension between data sources is part of the attraction for mixed methods research, with a pragmatic approach to analysis and discussion working iteratively with current research literature in order to disentangle and better understand what these contradictions can tell us about Saudi culture.

Overall, it can be seen from the findings chapter that many of the differences in means and correlations between scales could only be used in an exploratory way, with several possible interpretations. For example, some scales showed a positive correlation between concern and frequency while others were negative. Parents' concern over school-related problems were higher for more frequently occurring problems, while the opposite was true for aggression with parents being less concerned about more frequently occurring problems. This shows the need not just for the richness of the focus group data to look in more depth at how such behaviours are conceptualised, but also the need to look to the literature for guidance.

This discussion chapter therefore starts by using the quantitative data for its structure, so each section starts by discussing survey findings before adding context from the qualitative data. As the discussion develops around differences highlighted in the qualitative data analysis, the

structure of the chapter shifts to looking at these differences in depth by starting with mothers, then fathers, then teachers. It has been noted throughout this thesis that the literature on Saudi Arabian approaches to behaviour is still relatively immature and has certainly yet to develop a consensus.

Sections 5.3 to 5.8 draw together the findings under the behaviour categories used in the questionnaire, showing in broad terms how responses from teachers and parents compared. One of the most significant findings from the quantitative data was that there were no statistically significant differences in responses from mothers and fathers, other than the frequency of social field scale. This is remarkable given the differences expressed during the focus groups. Section 5.10 therefore shifts emphasis onto the focus group data and discusses in greater detail how mothers referred to behaviour. This is followed by discussion of fathers in 5.11. This then leads to discussions of variance between parents and teachers in section 5.12. Since discussion of qualitative data can be so easily influenced by those interpreting the data, the conclusions are reflected upon as researcher reflexivity is briefly outlined to reflect on the emerging conclusions of the study.

5.2   Summary of key results from quantitative analysis

The table below summarises the results for the quantitative analysis

Item	Mean	Median	Standard deviation	Correlation	Cronbach's alpha
Teachers					
Aggressive Behaviours	3.435	3.6	0.90293	r = 0.276, p>.01	0.967
Aggressive behaviour (frequency)	2.557	2.2	1.15386		
Lying	3.5042	3.6667	0.78491	r = 0.349, p>.01	0.524
Lying (Frequency)	2.5	2.25	1.00426		
Social Field	3.105	3	1.05148	r=-.071, p>.01	0.881
Social Field (Frequency)	2.35	1.9	1.19979		
Fear	3.1292	3.0833	1.10134	r=-.03, p>.01	951
Fear (frequency)	2.4042	2	1.17844		
Parents					
Aggressive Behaviours	3.1083	3	0.99647	r= -.521, p<.01	0.953
Aggressive behaviour (frequency)	2.3086	2.3684	0.86897		
Lying	3.1914	3	1.01474	r= -.499, p<.01	0.903
Lying (Frequency)	2.3007	2.3125	0.90358		
Social Field	3.0383	3	0.91946	r=.542, p<.01	0.865
Social Field (Frequency)	3.509	3.4286	1.00419		
Fear	3.1478	3	0.96567	r=.412, p<.01	0.932
Fear (frequency)	3.5846	3.5	0.90102		
School related problems	3.2447	3	1.11891	r=.644, p<.01	0.924
School related problems (frequency)	3.6579	3.5	1.038		
Strange habits	3.2977	3	1.1004	r=.639, p<.01	0.945
Strange habits (frequency)	3.7076	3.7222	1.03402		

Table 51 Summary of quantitative data

The previous chapter highlighted similarities and differences between mothers, fathers, and teachers on the eight scales of four categories of behaviour: aggression, lying, social field and fear. Four further scales, relating to school-related problems and strange behaviours, were also analysed just in terms of parents' responses since the teachers' survey did not include items relating to these scales. Key findings were that lying was the main concern for teachers and was also one of the main concerns of parents. Indeed, it was only the two parent-only scales which were rated higher. Four of the behaviour types also seemed to relate to each other, with lying showing the strongest relationship in that concerns over lying were very strongly related to concerns over aggression. Indeed, the strength of correlation suggests that lying and aggression might themselves be proxies for some underlying or latent variable.

Concern was lowest for more experienced and more highly qualified teachers, which echoed the finding that higher educated and higher paid parents were also less concerned in general. It is unclear from the data whether this is a causal explanation for the lower misbehaviour reported in private schools (i.e. that these schools are a truncated sample of highly qualified teachers and well-paid parents), or if there are also features of the private school experience (e.g. smaller class sizes or more enriched environments) which further reduce misbehaviour.

Age also followed predictable patterns, with older parents and more experienced teachers showing more overall concern about behaviour. This was most evident for retired parents, but there also appeared to be some anxiety among young parents which meant that there was not a simple linear trend to the data. Rather, the influence of age needs to be interpreted as combining two effects: the anxiety of new parents and the increased strictness of much older parents. Within this, there was a general trend for decreased concern from older parents, although even this could have been complicated by other factors, such as an increased likelihood of having more children or earning higher salaries.

These general trends are illuminating, but the complexities within them mean that the quantitative results alone are insufficient for answering the research questions because additional analysis, for example by using regression, is not possible given the sample size. It is therefore crucial that discussion of the qualitative data from the focus groups is drawn together with the research literature to attempt to illuminate the issues and offer additional

insight. Each category of behaviour will now be considered in turn before the discussion turns in general towards the groups of participants.

5.2.1 Aggressive behaviour

The quantitative results showed that teachers were mildly concerned about aggressive behaviours, but reported them rather infrequently. Both these perceptions were lower for parents. Teachers were also in much closer agreement with each other, with no statistically significant differences found for any teacher traits and their ratings on the aggression scales. In contrast, parents' views differed based on the number of children and parent age, with younger parents and those with several children generally being less concerned about aggressive behaviour and reporting it less frequently.

One explanation for this is recent cultural change in Saudi Arabia (Abar et al., 2009; Buchele, 2010), in particular attempts to use more positive behaviour strategies. This change could be seen in younger parents and teachers who have had more recent training, but attitudes may be slower to change in older generations. However, differences were slight and age was not a perfectly linear trend, so it is important not to generalise too much about recent cultural changes. This could be seen in the mothers' focus group discussion which clearly showed the dominance of religious authority over any notion of children's personal rights, making this an aspect of Saudi culture which remains largely unchanged.

Discussion among the mothers also appeared to distinguish between aggression at home and aggression at school. This did not emerge from the factor loadings in the quantitative results, but this could simply be due to the smaller sample size, an issue exacerbated if such a distinction is only made by mothers rather than across the sample as a whole. Direct translations are difficult, but it appeared that mothers' discussion of aggressive behaviours focused much more on awkwardness and disapproval rather than on the direct consequences of aggressive actions. For example, there was little distinction between yelling out loud and hitting other children. Both were seen as disrupting others and being embarrassing for parents, but mothers did not discuss the difference of the fact that hitting another child causes them pain, harm or upset.

An example of unacceptable aggressive behaviours from one mother illustrates how it is disobedience and embarrassment that were her main concerns: "my son hits his brother or the neighbour's children, including holding their hands and shoes. This sort of behaviour angers me a lot and causes me embarrassment with neighbours". This led to discussion which seemed to distinguish between children as disruptive or non-disruptive, so the frequency of misbehaviour was less concerning than the context. In particular, misbehaviour at school or with groups of children and parents was seen as less acceptable than misbehaviour in private. Indeed, there also appeared to be some sense that children needed to let out some of their energy, an idea which relates to the work of Broidy et al. (2003). Similarly, Dwairy et al.'s (2006) finding that mothers are less controlling than fathers in Arab countries would support this view. While fathers might be anticipated to expect children to be under close control at all times, what Dwairy et al. (2006) describe as an authoritarian view, mothers take a more flexible authoritative approach in which children need progressively less supervision or only need close control in certain situations.

Fathers shared a broadly similar level of concern over aggressive behaviours, but seemed to not make the same distinction about social embarrassment. For example, one father was very critical of a child who would hit others in secret. Other disruptive behaviours were also described as aggressive when they were thought to be openly defiant. While playing music too loudly might be thought of more in the social field, one father discussed this as a type of aggression since it was "deliberately stirring noise".

One key difference in the focus groups was discussion of gendered aggression. Some fathers felt that sons could be more aggressive than daughters, since men would need the ability to control others in adult life. Controlling behaviours, whilst still recognised as aggression, were therefore less concerning in boys and were consequently punished less and less often. There appeared to be some distinction between being dominant and being aggressive in that fathers were tolerant or even approving of the former. It was also noteworthy that fathers did not make the same distinction between public and private behaviour as mothers, instead tending to see behaviour as a consistent behaviour trait which needed controlling in the same way at all times rather than being situationally-dependent. Similarly, there was no discussion of children needing to release energy, and consequently little tolerance from fathers for disobedience.

The teachers' focus group also saw gendered aggression, but in this case, it was females who were described as behaving aggressively by pulling each other's hair. Males were not singled out by teachers for any particular type of aggressive behaviour. Teachers also shared the view of mothers that disruption was the main type of aggression, including making excess noise or running around to deliberately create a chaotic environment. Some teachers described this simply as an excess of energy, mirroring the mothers' focus group rationalisation of this type of aggression, while other teachers saw it as defiance in a similar way to how the fathers' focus group described such challenges to authority as aggressive.

Taken together, the focus groups in this study add further illumination to this literature within the particular Saudi Arabian context. While Dwairy et al. (2006) found an overall trend of mothers being more permissive than fathers, they noted that this was within a much narrower range of assumptions in Saudi Arabia than other Arab nations. For example, while other countries showed authoritarian fathers and permissive mothers, Saudi Arabia showed mainly authoritarian fathers and authoritative mothers. Interpreting the focus group data in this light might add some explanation in that Saudi Arabian mothers are concerned about the norms of an authoritarian society and so are more controlling in certain contexts. The permissive nature of parents comes in relaxing this control in private in the belief that children need to release their energy. However, this permissiveness is still only relative to the strict authoritarian context. There might also be some influence from other groups of mothers, since mothers are rarely alone with their children and spend a great deal of time with other mothers and their children. Private permissiveness might therefore exist, but since mothers are so rarely parenting in private their overall approach is still reflective of assumptions in society more generally – and it is fear of embarrassment from flouting those assumptions that most motivates mothers to take an authoritative approach, rather than any personal belief that this parenting style is superior to other approaches.

5.2.2   Lying

Quantitative analysis indicated that lying was more of a concern for teachers than aggression and was also reported as more frequent. Teachers were also more concerned about lying and reported it more often than parents. Parents reported higher lying frequency if they had more children, which made intuitive sense if there were more children in the home to be observed

lying or if children were lying to each other. Private sector workers saw lying as more of a problem than government-sector workers, but overall there was broad agreement that lying was a moderate problem and occurred moderately frequently.

Despite these similarities in the quantitative data, the focus groups showed differences in how mothers, fathers and teachers described lying behaviours. Mothers were more likely to describe lying as attention-seeking behaviour, and one mother even excused such behaviour as "imaginative ability". Mothers found the most frequent lie to be pretending to be sick, but again, this was seen more as attention-seeking than an attempt to avoid doing something (e.g. to avoid chores or going to school). Attention-seeking could also be thought of as a kind of manipulation of adults, as seen in lying which was seen by parents as an attempt to get other children into trouble.

The fathers' focus group expressed very similar views of what type of lying was done by children, with faked illness or blaming other children being the main reasons. Similarly, one father partly excused such behaviour as imagination, though he did note that this would need monitoring in the future. The key difference here was that while mothers saw this type of lying as attention-seeking, the fathers discussed specific intentions from the lies. For example, pretending to be sick might be a strategy to get parents to do something for the child or pretending that their teacher had asked them to do something which would enable to child to do something they wanted to do. One explanation for this could be children responding to an authoritarian context, so they feel the need to fabricate reasons for whatever they want to do rather than being able to openly ask their parents.

The teachers' focus group adds further context to this explanation because the main lying described by teachers was also fake illness. As with the mothers' focus group, teachers explained this as attention-seeking behaviour. Teachers also saw lying as much more about attempts at avoiding punishment for more serious transgressions, which was an observation also made by some fathers. Overall, this suggests a consensus about the types of lies children told, but different attitudes towards those lies. It was also surprising that lying was not treated more seriously, either as a form of defiance or because lying is so strictly prohibited in the Qur'an. One crucial difference seemed to be that lies were conceptualised by all three focus groups as something related more to the individual child, so while lies were told *by* children, they were not told *to* particular adults. A lie was therefore not seen as significantly

disrespectful to parents, nor were lies thought to be aimed at a particular adult. This seemed to be accompanied by a general belief that children would grow out of lying behaviours and that it was only if they failed to do so that such behaviour would need correcting. This kept in line with the Qur'an's teaching that lying is a type of weakness or even indicative of an evil or wicked character, so lying would not be permitted in older children – a stark contrast to the views held by some fathers that aggression could have value in boys as they aged.

There also appeared to be a sense that the western definition of lies was not an appropriate translation, since real lies were so strictly prohibited, but certain types of lie, such as exaggeration or flattery, were part of the bartering and relationship-maintenance common in Saudi Arabian society. For example, lying about the price of a product is not seen as a lie since the price is expected to be negotiated, while exaggerating one's respect for a teacher in order to gain favourable treatment is not seen as manipulation or even disrespectful, but is simply part of the dynamic through which favours are exchanged. It therefore seemed that the discussion about lying in these focus groups centred on a narrower definition of lying behaviours, including only outright falsehoods (such as faked illness) or childish nonsense. This may help to explain why parents and teachers seemed less concerned about lying, since their definition of lying was much narrower and seems to have been slightly lost in translation.

5.2.3   Social Field

Teachers had mild concerns over social-related behaviours, while parents were fairly neutral overall. Part of this difference could be explained by differences between mothers and fathers, with mothers seeing social behaviour issues as more of a concern than fathers. Concern also appeared to be greatest for only children, presumably because of fewer socialisation opportunities within the home. The construct of social field behaviours from the questionnaire did not seem to map well into what parents wanted to talk about when the topic of social behaviour was introduced. Instead, parents seemed more interested in obedience, for example, both focus groups gave emphasis to concerns over computer games. While the questionnaire addressed this topic in terms of isolating behaviour and children not socialising with friends, the parents discussed computer games more in terms of how they made children slower or more reluctant to obey instructions.

This concern also seemed to be in part related to sleep behaviours, with parents concerned if children would not go to bed or wake up when instructed. Children staying up beyond their bed-time or playing games in bed, rather than going to sleep, was seen as defying instructions. This behaviour concern is by no means unique to parents in Saudi Arabia; Smith et al. (2017) studied bedtimes of adolescents and found that parental authority could enforce stricter bedtimes by reducing the amount of time children spent playing online games, but authority was ineffective where engagement with those games was high – that is to say, children who became highly engaged in games would disobey parents who they would normally obey. One simple reason for this is that, compared with games from their parents' generation, many contemporary online games are played with real teammates and opponents and cannot be paused or resumed later. The games are developed in such a way as to force players to complete a particular task or quest before they can quit the game, otherwise they forfeit, which may have consequences for their team. Parents unwilling to compromise on this with a flexible bedtime may therefore be creating more conflict and find it confusing that their children are disobedient where they normally follow parental rules about the amount of time spent on games.

Other concerns mentioned during the social field discussion focused on nutrition, although again this seemed to be based on disobedience. One mother and one father commented on health concerns from sweets and fast food, respectively, but overall the sentiment was more that parents were frustrated by children who did not want to join family meals. Al-Agha et al. (2016) argue that these two types of concerning behaviour are actually related, and that Saudi Arabia is seeing a dramatic increase in sedentary behaviour. They note, for example, a correlation between junk food consumption and time spent on computer games. In Jeddah, at least, obesity is now more strongly predicted by the use of electronic devices than time spent watching television and Al-Agha and colleagues interpret this within a dramatic rise in obesity in Saudi Arabia to highlight a broader trend of less active lifestyles and teenagers being less responsive to their parents. In this respect, the parent focus group discussions suggest that this was their key concern when discussing social behaviours. One consequence of this, however, is that the focus group discussion digressed from the social field behaviours as expressed in the questionnaire, meaning that there is little triangulation between the two data sources as it seems that the parents were discussing something different from how they responded in the questionnaires.

5.2.4   Fear

Parents and teachers showed a similar level of concern over fear – again, a moderate level – but parents significantly differed in the much higher frequency reported compared with teachers. Part of the explanation could be that fear-related behaviours are less common when children have peers around them. This idea is supported by the finding that frequency of fear behaviours was lower for larger families. The focus groups added further context, with the fathers showing consistent expectations based on traditional gender roles, for example, that fear was acceptable for girls, but not for boys, although this was not found in the quantitative data so could simply reflect social acceptability bias in the focus group environment.

The level of concern and frequency over fear behaviours varied on parental job type, which raised the question of the impact from increased parental contact from parents who are government workers or where one parent does not work. It might be assumed that greater time spent with parents would reduce children's levels of fear, but this seemed not to be the case. One very simple explanation is that parents who are around more have more opportunities to observe fear-related behaviours, but for this to be true it would presumably also be true for the other behaviours – which it is not. Instead, it appears that children might become more fearful if they are too dependent on their parents. With a parenting style which emphasises control, this might not be too concerning for parents since they do not want children to behave too boldly.

As with lying, it also appeared to be generally believed that fear behaviours would naturally stop as children aged and were of little concern, therefore. Saudi Arabian society also emphasises private and semi-private social interactions, so some of the questionnaire Items may not map well onto this culture. In particular, a fear of strangers may be much more widespread than in western societies since the definition of family and friends is so much broader in Saudi Arabia, meaning that interactions with genuine strangers are rare. It is also worth highlighting that the history of Saudi Arabia is a history of warfare, so there are legitimate reasons to be fearful and to avoid lingering in crowded places.

Another cultural norm is the gendering of fear. This appeared to be stronger than in the west, at least in the view of fathers, with fear from boys being much less acceptable than from girls. Indeed, it was suggested that boys needed to be able to overcome their fears in order to

provide protection for girls. This form of fear behaviour was therefore unacceptable to both mothers and fathers as it was a form of disobedience and caused social embarrassment. Discussion of fear related actions suggested that fear displays in public were treated much more seriously than those in private, with fear treated in much the same way as shyness both in terms of sanctions for public displays and in being regarded as more acceptable for girls.

Within this overall discussion, fear in a medical context appeared to be distinct. Each focus group discussed this as one of the main fears seen in children, with them afraid of going to the doctor or dentist. This may reflect general fears within Saudi Arabia, since it has been noted that adults in Saudi Arabia express high levels of anxiety about visiting the doctor or dentist and will avoid treatment or routine check-ups (El Bcheraoui et al., 2015). It is to be expected, therefore, that children will be fearful of something their parents find fearful. A much lower incidence of families going together for routine treatment might also lead to increases in anxiety since visits to the doctor or dentist will be much more often remedial (and consequently often more painful) experiences than routine check-ups.

5.2.5   School-related behaviours

Piloting had reduced the length of questionnaires, since participants were concerned about the amount of time they would need to spend answering questions and feedback from teachers resulted in items related to school-related behaviours and strange habits being removed. Teachers' and parents' views cannot be compared on this dimension, therefore, which is a limitation to the research since school-related behaviours were the most concerning for parents, so it would have been illuminating the see how teachers described these same behaviours from their perspective in school. Despite the high level of concern indicated in the questionnaire responses, neither focus group discussed school-related issues, so this is an area requiring further research to explain this contradiction.

5.2.6   Strange habits

As with school-related behaviours, parents showed a slightly higher level of concern over strange habits than the other scales and a much more frequent occurrence. Again, no direct comparisons with teachers are possible due to the shortened questionnaire. The topic was also not discussed in the teachers' focus group. However, there were still some broad trends which could be identified. For example, parents with more children were less concerned, suggesting

that they may become used to strange behaviour or no longer consider it strange as they see similar behaviour from older children. Higher education levels were also associated with less concern, which may be explained by a more permissive approach to parenting, a greater tolerance for eccentricity, or even reading a wider range of parenting guides (so, in effect, higher education levels are a proxy for English reading ability which is in turn a proxy for access to a wider range of books on parenting). Unfortunately, the focus groups did not have enough time to discuss this topic in any depth, so such explanations remain entirely speculative and more research would be needed. Given the high level of concern for these last two scales - school-related and strange habits - such findings may be highly illuminating on the subject of how parents conceptualise behaviour.

5.2.7   Overall trends

Higher levels of education, both for parents and teachers, were generally associated with less concern over the range of behaviours. This may be due to better information about what is normal child behaviour, a proxy of the impact of social class, or be linked with other skills which lead to more effective parenting. Mothers seemed more flexible in their approach than fathers, although this is also complicated by generation effects as grandmothers were also associated with a range of behaviour issues. It also appeared that government workers found parenting slightly easier than private sector workers, which could relate to time at home and lower pressures of work. Indeed, this effect was more influential than salary, supporting the attachment theory view that parental bonding time is vital for normal development. Differences between public and private sector were reversed in schools, but not so much as might have been expected. One simple explanation could be the greater equality in Saudi Arabia's education system generally with government or private schools following the same curriculum and tending to recruit staff from the same universities. Differences between schools are therefore much less pronounced than, for example, between state and public schools in the UK.

Focus group data showed that teachers were most concerned about behaviour which impacted on other children, although this did not appear in the quantitative analysis. Avoiding inconveniencing others is a key aspect of Saudi culture, but it is not surprising that this would

still be more of a concern for teachers than for parents given that they are responsible for so many more children and have objectives to meet under time pressures.

With concern and frequency at such moderate levels, one of the key issues in analysis was deciding whether parents and teachers were describing good or bad behaviour. There seemed to be a broad consensus that anything which disturbed others or caused embarrassment to parents was unacceptable, but across the whole range of issues there was only moderate concern and relatively infrequent occurrence. It may therefore be the case that parents are more concerned about visible or obvious misbehaviour, in particular defiance in public, reflecting the need for children to show respect and obedience to adults. Such a divide between public and private life is much more pronounced in Saudi culture, so it seemed that parents were more accepting of misbehaviour in private and even recognised that children could feel stressed and have valid reasons for misbehaving.

5.3   Summary of the findings of the qualitative data

The table below summarises the findings of the qualitative (focus group) data

Table 52 Summary of qualitative data findings

	Frequency		
	Fathers	Mothers	Teachers
Behaviours	N=8	N=7	N=9
Aggressive behaviour			
Assaults on peers by hitting, biting, or pulling hair	6	4	0
Damages other children's things such as their clothes or bags	5	6	0
Prevents other children from playing and doing activities	3	3	0
Controls other kids	3	5	0
Mocks friends and brothers	0	1	0
Seizes other people's things by force	6	5	0
Starts fights	4	3	0
Hurts others on purpose when s/he notices that nobody can see them	7	6	0
Insults friends and brothers	0	3	0
Scares brothers or peers	1	3	0
Uses things like sticks and shoes to hit	0	6	0
Tends to violent playing	5	3	0

Says 0sty words	4	5	0
Damages his/her own property such as clothes and toys	6	6	0
Challenges older people	0	2	0
Does not respect others	1	2	0
Makes a lot of noise (yells or hits)	7	7	0
Damages and breaks furniture	0	1	0
Throws rubbish on the floor in spite of the presence of a waste basket	0	5	0
Pushes his/her mates violently	0	0	8
Quarrels with his/her mates	0	0	7
Hits his/her mates with things in his hand	0	0	7
Scratches his/her mates' books and instruments	0	0	6
Shuts the door violently	0	0	5
Damages class furniture	0	0	4
Takes his/her mates' belongings	0	0	3
Scratches his/her mates	0	0	2
Pulls his/her mates' hair	0	0	2
Lying			
Pretends that he/she is oppressed	0	0	0
Pretends that he/she is sick in order to gain attention and sympathy	6	6	0
Accuses others of beating or assaulting him/her	5	4	6
Claims that he/she is hungry or thirsty	0	0	0
Asks for things for him/herself claiming that the teacher asked for them	3	2	0
Falsely accuses other children	5	4	5
Lies to get rid of embarrassment in some situations	3	1	0
Accuses others of his/her own mistakes	0	0	0
Fears			
Afraid of going to school and refuses it	0	0	0
Complains of headaches or any pain, claiming that he or she is sick	5	0	7
Afraid of staying alone	5	6	0
Yells or cries strongly when his/her room door is closed, asking to open it	3	4	0
Yells or runs away when he/she sees a bug	0	1	0
Afraid of entering a crowded place	4	4	6
Afraid of new places	3	3	4
Gets confused when an adult talks to him/her	0	0	0
Afraid of going to the toilet alone	5	5	7
Talks about scary things like demons	0	0	0
Cries if he/she sees a doctor or a nurse	7	6	0
Afraid of darkness	5	5	0
Social field			

Does not like socialisation	0	0	0
Prefers to play alone	4	4	0
Prefers e-games to sharing with others in playing	7	7	0
Heavily responds to anything that happens around him/her	0	0	0
Shy when there are guests	5	5	0
Avoids dealing with strangers	3	3	0
Stays still in his/her place for a long time	0	0	0
School-related problems	0	1	0
Does not easily accept regulations	4	6	0
Refuses to do his/her duties at home	5	6	0
Misses school	0	0	0
Misses school activities	0	0	0
Avoids participating in class activities	0	0	7
Fears mixing with others	0	0	6
Avoids participating in non-class activities	0	0	6
refuse to play or seat next to child of a different sex	0	0	6
Feels embarrassed easily	0	0	5
prefer to stay alone	0	0	5
Strange habits			
Sucks his/her fingers	4	4	0
Bites his/her fingers	0	0	0
Puts pens in his fingers	0	0	0
Touches others in a strange or an inppropriate way	0	0	0
Spits on the floor or any other place	2	4	0
Suddenly yells at others and without any warning	3	4	0
Refuses to go to bed at bedtime	4	6	0
Refuses to get up in the morning	3	6	0
Refuses to eat	5	5	0
School related issues			
Disturbs his/her mates	0	0	7
Disturbs the teacher in class	0	0	7
Runs inside school	0	0	6
Causes constant chaos and noise	0	0	6
Interrupts his mates continuously when they talk to their	0	0	5
Loses his/her concentration easily	0	0	4
Changes seats constantly	0	0	4
Finds it difficult to finish what he/she starts	0	0	3
Disobedience			
Leaves class without permission	0	0	7
Scratches on walls of class and school	0	0	7
Enter class without permission	0	0	5
Causes damages to class chairs	0	0	4
Tearing teaching aids of class and school	0	0	4

| Comes late to class after each break | 0 | 0 | 3 |

Sections below discusses these findings one by one

5.3.1   Views particular to mothers

One of the stereotypes of Saudi culture is the difference between men and women in parenting roles, with fathers being generally more distant and stricter than mothers, but Dwairy et al. (2006) argue that it is socioeconomic status that has a greater influence. This view is supported by the quantitative analysis in this study with mothers and fathers showing far more similarities than differences. Dwairy et al. (2006) also claim that higher status and more educated parents are generally more liberal and this was also supported in the data in this study.

The only exception to this was social scale ratings in terms of frequency of concerning behaviours. Here, mothers reported greater amounts of social misbehaviour than did fathers, although it is noteworthy that their levels of concern were similar. This suggests that while mothers observed greater social misbehaviour this did not mean that they regarded it as any more of a problem. Overall, the trends in this study go against the findings from Dwairy et al. (2006) since both mothers and fathers seemed to hold very similar views about misbehaviour. Despite a lack of statistically significant differences in how misbehaviour was conceptualised and observed, the way that parents talked about how they deal with those issues did follow the prediction that mothers would take a more liberal view, albeit one within the narrow overall parenting norms within an authoritarian culture. That some mothers were authoritative rather than authoritarian can therefore be interpreted as following the norm that mothers are more liberal than fathers, even though mothers were still highly controlling.

Mothers also appeared to take a flexible approach to children's development, with an assumption that they would grow out of most of the undesirable behaviour. While they were occasionally embarrassed, none of the mothers or fathers described being overwhelmed or at a loss for what to do. This may have been a general confidence in the effect of an authoritarian society; that eventually, everyone settles into the social order and follows behaviour norms. The mothers also referred to an excess of energy as a temporary issue, so

could also have felt that children would behave as expected once they became more familiar with the routines of school and had burnt off some of their exuberance.

A popular concept among the mothers roughly translates as 'naughtiness', a kind of acceptable or whimsical disobedience. This seemed to be more related to gender than to age, so for example girls might be given some small concession if they tell small lies, or boys might be permitted to be a little aggressive. The boundaries of acceptability seemed to be largely tacit, but remarkably consistent among mothers in terms of what was deemed to be permissible. It was therefore not the behaviour that was objectively good or bad, but rather behaviour was relative to the social context and actor. Likewise, some mothers referred to their own actions as creating dependencies, particularly in terms of fear. While temporary, this meant that some children were excused for fear displays if mothers felt that they had been overbearing.

Comparisons with the research literature suggest that the mothers' focus group was broadly similar to western values and noticed similar child behaviours such as trying to get peers into trouble or seeking to deflect negative attention (Nashmi, 2008). While gender assumptions can be understood in the context of Islam, similar observations have been made in western contexts (e.g. Bilge and Kaufman, 1983; Giles-Sims and Lockhart, 2005; Coard et al., 2004). For example, it was expected that mothers would discuss strict prohibitions against boys and girls playing together, but this did not arise. Nevertheless, there was still a local flavour to responses in that physical aggression seemed to be more acceptable, at least from boys, than parents in the west would be expected to agree. There was also some discussion which suggested a confluence of traditional and permissive values, creating the seemingly paradoxical situation that children had much greater freedom of expression but used this to complain about how oppressed they felt. Indeed, some mothers described children's lies as attempts to counter what children saw as unfairness so that if the child felt entitled to something they would pretend to be ill or under a teacher's instructions in order to get what they want.

As part of this more liberal approach to parenting, the mothers expressed a broad consensus on the value of praise and encouragement over more traditional punishment and control. However, they also agreed that aggressive behaviour needed to be treated with authoritarian parenting, which could be taken to imply either that authoritarian parenting is more effective

or that aggression is a different type of misbehaviour and so needs treating differently. These explanations could both be influencing responses, for example if mothers felt that there was a need to more promptly deal with aggressive behaviours directly while other misbehaviour could be remedied with a longer-term positive strategy. In this respect, the literature is against the participants, with a general acceptance that meeting child aggression with parental dominance is counter-productive (e.g. Rogers, 2011). Overall, therefore, while mothers were more liberal than fathers in their views, the views expressed were still very traditional and took an inflexible interpretation of Islam with very little awareness of western values such as children's rights related to privacy or corporal punishment.

5.3.2   Views particular to fathers

The fathers' focus group expressed an apparently contradictory view of discipline in that they took a very firm position on authoritarian parenting and children respecting their authority, while at the same time making significant concessions based on traditional gender roles. The key examples here were that fear was acceptable for girls, but not boys, while aggression was, at least to some extent, acceptable from boys but not girls. While similar sentiments were mildly expressed in the mothers' focus group, the fathers were more confident in permitting this behaviour and rationalised it as a natural preparation for traditional gender roles. Aggression was therefore conceptualised as a principally masculine trait and one which might have some advantages as children learn how to protect the family females.

Fathers also expressed very traditional views in explaining that mixed-gender play was unacceptable, showing that their concern was more to do with societal norms than with any particular behaviours displayed by the children. A similar attitude could be inferred from comments related to behaviour which disturbed others or showed open defiance or disobedience. Such behaviour was treated very strictly. In part, this reflected how the mothers' focus group discussed social embarrassment, but seemed stronger for the fathers as such behaviour was seen as a direct challenge to their authority and status.

5.4 Differences in parents' views related to Saudi culture

Saudi Arabia has conservative and strict societal norms which have significant influence at all levels of society. This influence cannot be underestimated, but it is equally important not

to over-simplify. The culture is rooted in a Bedouin history which emphasises warmth and welcoming outsiders. The blurring of public and private life may seem contradictory or even suspicious to outsiders and the country's reticence to allow external scrutiny does little to dispel such concerns. In turn, Saudi society can be suspicious of the western world and its incompatibility with traditional values which have so far delivered a prosperous and stable society during the intense upheavals and uncertainties caused by warfare.

The literature review highlighted how such influences could have an impact on parenting practices. This is broadly based on whether parents hold traditional or egalitarian expectations for their children (Deater-Deckard et al., 1998). Saudi culture has taken an even more global view since Deater-Deckard et al.'s study (Buchele, 2010), so this trend has presumably continued and differences increased. However, it is difficult to identify which ideals parents held. Ideally, a separate set of questions could have established parents' overall views and how strictly they interpreted Islam. However, feedback from focus groups was that the questionnaire was already too long. The strong Cronbach's alpha scores also meant that the behaviour scales were functioning very effectively, so it would not have been desirable to damage these scales for the sake of making space for another scale.

Nevertheless, thinking about an underlying traditional vs. egalitarianism divide is helpful for interpreting parents' responses. The divide seemed not to be so much on socio-economic status or between mothers and fathers, as originally expected. Instead, parents seemed to differ in how they conceptualised behaviour. Differences based on age groups adds some support to this interpretation. There is not a simple linear trend of more liberal parenting views being held by younger parents, which would have suggested a generation-based explanation. Rather, the difference appears to be culture-based, with more liberal parenting evident for parents in their mid-20s to mid-30s. This suggests that older parents hold more traditional views, as might be expected, but also that the youngest parents were partly returning to these traditional views, perhaps reflecting a desire to return to traditional values and their own experiences as children. There may also be an aspect of reasserting the values of Islam after tensions in interpretations of Islam in Saudi Arabia over the last decade (Al-Rasheed, 2016).

One key difference between traditional and modern views is the importance of respecting parents. The mothers' focus group in particular was concerned about disrespectful behaviour

in public, describing this as embarrassing. Parents who are concerned about public loss of face might be tempted to use highly visible correction, but such crude and harsh approaches can have damaging long-term effects which actually increase misbehaviour (Dodge, 2006; Pardini et al., 2008). Similarly, a public-private difference in discipline can lead to inconsistencies, which further predict increases in problematic behaviour (Lengua and Kovacs, 2005). This inconsistency of explanation could also explain increases in perceived misbehaviour when grandparents were more active in child-rearing, or where parents lived apart, since these situations increase the scope for inconsistency.

Another way of interpreting the results is to use the categories from Dwairy et al. (2006). Based on administering a translated version of the Parental Authority Questionnaire, they found that certain combinations of authoritarian, authoritative and permissive behaviour seemed to cluster in responses from parents in Saudi Arabia. These were classified according to pairings, so permissive and authoritarian was labelled "inconsistent", authoritarian and authoritative was "controlling", while authoritative and permissive was "flexible" (Dwairy et al., 2006, p.241).

Even within the Arab world, however, there were significant differences as Saudi parents were found to be the least authoritative and the second-least permissive of eight Arab nations. The relative rarity of permissive parenting in Saudi Arabia might account for the lack of statistically significant differences in Dwairy et al.'s (2006) study, but there is nevertheless a clear trend that Saudi fathers favour the strict authoritarian style while Saudi mothers favour the less controlling authoritative style. Taken together, this indicates a parenting approach which may have inconsistencies between parents, but is generally agreed that close control of children is necessary with a slight relaxing of views for subsequent children and as children age.

Using these categories, it can be seen that the parents in this study were generally agreed that behaviour was a concern and that their children needed to be controlled. Men seemed to identify this need more than women in the focus groups, but this was not reflected in the statistical data beyond mothers being slightly more aware of misbehaviour which could cause them social embarrassment. Since Saudi society itself is high authoritarian, it is unsurprising that there was little discussion of permissive parenting. However, the expectation that mothers would be more permissive than fathers seemed not to be true.

5.5 Differences in teachers' views related to Saudi culture

Saudi Arabia is also struggling to forge its own identity as it modernises, and is making genuine efforts to understand the educational systems in the UK and US to assist in this endeavour. A key example is special education, which is routinely segregated and only classifies a narrow range of physical and mental disabilities rather than the broad range of special educational needs familiar in the US/UK systems. However, this segregation belies some very highly resourced and funded schools which offer excellent educational opportunities for children with SEN, a key duty of society under Islam. As schools are experimenting with mainstreaming and attempting to integrate values such as differentiation and the personalised curriculum, behaviour management will be experienced in new ways in Saudi Arabia and will need to address the fundamentals of what it means to behave in a learning environment. One key difference in teachers will therefore relate to how recently they trained, since teacher training has modernised significantly in recent years and is, more than ever before, drawing extensively on the UK for its faculty.

Differences in how teachers conceptualised behaviour compared with parents showed strong similarities among teachers, which makes sense given that teacher training is highly centralised in Saudi Arabia with only two main teacher training institutions. Differences were found based on where teachers trained, which could reflect either institutional cultures differing or underlying differences based on recruitment since one institution is more selective than the other. A similar generation-based trend was found in teachers as in parents, although this was less pronounced. The same modernist versus traditionalist interpretation is therefore suggested for teachers too, including the youngest teachers showing hints of returning to traditional values.

Another difference between parents and teachers could be the nature of behaviour. It was noted in the findings that teachers were more concerned about behaviour that disrupted other pupils, which makes sense given their responsibility for a whole class. There is also a strong tradition in Islam of respecting others and not preventing them from learning, the principle being that all who can benefit from teaching not only have a right to access them, but the community has a duty to enable such access.

A similar influence can be seen in the item related to taking other children's belongings. This was a difficult item to translate since personal possessions are conceptualised slightly differently, particularly possessions belonging to children. Teachers might therefore be more disapproving because of any disruption caused by belongings going missing rather than being concerned about theft, so the relatively neutral responses to this item and discussion in the focus groups may seem odd to anyone unfamiliar with these norms. Overall, therefore, it seems that teachers were more concerned about annoying or disruptive behaviour rather than seeing any particular behaviour as unacceptable.

5.6 Alternative interpretations unrelated to Saudi culture

The previous two sections found that a modernist versus traditionalist divide helps to explain the lack of difference in responses from mothers and fathers, particularly in the quantitative analysis. Even in the more public setting of focus groups traditional authoritarian views were being challenged within the mothers' and teachers' groups. Furthermore, despite some examples of strict discipline and gendered behaviour expectations, the overall direction of change in Saudi culture seems to be more influential than even traditional gender roles, with mothers and fathers more in agreement than was anticipated.

It was also considered that teachers focusing mainly on behaviour which disrupted others was not just related to their professional duties, but could reflect Islamic teachings too. However, there are also explanations which could be unrelated to Saudi culture. One key difference is linguistic, with literal translations problematic because English is a much more flexible language (Jianzhong, 1998). For example, 'bad behaviour' in English covers a range of seriousness and can be situationally-dependent, but a direct translation into Arabic would be reserved for only the most serious behaviour disorders. There is no handy phrase in Arabic for awkward or unacceptable behaviours and so discussion from parents and, to a lesser extent, teachers, took a broader view of any behaviour which contravened cultural norms or which interrupted or embarrassed adults. This broadness could help explain the strong reliability of the Likert scales, since participants had such an inclusive definition of misbehaviour, with little distinction over what type of behaviour was 'bad' rather than just 'odd' or 'irritating'. Some of the differences expressed might therefore relate more to the difficulty of discussing behaviour using English, meaning that differences could be due to less to actual differences in culture and more to do with how those differences are expressed.

It is also worth highlighting that this study was formed from a truncated sample. While mainstreaming is the norm in western cultures, Saudi Arabia generally has specialist provision for special educational needs and further separates classes by gender. Consequently, none of the parents or teachers in this sample discussed children with more complex or demanding behaviour needs. It may well be the case that such filtering emphasises group expectations related to gender, with all the children in a class expected to behave in similar ways. Likewise, the sense that a class of children are all broadly similar might act as an incentive for parents to treat children similarly and adopt common parenting approaches and to regard any behaviourcommon to the group as normal.

The public nature of the focus groups could also present issues from social acceptability bias, particularly as relates to traditional gender roles. Saudi Arabia does not recognise gender fluidity and there are strict rules and norms regarding sexuality. While it is now more accepted than ever that someone might not feel comfortable in their assigned gender and feel the need to be reassigned, this is still very rare and continues to reinforce a binary interpretation of male and female. Homosexuality might likewise not be strictly illegal since Saudi Arabia does not have a criminal code, but there is still strong social stigma and – at least technically – a capital offence of sodomy.

Genders are also routinely segregated from an early age, so the mothers' focus group will naturally have had much more exposure to girls' behaviours and the fathers' focus group may have mainly discussed boys' behaviours without explicitly referencing the fact that they were mainly talking about boys. Moreover, supervising parents and teachers will often reflect this separation, so the mothers' group is really describing the behaviour of girls under the supervision of women and the fathers' group is mainly describing the behaviour of boys under the supervision of men. Such situations might be relatively rare in the west, making direct comparisons of views difficult. It is also noteworthy that such environments can combine with the strong social stigma of homosexuality to result in extreme positions regarding suitable gendered behaviour, so that any effeminate displays from boys would be strictly reprimanded and, to a lesser extent, so too would masculine behaviour from girls. In this context, even a boy who prefers to play with girls might provoke disapproval.

5.7 Parental Perspective from Other Muslim Countries

According to the findings from the literature and evidences obtained from the cross cultural studies, it has been found that socially acceptable behaviour in other Muslim countries also confirm the findings of this study. Perspective about the socially acceptable behaviour of the parents in countries like Iran, Iraq, Turkey, Oman and Pakistan is similar to what has been found through this research. Parent's perspective towards behaviour of children is highly influenced by the cultural and traditional norms of the society. For example, the cultural and traditional norms of Muslim countries are influenced from Islamic law that displays significant difference between the behavioural expectations from men and women. Similarly parents also have different behavioural expectations from their sons and daughters. The results of this study explain that parents have different expectations and reactions towards the aggressive behaviour of children. For example, parents, who are more educated, are likely to be affected by the aggressive behaviour of their children. However, the parents, who are less educated, display lack of concern towards aggressive behaviour of their children. This could be in line with the current findings about the social change in Saudi Arabia. Social change leads to more educated individuals in the society, who are concerned about the social and individual behaviour of their children. This finding of the study is similar to the finding of Durlak, Weissberg and Pachan (2010) that education has significant impact on parental expectations. Also there is a difference between the parenting styles of more educated and less educated parents.

However, one significant difference that is found in this study is that educated parents are more liberal towards the behaviour of children. However, this finding of the study contradicts with the finding of Semke et al, (2010) that informs that more educated parents are more concerned towards the socially acceptable and unacceptable behaviour of their children. Educated parents are less liberal and more concerned towards their children's behaviour. Parents also displayed different child rearing styles that inform about the expectations about the socially acceptable behaviour of their children. However, it can be said that educated parents are liberal towards their children's participation in various recreational activities and allow them to indulge in various social interactions (Nourani, 1999). Parents in the earlier studies have been found to be equally concerned about the socially acceptable and unacceptable behaviour of their children (such as evidence from Iran, Turkey and Pakistan) (Semke et al, 2010; (Hameed-ur-Rehman and Sadruddin, 2012; Kagitcibasi, 2013).

Another finding of this study that also confirms the evidences from the literature is that parents in Muslim countries expect their children to be more obedient, responsible, less

demanding and caring. The findings from study inform that parents expect their children to be responsible and children involving in violent behaviour are unacceptable. Similar finding have been made by the other cross cultural studies that indicate that violent behaviour displayed by children is significantly unacceptable. Findings of this study inform that mothers have similar expectations from the behaviour of their girls and boys. However, the earlier studies have found that parents have different expectations from their girls and boys. Girls are expected to be more obedient, responsible and self-resilient, while boys can be expected to be disobedient, argumentative and irresponsible (Ghorbani et al, 2004). However, the new findings suggest that parents have similar perspective towards the behaviour of their boys and girls. This could be due to the social change and increasing awareness among the people in the Saudi Arabian society. However, earlier studies from different Islamic countries have shown that sexual segregation is very high among the Muslim countries. Girls are expected to be more obedient and responsible in comparison to boys. Father and mothers participated in this study have displayed similar expectations regarding the unacceptable and acceptable social behaviour of children. Aggressive behaviour displayed by boys and girls are similarly seen to be unacceptable for children, even if such behaviour is displayed by boys or girls.

However, another finding that is consistent with the earlier evidences from literature is that parents in Islamic countries are more likely to display authoritarian parenting style, which is very controlling and very demanding as well. However, such parents are responsive towards the needs of the children, yet the impact of culture and religion is very high on parenting styles. Literature discussed the socioeconomic status of the parents and how it affects their expectations about socially acceptable and unacceptable behaviour of their children. It was found in his study that mother often ignore the misbehaviour of children and expect that children will outgrow this undesirable behaviour, however no such finding was made in the earlier studies. Evidence from literature has frequently focused on the socioeconomic status of the parents, and shown that parents with low socio-economic status are likely to ignore the misbehaviour of their children and do not display any concern towards socially acceptable or unacceptable behaviour of their children.

However, from the cross cultural study from UAE it has been found that economic and social advancement in the Islamic society has resulted in many significant social changes. These social changes have also affected the perspective and expectations of the parents towards their children. One significant change is that parents are more liberal and less authoritative in parenting in UAE, when the children are below the age of puberty (Novaes, and Ali, 2014).

In UAE parents display authoritative parenting style, only when children are grown up, while during early childhood parents are more affectionate and tender towards children. Also the findings of this study suggests that fathers are more concerned about the behaviour of boys and talk more about their sons, while parents in UAE are equally concerned about their boys and girls regarding their socially acceptable or unacceptable behaviour. One important finding that has been made in this study is about 'obedience'. Parents are concerned about the obedience of children and for them obedience is the most significant part of socially acceptable behaviour. This finding also supports the findings of various studies (Kagitcibasi, 2013; Novaes, and Ali, 2014; Abdi, 2010) that stated obedience to be a significant part of socially acceptable behaviour and parents expect their children to be obedient towards them and elders.

Parents with more children are found to be less concerned about the problem behaviour of their children, because they see other children doing same and it no longer remains strange for them. However, earlier studies from other Islamic nations have found that socio-economic status of the parents is significant in understanding the concern of parents towards their children's behaviour. Evidences from literature displayed those children from the families with low socio-economic status show lower socially adaptive behaviour, while children from families with higher socio-economic status are likely to display better socially adaptive behaviour (Semke et al, 2010). Another finding that contradicts with the finding of earlier studies is that highly educated parents with higher socio-economic background are less concerned towards their children. This contradiction shows that more significant and empirical research is required in future for developing an in-depth analysis about the socio-economic background of the parents and their expectations related to socially acceptable and unacceptable behaviour from their children in contemporary society.

One major aspect of parenting in the Islamic nations is to display authoritarian parenting to control the behaviour of children. Though, Muslims living in Western countries have adopted the Western parenting styles, where authoritarian parenting is associated with academic success of children, while in Islamic nations authoritarian parenting is associated with well-being of children. This means that parents are controlling and demanding, because they want their children to display good social behaviour that can further improve their well-being, while parents living in western countries are more likely to be controlling in order to improve academic success of their children. The findings of this study suggest that parent use such controlling and restrictive parenting style in order to improve well-being of their children and

socially acceptable behaviour is less associated with academic success. This finding is similar to findings of Nourani (1999), and Dwairy and Menshar, (2006).

Literature also suggests that parental responsiveness and demandingness is also associated with emotional response of children and also influences their social behaviour. Emotional and social behaviour of the children is influenced by the environment they receive at home and their parent's behaviour towards them. For example, it was found that less responsive parents and more authoritative parents have children with more behaviour problems (Greenspan, 2006), also this study found that authoritative and harsh behaviour of parents increase behavioural problems among children. One of the study also suggested that authoritative parents have better connection with their children and their children are likely to display more obedience in comparison to children from other families (Dwairy et al, 2006). However, there is a significant difference between the perspective of father and mother towards their expectations from their children's behaviour. However, it has been found that there is a significant gap in literature regarding the parenting styles of Muslim parents from different Islamic countries and the impact of their parenting on behaviour of children.

5.8 Teacher's Perspective from Other Muslim Countries

The earlier cross-cultural studies and evidences from other Islamic nations have shown a significant difference between the perspectives of parents and teachers towards socially acceptable behaviour of children. The evidences from literature have shown that parents appreciate, when their children are internalised. Teacher expects children to display their feelings and communicate their problems. Though, parents believe that their children must not be externalised and should be more concerned about the feelings of others than their personal feelings. However, aggressive behaviour displayed by children is considered to unacceptable social behaviour by both parents and teachers. Parents expect their children to be quiet and calm, while teachers expect children to be outgoing and they need children to speak, when they are wronged (Verschueren and Koomen, 2012). However, findings of this research suggest that outgoing behaviour among children is equally unacceptable for parents as well as for teachers. Outgoing behaviour among children is seen as aggressive behaviour, which is considered as socially unacceptable behaviour.

The findings of this study states that teachers believe that social and emotional environment that children receive at homes or schools affect their social behaviour, which supports the findings of the earlier studies that confirm the same. Another finding made in this research is

that teachers give significant important to the behaviour that includes 'taking orders' and 'following instructions'. The study of Iranian parents and teachers conducted by Nourani (1999) found that 'taking orders' and 'following instructions' are the significant part of socially acceptable behaviour among children. Following instructions was also considered as an important social skill. Therefore, this research confirms the finding of Nourani (1999). Evidences from the study of Mohamed, (2017) displayed that negative home environment of children affect their social behaviour at schools and teachers believe that negative environment at home affects the behaviour of children at schools. Current findings also suggest that teachers in Saudi Arabia believe that behaviour of children in schools is influenced by the environment they receive at homes.

Social and behaviour expectations of teachers are different from parents and this has been proved by the earlier researches and also by this research as well. Sharing has been considered as a socially acceptable behavioural skill among the preschool children (Avan, Rahbar, and Raza, 2007). Sharing and helping others is considered as a significant part of Islamic culture. Therefore, parents and teachers both expect children to share things with others. Current findings also suggest the similar perspective, as teachers consider sharing things to be a good behaviour. The earlier findings related to exploring the perspective of teachers, have also suggested some of the themes associated with gender segregation in schools. It was found that teachers are more inclined towards girls in comparison to boys in the class. Also, teachers expect boys to be more disobedient in comparison to girls. However, findings of this research suggest no such theme. Also, it finds that teachers have similar expectations regarding socially acceptable and unacceptable behaviour from both boys and girls in the class rooms. However, one significant approach that has confirms the earlier findings of Kaur, and Noman, (2015) and Verschueren and Koomen, (2012) is that perspective of the teachers is influenced by the religious and cultural background. Islamic nations mainly promote a collectivist culture, in which individuals are considered as the part of whole group rather than being seen as individual. Their behaviour is expected to influence others as well and therefore, they are required to behave in such a manner that others are not negatively affected by them. Current approaches from this research also establish similar findings, as teachers are found to be concerned about the socially unacceptable behaviour of children that negatively affects behaviour of other children.

Some of the themes identified in early studies related to developing autonomy and promoting motivation among children are considered as important skills that teachers consider as important to be taught to children. Autonomy is considered as significant as a skill that is

often suppressed by the parents in Islamic culture, while considered as significant for teachers, as teachers want children to display their autonomy for enhancing their academic success. However, future research can focus on such themes and their impact on socially acceptable and unacceptable behaviour among pre-school children. One important aspect of social behaviour that teachers in this study have found to be important is the ability of the children to socialise. Earlier studies have also shown that teachers expect children to develop social interaction skills and to develop between interactions with peers. Socialising is also associated with cooperative behaviour in the class-rooms that teachers consider to be significant (as found in Iranian studies). Studies have found that on the pre-school level socialisation and peer interaction activities can significantly contribute to better class management and important for developing positive social skills for future. However, peer interaction is considered to be less significant for parents, as they mainly, as they give more significance to adult-child social interactions. However, teachers believe that peer interactions skills are significant for developing socially acceptable behaviour. Current findings also suggest that teachers want to develop positive peer interaction skills among children.

The issue associated with gender segregation is found in this research. But, this issue is not identified in the perspective of teachers, as suggested by earlier studies of Verschueren and Koomen, (2012) and study of Mohamed (2017) that explains gender issues in pre-schools of Oman. These studies have shown that teachers make better connections and positive relationships with females in the class rooms and this gender disparity affects social behaviour of children. However, findings from this research explained that gender segregation is seen in the perspective of parents and not teachers. This is because parents often restrict their children to play with opposite gender, because their perspective is highly influenced by the religious and cultural values in Saudi Arabia. Teachers have found gender segregation to affect behaviour of children, as some boys want to play with only boys and some girls play only with girls. Future research must focus on changing perspective of parents and teachers towards gender segregation.

5.9 Conclusions

Discussion of the findings in this chapter has reflected overall concerns in Saudi society as it struggles to integrate with the modern western world. Relaxed rules and moves towards progressive parenting are becoming widespread, but at the same time concerns that children

will take liberties with these new freedoms are prompting a backlash and a return to authoritarian views. This can be most readily seen in attitudes to online games, which are blamed for disobedience, apathy, defiance, poorer nutrition and worsening sleep habits. Likewise, the strategies of positive parenting strategies are becoming better-known, but is not underpinned by any significant awareness of concepts such as children's rights. One key consequence of this is inconsistency, not just between mothers and fathers or in how boys and girls are expected to behave, but also in how different behaviours are conceptualised and treated. While some shyness, lying and aggression are tacitly permitted and assumed that children will grow out of it, similar aggressive behaviour can be met with aggression from parents.

Teachers are similarly struggling to find a consistent approach, in part because the school system is changing around them and in part because their training is seeking to integrate values from the UK which do not entirely reflect the behaviour challenges in Saudi schools. Factors such as segregation within the system, coupled with much higher levels of funding than in the UK, have so far insulated teachers in Saudi Arabia from many of the behaviour challenges faced elsewhere. Teachers are therefore focused far more on annoying or mildly disruptive behaviours, and are not dealing with more serious issues of defiance or persistent low-level disruption.

In addition to the different cultural context, a lack of lexical flexibility in Arabic has made it difficult to map concepts across from the English system. Misbehaviour does not appear to be held as a consistent entity, consisting instead of a subset of behaviours which are more accurately translated as annoying, disruptive, mischievous or even just childish. The research literature on children's behaviour in a Saudi Arabian context is therefore sufficiently under-developed that quantitative studies will remain difficult until more in-depth exploratory qualitative research is able to draw out these tacit meanings and articulate a concept of behaviour which better captures the essence of what parents and teachers mean by misbehaviour.

Despite this persisting need for future research, this study is still able to offer some helpful conclusions. First, the behaviours causing concern in these focus groups would be of little concern to western parents and teachers: the children discussed in this study were very well behaved by any modern liberal standards. The dominance of the authoritarian view within an

authoritarian society means that any behaviour which is disrupting or disrespectful is treated very seriously as disobedience, which would seem an overly-strict reaction to observers outside of Saudi Arabia. One key exception to this is physically aggressive behaviour, which appeared to be more tolerated than it would be in the UK. Here there may be a common explanation for both the trend and the exception in that the concept of children's rights is still very underdeveloped in Saudi Arabia, so theft from peers or physically hurting other children is not seen to be as serious a transgression as showing disrespect to a teacher or parent.

Second, there is no single definition of misbehaviour suitable for a Saudi context, nor does there seem to be a suitable translation into English. The table, below, attempts to summarise the views of parents and teachers into the language of tolerance, disturbance and disobedience to show how parents and teachers appeared to conceptualise a range of behaviour displays.

Table 53 Summary of key results

Determinant Factors	Tolerance	Disturbance	Disobedience
Aggression: mothers' group	No	Neutral	Neutral
Aggression: fathers' group	Yes, for boys	No	No, for boys
Aggression: teachers' group	No	No	Yes
Shyness: mothers' group	Yes	n/a	No
Shyness: fathers' group	Yes, for girls	n/a	Yes, for boys
Shyness: teachers' group	Yes	n/a	Yes

It can be seen from the table, for example, that shyness was tolerated for all children by the mothers and teachers, but only for girls by fathers. The table further offers an explanation for this, with shyness being seen by fathers as a form of disobedience when performed by boys.

Third, whilst not explicitly discussed, parents seemed anxious of how other parents viewed their parenting. There was a desire from mothers and teachers to be modern, but constant wariness to avoid being seen as too liberal – perhaps in the fear that this would be interpreted as disrespectful of a father's views. Similarly, the fathers' focus group firmly expressed gender-typical responses and strong authoritarian views which might not have been expressed

so strongly in private, as implied by the responses to the questionnaire which showed far more agreement with the mothers' responses than was expressed in the focus group discussions.

Fourth, behaviour problems within a Saudi context seem to be more defined by embarrassing or annoying behaviour rather than on any moral judgement or a response to the harm caused by any particular action. This definition allows a very strict response to making noise in public while comparatively being ambivalent towards physically harming other children.

Finally, modernisation is having a dynamic impact on social attitudes, meaning that this research is occurring during a highly fluid period of social change. This had revealed fascinating insights into how teachers and parents are responding not only to new behaviour expectations, but also to Saudi children who are starting to experiment with the world of online games and personal rights. Modernising forces are running in tandem with a backlash seeking to reinforce traditional values, so while there are clear trends of males and older parents being more traditional, there are also exceptions of young parents taking a reactionary stance and adopting strictly authoritarian views as a form of safeguarding traditional values. The very notion of socially acceptable behaviour seems to assume the strictest interpretation, leading to strong anxiety regarding social embarrassment. However, if views continue this overall trend towards more permissive values, potential for this embarrassment will presumably also decrease. Teacher training is also having a clear influence on this debate, with a much greater plurality of views than ever before as teacher training is far more diverse than ever before.

Overall, this study has shown how behaviour is conceptualised differently depending on parents' and teachers' values, including how they interpret the values of those around them in terms of what is embarrassing behaviour. This has included how such conceptualisations are in a state of change which reflects changes in Saudi society more generally. Of particular interest is how these concepts are being developed within Saudi Arabia and are not being imported wholesale. As Saudi Arabia attempts to understand which aspects of the UK and US education systems it wishes to emulate, it will become vital that Saudis are able to better articulate their understanding of behaviour since the direct equivalents between Arabic and English have been found insufficient in this study.

5.10 Researcher reflexivity

When interpreting the data, there was a strong desire to remain as neutral and objective as possible. For example, predetermined timings were used for each question to try avoiding spending disproportionate time on questions interesting to the researcher. Nevertheless, working through transcripts to select the most illuminating examples is a subjective judgement. Further, the limitations of expressing Arabic concepts in English demonstrates how the process of translation and explaining these responses is as much an act of generating data as it is one of creating data. As the key conclusions from this chapter are taken forward into more general conclusions in the next chapter, it is therefore prudent to highlight a personal response to the conclusions at this tentative stage.

Firstly, the researcher believes that behaviour needs to be addressed at an early age to avoid problems in adolescence and adulthood. This value needed to be set aside during focus group discussions which described a preference for ignoring some behaviour which children would be assumed to outgrow as they aged. Similarly, the focus groups did not give much consideration to lying being a demand for attention, or indeed that such demands could be most suitably met with positive parenting strategies. Overall, the focus groups favoured less positive parenting strategies than the researcher. Care was taken to not introduce topics such as praise or reward cards, but it soon became apparent that such techniques were simply not used by these parents or even in the classrooms – a surprising finding given how prevalent reward systems are in UK schools.

Another source of disagreement was gendered behaviour. This seemed to be taken for granted as a value among all three focus groups, and in particular the fathers' focus group. Rather than seeing shyness as feminine or aggression as masculine, the researcher would prefer to emphasise the need for all children to develop social skills and the ability to self-regulate their emotions. Similarly, the prohibitions on mixed-gender play seemed too old-fashioned, so care was needed to avoid giving any impression to the focus groups of disapproval. Parents' responses to fear behaviours seemed particularly worrying from this perspective, where the researcher would prefer reassurance behaviours or attempts to understand a child's fears.

Finally, parents and teachers seemed resentful of technology and games because they encouraged defiance or slovenly behaviour. These appeared to be valid concerns, but also seemed to be based on anxiety about the modern world just as much as they were in concerns over children's behaviour. It was therefore critical that analysis faithfully represented these views and was not unfairly critical.

Having outlined these personal views and assumptions, it is hoped that the efforts to maintain objectivity in analysis can be appreciated in this new context. Taken together with the literature review, it is also anticipated that this brief section will helpfully contextualise how the evidence and literature have combined to challenge the researcher's own views and reach the more generalisable conclusions outlined in the following chapter.

Chapter 6   Conclusion

6.1   Chapter introduction

This research aims to advance the concept of socially acceptable and unacceptable behaviours in the context of Saudi Arabia. By nature the term 'socially acceptable behaviour' depicts the behaviour which is considered acceptable in line with social norms. Since social norms are dependent on culture, which varies from country to country, the concept of socially acceptable behaviour is also likely to vary accordingly. At the same time having a consistent view of socially unacceptable behaviour is critical because unless such behaviours are viewed a socially unacceptable consistently by all the relevant parties, it will send misleading signals to the children which might lead to confusion which might affect our ability to manage such behaviour among pre-school children. With different perspectives the parties involved may tackle such behaviours differently; for example, teachers may look to control particular kinds of socially unacceptable behaviour while parents may be allowing it, considering it socially acceptable. This research was thus aimed at developing a consistent perspective of what constitutes socially unacceptable behaviour in Saudi Arabia.

This research particularly looked at how teachers and parents perceive socially unacceptable behaviour among pre-school children and furthermore, it looks at how these perceptions differ among groups. To achieve this, this research was conducted in two stages. In the first stage the researcher attempted to identify the difference between teachers' and parents' perception of socially unacceptable behaviour among Saudi pre-school children. In the second stage the researcher conducted a more in-depth study to identify the reason behind the difference in perceptions and also the consequences of difference in perceptions.

This research is significantly different for past research projects which have looked at behavioural problems from scientific and general perspectives. This research looks at the behavioural problems from a social perspective i.e. socially unacceptable behaviours. This is somewhat different from behavioural problems in that in some cultures some of the behaviours, generally considered problematic under behavioural problem perspective, may not be considered problematic while some other behaviours, which are not considered

problematic under behavioural problems, may be considered problematic under socially unacceptable behaviour perspective. This highlights the differences created by socio-cultural differences between different societies.

This research used contextual cases of pre-school children studying in the Saudi Arabian city of Riyadh. Saudi Arabian culture is built around a stricter version of Shariah principles. This also affects parents' and teachers' perception of socially unacceptable behaviour, as was found in this research. This research was therefore conducted with three groups of participants. The first and second group of participants included the parents, subdivided in two groups; fathers and mothers due to cultural segregation. The reason for subdivision of the parents group was to investigate whether the differences exist only between parents and teachers and parents' groups or within the parent groups as well. The third group was that of the teachers teaching in the pre-schools included in this research.

This investigation was conducted in several stages. Firstly, a critical review of the existing literature was carried out and different kinds of socially unacceptable behaviours among pre-school children were identified. Following this a pilot study was carried out to obtain the opinion of experts on whether the questionnaire was adequately worded. Subsequently the perspectives of teachers and parents were obtained using questionnaire survey. Finally, three focus groups were conducted to investigate the findings of questionnaire survey in more detail.

This chapter summarises the key aspects of this research. In particular it looks at the findings and contributions of this research, its limitations as well as suggestions at how this research can be further expanded.

6.2   Summary of research

This research aimed at investigating the difference in teachers' and parents' perceptions of socially unacceptable behaviour in Saudi pre-school children and explored the following questions:

- Does any difference exist in how teachers and parents perceive pre-school children's behaviour as socially acceptable or unacceptable? Past research lack several aspects

in this regard and have not looked at socially unacceptable behaviour issues in Saudi Arabia. Saudi Arabia is culturally very distinct from the countries where most of the past research on socially acceptable behaviour has been conducted and this affects social acceptability of behaviours. Hence social acceptability of certain behaviours may differ significantly in Saudi Arabia from that in other countries. In this respect it is essential to conduct this research in context of Saudi Arabia.

- What kind of differences exist in teachers', fathers' and mothers' perceptions of socially acceptable behaviour? Merely identifying whether differences exist in teachers', fathers' and mothers' perceptions of socially acceptable behaviour is not enough. This research looks at what kind of differences exists in their perceptions. These will help us in understanding how to best tackle the issues- for example, the shortfalls in teachers' perception can be tackled through policy making and education as most of the teachers have to obtained some kind of qualification in order to work with young children. On the other hand, issues identified in perception of fathers and mother can be tackled through counselling and awareness raising measures.

- Is there any gender based bias in teachers', fathers' and mothers' perception of socially acceptable behaviour? One of the key aspects that differentiates Saudi society from most other societies is the high degree of gender segregation. Thus, it is worthwhile to investigate whether this gender segregation is evident in the perception of socially unacceptable behaviours. Specifically speaking, this research investigates whether there is difference in teachers', fathers' and mothers' perception of socially acceptable behaviour for pre-school boys and girls.

- How does difference in teachers', fathers' and mothers' perception of socially acceptable behaviour affects their occurrence? Finally, this research aggregates the learning for this research and looks specifically at how pre-school boys' and girls' behaviour and behavioural development is affected by the difference in teachers', fathers' and mothers' perceptions of socially acceptable behaviour. This is essential to understand the consequences of neglecting the issue and also helps in identifying specific ways of addressing the problem. In this respect this research concludes with understanding the problem itself and this is likely to help in extending this research in order to identify specific measures to tackle the issue.

This thesis comprised six chapters. The first chapter provides an overview of the research problem and provided the reasoning as to why it is essential to investigate this phenomenon. It was clarified that most of the past research has provided a limited insight into the differences in teachers', fathers' and mothers' perception of socially acceptable behaviour among pre-school children and how it affects the issue of socially unacceptable behaviour. This thesis aimed at looking at the specific differences in perceptions of these groups of individuals and consequently contributes to developing specific measures towards developing consistent perception of socially unacceptable behaviour. Chapter 1 also contained the aim and objectives of this research along with the research questions that this study aims to answer.

Chapter 2 presented a literature review on the subject of socially unacceptable behaviour. This chapter discusses the theoretical underpinnings, with special focus on Vygotsky's theory of socio cultural behaviour development. The focus of the rest of the literature review is on socially acceptable behaviours, how such behaviours are developed and what are the factors that affect development of socially acceptable and unacceptable behaviours.

Chapter 3 presented an overview of the research methodology and data collection procedures adopted. This research was completed in stages. The first stage began with an extensive literature review which helped the researcher in identifying research gaps and in developing the initial questionnaire. The second stage involved refining of the questionnaire through pilot survey, with the third stage involving questionnaire surveys with parents and teachers. Finally, the fourth stage involved collection of data through focus group interviews with fathers, mothers and teachers. This chapter presented details of how the questionnaire was designed and developed. Focus groups were aimed at obtaining greater insight into the findings of the questionnaire survey and to identify the possible causes behind difference in perceptions of fathers, mothers and teachers. This chapter discussed the benefits of using pragmatist philosophy and mixed methods for this research. Data collection procedures, sampling and limitations of data collection methods were discussed in detail. In addition, validity and reliability of the data collection methods adopted in this research were discussed.

Chapter 4 presented findings of the data analysis and was divided in two parts. The first part presented the statistical analysis of the questionnaire data and a brief discussion was provided. Section two of this chapter presented analysis of the focus group data which were

analysed according to the possible socially unacceptable behaviours. This research finds that all while teachers and parents' perception is similar for most kind of socially unacceptable behaviours there are certain kinds of behaviour where their perceptions are different. Furthermore, differences were also identified within groups such as between individuals belonging to different age groups.

6.3 Key findings

This research finds that lying is one of the most commonly perceived socially unacceptable behaviour among children. Both parents and teachers group exhibited strong perceptions of lying behaviour as being strictly socially unacceptable. Focus group interviews reveal that because lying is considered forbidden in Islam, it is one of the aspects that all of the participants considered socially unacceptable. Surprisingly, individuals with higher degree of knowledge and experience seem to be less concerned about lying behaviour. Focus groups reveal that certain individuals see such behaviour as rational in the sense that child feels threatened of the consequences and consequently they tend to lie. Thus, they hold adults responsible for lying behaviour in that instead of appreciating child's act of taking responsibility they tend to punish children after learning of their mistakes and this leads to lying behaviour in children. In this respect, it seems that even within the same groups, people with certain level of knowledge and experience tend to adopt a more rational and logical view of socially unacceptable behaviour.

Mothers and teachers considered aggressive behaviours as completely unacceptable while fathers exhibited some degree of bias in their perception of aggressive behaviour being socially unacceptable. According to some of the fathers, boys are expected to be brave and strong as they are expected to be breadwinners; hence, there should be some degree of aggressive behaviour in boys. On the other hand, they suggested that girls should not exhibit aggressive behaviour because they are expected to be shy and calm. These views very much represent the current perspectives of the role of males and females in Saudi society. Mothers, on the other hand, did not exhibit such bias. According to mothers, aggressive behaviour is unacceptable for both pre-school boys and girls. Parents with higher number of children tend to be less concerned about aggressive behaviour as compared to those with fewer children. This may be so because they view it in relation with their siblings which means that they tend to be more accommodating of aggressive behaviour unless only one of the siblings exhibit such behaviour while others do not. Results indicate that teachers are mildly concerned about

aggressive behaviour and tend to report it more frequently. Such reporting could be because of the procedural requirements whereby they need to take notice of such incidents and put it on record to discuss with relevant parties.

In terms of aggression mothers seem more concerned about aggression at school than aggression at home. This could be because of the fear that aggressive behaviour among friends at school may result in something more damaging as compared to aggression at home. Furthermore, aggression at home is mostly related to relational aggression, while that at school is mainly physical aggression, as is evident from parents' views. In this respect, mothers seem more concerned about physical aggression than behavioural aggression, while fathers and teachers seem opposed to both. Furthermore, parents seemed to be more worried about the context which the aggressive behaviour is taking place; for example, they are concerned that sometimes children's behaviour may cause embarrassment. This means that people's consideration of a behaviour being socially acceptable also depends on peoples' social consequences of that behaviour. This may be the reason why aggressive behaviour at home may be more tolerable because it happens within home and does not cause social embarrassment.

Mothers may be more liberal in permitting some aggressive behaviour, as compared to fathers, which highlights the cultural norms of Saudi society in which males are generally setters of rules and are considered disciplinarians. Mothers in Saudi society are considered and expected to be caring and accommodative. This is evident in their responses to what kind of aggressive behaviours are socially unacceptable. Furthermore, fathers tend to spend lesser time with children and hence any kind of aggressive behaviour seems too excessive as compared to mothers who spend a lot of time with children and can see the balance between aggressive and calm behaviours.

Nevertheless, fathers seem to be gender biased as they took more liberal view of aggressive behaviour in boys as compared to aggressive behaviour in girls, with some fathers going to the extent to state that aggression may be an essential trait for boys. Teachers also seem to be somewhat permissive of certain kind of behaviours which they attributed to having excess energy and playful nature of children. However, they considered causing disruption as the most disturbing consequence of aggressive behaviour.

A high proportion of the participants agreed that children are slowly losing their socialisation skills as more and more children tend to play video games and to be on mobile phones instead of playing with friends. Isolationism is one of the key concerns for most parents. This could be partly because of the parents own experiences as a child which involved lot of physical activity and sports with friends when mobile phones and computers were not common. Also, there were growing concerns about poor physical health, with obesity becoming quite common in Saudi Arabia especially among youngsters. Parents realising that one of the key contributors to this rising problem is the lack of physical activity could be growing more concerned towards this issue. This is also understandable because parents also expressed concerns about unhealthy eating habits in children. This shows that the concerns are mainly related to habits that may lead to poor health. Most of the parents'desires for their children to live a healthy and active lifestyle and behaviours, which prevent them from doing so, are considered undesirable.

Parents reported more cases of fear as compared to teachers and both groups suggested that fear is moderately socially unacceptable. This could be because pre-school children are quite young and still learning about many things around them. It is quite natural for someone in such a developmental stage to exhibit some fearful behaviour. Furthermore, parents spend more time with children, especially at night when most children express such behaviour. On the other hand, teachers spend time when there are a lot of children around and when children mainly engage in playing activities. It is likely that children do not experience things that lead to feelings of fear in school. There was also some degree of gender bias in perception of fear as socially unacceptable behaviour with a high proportion of fathers suggesting that while they may accept feelings of fear in girls, but they do not consider its socially acceptable in boys. This, once again, is to do with masculine culture of Saudi Arabia where there are clearly gender marked roles with males taking care of all the responsibilities outside the house while females mainly fulfilling the roles inside the house. Amidst such a cultural environment expectations of boys is to be bold and have an aggressive nature, ready to take on the challenges of the outside world while expectations of girls is to be of caring and nurturing nature. This is evident in the responses of fathers.

Due to Saudi culture there are hardly instances of children interacting with strangers. In fact, many parents even advise their children to not to talk to the strangers. Consequently fear of strangers is accepted as a norm and even promoted. This is especially the case for girls which

are advised to stay completely away for strangers except for those they meet in the family environment. In this respect is can be said that Saudi culture promotes the feelings of fear, especially among girls. This highlights the high uncertainty avoidance aspect of Saudi culture which means Saudi people tend to avoid any kind of uncertain situations.

Broadly speaking parents with more than one child seem to be less concerned about socially unacceptable behaviours as compared to parents with single child. This could be for several reasons. Firstly, it could be that parents get used to certain kind of behaviour with one child and hence the same behaviour in the other child does not concern them much. Secondly, much such behaviouroccurs among children and parents tend to ignore much such behaviour as playful acts. In comparison of parents and teachers there are certainly categories of behaviour which concerns one group more than other. For example, disruption is considered as socially unacceptable by teachers more than by parents. On the other hand, teachers are more concerned of children's fear of strangers as compared to parents.

There are several reasons why teachers' and parents' perspective of socially unacceptable behaviour might differ. Firstly, the nature of relationship that teachers have with children is different from the nature of relationship between parents and their children. While teachers are instructors who are more concerned about skill development of students, parents are generally concerned about general growing up of children who may or may not include their technical learning. In other words, teachers may be more concerned about development of technical skills of students such as their subject knowledge while parents may be more concerned about physical and emotional development of their child. Secondly, teachers observe children in a controlled school environment while parents observe students in a more relaxed home environment. It is possible the behaviour of the children may vary according to the environment- for example, some children may feel fear of threat of punishment in the controlled environment and consequently may behave differently in school environment as compared to home where they may not feel such threat. Thirdly, parents may take a more liberal view of the behaviour of their children as they may expect them to outgrow such behaviour with time. Teachers, on the other hand, spend only a limited time with the children and may adopt a more restricted view of such behaviour. In this respect the difference is in the perspective of the teachers and parents rather than in the behaviour of the children. Fourthly, teachers observe children in a setting where there are many unrelated children interacting with each other. They may thus have a more professional and neutral perspective

towards socially unacceptable behaviour. On the other hand, parents encounter children's behaviour in home environment where children are interacting either with no one or with their siblings only. This may also affect their perception of the observed behaviour.

6.4   Key contributions

What has been learnt from this thesis extends beyond the existing research in that it looks at the issue of behavioural problems from a social perspective. In other words, it acknowledges that behavioural problems may be seen differently in different countries due to different socio-cultural context. This is the reason why it is essential for us to look at socially acceptable and unacceptable behaviours and develop strategies to deal with these instead of looking at behavioural issues from purely scientific perspective. This research raises this issue and looks at what constitutes socially unacceptable behaviour and how perception of different groups of individuals differs over this issue.

This research is the first such kind of research conducted in context of Saudi Arabia where the culture is based on strict interpretation of Shariah principles. Consequently, the social acceptability of certain behaviours may be completely different in Saudi Arabia than the rest of the world. For example, girls talking to unrelated boys will be considered socially unacceptable in Saudi Arabia, but not in other parts of the world. Such gender bias is evident in many other aspects of life in Saudi Arabia and this is likely to affect people's perception of socially unacceptable behaviour for boys and girls. This research looks at how the socio-cultural background of a country affects peoples' perception of socially unacceptable behaviour, using Saudi Arabia as a case study.

This research looks at comparing the perception of different groups of individuals. If any differences exist in perception of different groups of individuals it is likely to have a detrimental effect on our ability to tackle such behaviours. Learning about such differences is likely to help us in developing strategies to tackle such behaviours. This will help policy makers in developing policies to manage such behaviours through a range of policies such as education and counselling.

At the practical level there is no code of practice, policy, curriculum or official documents to give teachers guidelines on how to classify, measure and evaluate socially acceptable and unacceptable behaviour in Saudi Arabia. Moreover, there is lack of training programmes for teachers in regard to socially acceptable and unacceptable child behaviour. In addition, there is no parent support programme in relation to socially acceptable and unacceptable child behaviour in Saudi Arabia.

Capturing the fathers' voice in Saudi Arabia is of huge importance for any measures towards child development programmes. Previous research focused on diverse issues such as behavioural problems based on cultural authority, procedures and efficient routines, leaving a huge gap where the fathers' perceptions were ignored. Again, this omission partially comes as a result of the Saudi cultural influence and the role of the mother and father in the family. Parenting in Saudi Arabia accepts the role of the mother as being entirely responsible for the child's development and learning behaviour. The mothers' focus group, however, revealed desires to explore new ways to teach their children in favour of success even if at the expense of cultural norms. What is new is that mothers' consciousness is relentless to cultural perception of children behaviours. Moreover, the findings about statements linked to shyness and lying behaviours in the presence of alternatives are less recognised. One important aspect is that this study confirms that parents are aware of the fact that some children's actions are exaggerated in the context of both the facts and the culture. It emphasises that even children's behaviours relating to serious issues such as, aggression, is a reflection of the child's dynamics of growing up(Dodge, 2006). Other parts of the findings explain the primary reasons that Saudi culture influences parents' and teachers' perceptions.

In light of all these, the researcher developed a new construct to bridge the gap between research efforts and the need for adapting the Saudi context to other studies about child behaviour. The research showed that the meaning of 'bad' in Arabic has stronger semantic and linguistic strength than in English where flexible semantics are appreciated. The literal translation of the word 'bad' causes confusion and misunderstanding (Jianzhong, 1998; Alanizi, 2008). In Arabic, some word rigidity is commonly acceptable and as a result of applying this construct, bad behaviour is synonymous with awkward and unacceptable behaviour as shown clearly in the literature review chapter. In the same way, cultural perception of bad is again strict towards labelling children with behavioural problems or bad behaviour (Jianzhong, 1998); Alanizi, 2008). The rigidity is associated with parents who

resist studies that label their children with the word 'bad'. The father's role is concerned with the decision-making where cultural norms have been breached. For example, fathers usually take their children with them to the mosque and children refusing to go may be considered as violating religious rules and being disobedient towards parents and, consequently, the society. Compared to other cultures, this sort of behaviour would be considered as the child practicing personal rights (Cheah and Rubin, 2004).Another part of this study's originality is the grounding of child behavioural theories in the Saudi context for the first time, in conjunction with external and internal views on awkward and unacceptable child behaviour. Finally, the study discovered that the amount of influence of culture on the perception of child behaviour is derived by gender on certain behaviours such as shyness and fear.

6.5 Implications of the Study

This study has far-reaching implications on understanding children's behaviour in Saudi Arabia. The study confirmed that children's social behaviours are influenced by parents' and teachers' perceptions. Key results were selected from the findings such as results from aggression where the mothers agree with teachers and disagree with the fathers.

This research indicates that the parents' and teachers' perceptions of Saudi pre-school children's awkward and socially unacceptable behaviours indirectly affects the children's social behaviours and recognises parents and teachers as the principal factors that impact on a pre-school child's social behaviours and learning. In reality, the collective evidence developed from the quantitative and qualitative results of pre-school children from parents' and teachers' perceptions have shown to be in agreement. For example, parents and teachers agreed on behaviours such as, assaults on peers by hitting, biting or pulling hair, avoiding dealing with strangers and pretending that they are oppressed as unacceptable behaviour. This example reveals cultural vulnerability in regards to physical aggression. However, there are differences from the quantitative study. The qualitative study focus group questions noted the child gender issue in order to track parental perceptions of gender dependencies (see Appendix 1 and Chapter 5 Results, section. The qualitative study):fathers believe shyness is acceptable for girls and bad behaviour for boys, since shyness in boys is socially unacceptable as a result of strong cultural influence. This phenomenon of strong and weak cultural influence extends clearly along the role of each of the focus groups. As a consequence, it is decisive to retain and promote regular reflections of parents and teachers and strengthen their agreement on the perceptions of socially acceptable and unacceptable

behaviour. This could be achieved through contact meetings of parent and teachers focus group in kindergartens for each new pre-school children intake.

Another finding this research observed is that attention should be given to the teachers' perceptions and commitment to awkward and socially unacceptable behaviours. Teachers' perceptions are critical, compared to that of the parents, where a teacher with negative perceptions or indecisiveness may influence many children over time, due to cultural authority. Teachers may need to establish comprehensible measures such as procedures and efficient routines to succeed in their efforts. While this is the case, parents may see some of these measures as overemphasising and disproportional towards their child.

Some of the key findings from the literature regarding the perspective of teachers and parents from other Islamic countries can also be significant for future research. There are various Islamic countrieswhich have focused on exploring the significance of socially acceptable and unacceptable behaviour among young children. Studies, that were discussed in Chapter 2, have identified a significant difference between the perspective of teachers and parents in different countries. Therefore, future researchcan look towards understanding the perspective of teachers and parents on similar grounds and developing an approach that could be significant according to contemporary social and economic changes in Saudi Arabian society. Though this research has found some agreement in the perspective of teachers and parents regarding socially acceptable and unacceptable behaviour of children, some themes regarding developing children's autonomy, changing perspective towards gender segregation, motivating for social interactions remain unexplored. Teachers and parents are required to work collaboratively to encourage such social skills among children that could be beneficial for their future interactions and socialisation. Different expectations ofteachers and parents from socially acceptable and unacceptable behaviour have been found in the cross-cultural studies and in the studies from other Islamic countries. Such implications can be used to develop a more comprehensive approach towards preparing children and developing socially acceptable skills, while they are still in pre-schools.

Earlier findings have also discussed the socio-economic and educational status of the parents and their effect on teacher's perspective towards children, such as children from educated parents receive better attention from teachers. Therefore, educational and socio-economic status of families is required to be explored in a more comprehensive manner, to understand that teachers can have different perspective about children from families. The educational background of the parents is likely to influence their parenting styles and that will further

influence social behaviour among children. Earlier studies have found that educated parents are more concerned about behaviour of their children, while this research found that educated parents are more liberal towards behaviour of children. Therefore, future research with current educational implications and new generations of parents can be helpful in understanding this gap.

It has also been found that there is a difference between the expectations of teachers and parents regarding academic achievement and well-being of children, including a focus of teachers towards socially acceptable behaviour of children being associated with their academic achievement, while parents focus on socially acceptable behaviour to be a significant part of developing child's personal well-being. Teachers and parents must work together to focus on academic achievements as well as personal well-being of children simultaneously in order to promote better socially acceptable behaviour among children. The problem of gender segregation is instilled in the culture of Saudi Arabia that influence the perspective of parents, as well as of teachers. Segregation can be removed with collaborative efforts of parents and teachers, as they can interact and work together to remove the problem of gender segregation. Earlier research has explained the impact of gender segregation on the perspective of teachers as well. Therefore, more focused researchon the problem of gender segregation can be significant.

Finally, Saudi society is working towards a balanced approach in fighting segregation and marginalisation and promoting a sense of belonging and well-being among citizens. Therefore, the research based on these findings recommends country-wide focus groups to debate wider society's perceptions of acceptable and unacceptable pre-school children's behaviours.

6.6   Limitations and reflections of the research

This research has some limitations and reflections which need to be considered in this section. Firstly, the data was collected from different schools in one city only. In Saudi Arabia culture varies even at regional level; for example, culture in Jeddah will be somewhat different for the culture in Riyadh city. This means the findings may be contextualised according to Riyadh city. However, the researcher does not expect the differences to be too significant and hence the findings are expected to be applicable to the whole of Saudi Arabia.

Secondly, due to the fear of embarrassment in front of other parents, some parents may have provided biased or inaccurate data. For example, parents may not be comfortable in speaking about socially unacceptable behaviour of their child in front of other parents. The researcher attempted to resolve this by asking questions in a general way and not asking for personal examples from their children. For example, parents may be more willing to provide honest response to the question: "do some children disobey their parents" but not to the question: "do your children disobey you?"

Thirdly, another limitation was the translation of the parents' and teachers' transcripts. When data has been collected in another language from the one that the project is reported this has its potential tensions. The data at places may appear as unnatural or unrealistic due to a dilemma that arose when the data were translated was shown earlier with the word "bad" and its meaning in Arabic and Saudi culture. For these reasons, a decision was made to retain the closer translation because the main objective was to focus on parents' and teachers' views and it would have been difficult and unethical to achieve this focus in any other way. In an earlier study by Okely (1994) it is suggested that researchers who report their findings in another language seek to look "beyond language" and advocates "a creative understanding using all the sense to approximate empathy" (p.54). Thus in this thesis whenever possible the authentic meaning of the translation was kept despite the fact that the quotes might read as unnatural and unrealistic.

Finally, in this thesis there was a deliberate decision not to explore a theoretical framework that the results would have analysed under these lenses. Having said that, although there is not a clear theoretical framework explored that underpins the analysis, there is a clear approach that the social and cultural environment has an impact on what is perceived as socially acceptable and unacceptable children's behaviours. As this thesis is one of the first research projects in Saudi Arabia that examined teachers' and parents' perspectives of what is considered as socially acceptable and unacceptable behaviours in early childhood at home and school, there is no prior attempt in Saudi Arabian context to approach this topic from theoretical or practical lenses. Theoretical frameworks, as explored in Chapter 2, that exist in western literature link parental styles and children's behaviours, or social development theories and behaviour, but it was decided that they will not be used in this thesis. The main reason was that parental styles and views, as well as teachers styles and views, are shaped by the culture that they live and work with. Thus, applying a western based theoretical approach

or framework to this study would have not taken into account the aspect of culture. It would have created tension trying to link the results with either parental styles derived from western research or theoretical approaches again derived from western literature. Moreover, as it has become evident in this thesis that there is no research on this topic in Saudi Arabia it would not have been appropriate for this thesis to adopt a western derived theoretical approach that might be in direct conflict with what it aimed to achieve: to understand teachers's and parent's perspectives on children's behaviours in their own culture. This conflict could have been at two levels: ethical and conceptual.

In terms of ethical conflict, as Palaiologou (2012) cautions us, when researching in cultures "it is difficult to distinguish what an individual conceives him/herself to be from that individual's cultural context" (p.85)[...] as different cultures have different codes, different aspects of what is right or wrong"(p.89). Thus, it was considered that in this study adopting a theoretical framework that is used to interpret societal code of a society that differs from Saudi Arabia would have been considered as ethically problematic. When researching other cultures or within cultures key questions are whose theoretical approach is being applied, the researcher or the researched? Reflecting on this it was decided that this thesis will present the findings from a pragmatic approach and it will not attempt to adopt or use a theoretical approach, apart from the axiom that culture shapes our views.

On a conceptual level the knowledge created by this thesis will be communicated firstly and foremost within the Saudi context and if a western theoretical framework was to be used as lenses to approach the findings of this thesis then the question would have been: whose views are imposed to the data and how relevant are the discussion of the findings for the Saudi context? This project aimed to inform policy and practice in Saudi Arabia and not to alienate the receivers of the findings. As Howe and Moss (1999: p35) say: "participants must take a more active role […] in shaping the research process and in challenging its methods and findings as it unfolds". The use of a theoretical framework from western lenses, thus, would have "isolated or uprooted" (Palaiologou 2012: p93) the participants from the findings and the recipients of the findings of the thesis, such as policy makers and curriculum developers.

Acknowledging the lack of theoretical framework in this thesis, although it might appear as a limitation, is an ethically and conceptually informed decision not to adopt a western derived theoretical approach. In order to find the right balance between myself as researcher of my

culture and the western system in which this research was conducted, the decision to use as the axiom that culture shapes behaviour became a theoretical approach that was applicable to my culture and the culture of the researched.

6.7   Suggestions for Further Research

This research can be extended in several ways. Firstly, research could be conducted to investigate how the difference in teachers' and parents' perceptions of socially unacceptable behaviour may affect our ability to manage such behaviours. Policy implications of such differences may be conducted. Another extension of the research could be to look at policy interventions that may help overcome the impact of such differences in perceptions of socially unacceptable behaviour. Studies can also be carried out to study cross-country comparisons of such differences in perceptions and to test whether such behaviours are grounded in the culture of the country. Finally, as this study aimed to investigate which behaviours are considered as socially accepted and unacceptable by parents and teachers, it became evident from the findings that there is a need for further investigations into parenting styles, how these are shaped by the culture of Saudi Arabia and to what extent their style of parenting impact on their perceptions of what they think to be socially acceptable and unacceptable behaviours. Similarly, this investigation needs to be provided to teachers in Saudi Arabia early childhood education to develop further guidelines and better understanding of these issues.

6.8 Closing note

Undertaking a doctoral thesis is a journey that at a personal level furthers the understanding of research methods and knowledge on the topic under investigation. During this journey there were certain barriers that needed to be overcome. Firstly, as a Saudi national, I was studying for this degree in a country where language that differs from mine. Consequently, as a researcher I was reading literature and research from western countries that were not applicable to my project. Secondly, Arabic language is different in nature from English, which meant that some of the quotes might have lost the authentic meaning. However, in this thesis I tried to overcome these barriers with the use of mixed methods approach and also, as

I speak both languages, I have tried to keep a balance between the translation and the nature of the meaning.

Despite these key barriers, throughout the project it became evident that there are differences in how socially acceptable and unacceptable behaviours are perceived among parents and teachers in Saudi Arabia. This is an important finding in this thesis at two levels. Firstly, at a personal level as a lecturer in Princes Noura University that educates early childhood teachers, this will have implications on the aspects of the curriculum that will be included in the teaching training programme, not only for their pre-service training, but also for in-service training. Secondly as a scholar, I aim to disseminate these findingsmore widely as there is limited research disseminated internationally outside of the Arabic language.

Reflecting on my journey throughout this thesis and its key findings, it is important to understand parents' and teachers' views on children's behaviour in order to develop a more effective early childhood education and a harmonic synergy between home and school.

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Appendix 1: SPSS output

Nonparametric tests for aggressive behaviours

Hypothesis Test Summary

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of AggressiveBehaviours is the same across categories of Sex.	Independent-Samples Mann-Whitney U Test	.839	Retain the null hypothesis.
2	The distribution of FreqAggressiveBehaviours is the same across categories of Sex.	Independent-Samples Mann-Whitney U Test	.973	Retain the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

Hypothesis Test Summary

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of AggressiveBehaviours is the same across categories of Father Education.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.869	Retain the null hypothesis.
2	The distribution of FreqAggressiveBehaviours is the same across categories of Father Education.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.389	Retain the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

Hypothesis Test Summary

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of AggressiveBehaviours is the same across categories of Mother Education.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.166	Retain the null hypothesis.
2	The distribution of FreqAggressiveBehaviours is the same across categories of Mother Education.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.380	Retain the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

Hypothesis Test Summary

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of AggressiveBehaviours is the same across categories of Job Father.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.214	Retain the null hypothesis.
2	The distribution of FreqAggressiveBehaviours is the same across categories of Job Father.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.023	Reject the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

Hypothesis Test Summary

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of AggressiveBehaviours is the same across categories of Job Mother.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.048	Reject the null hypothesis.
2	The distribution of FreqAggressiveBehaviours is the same across categories of Job Mother.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.052	Retain the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

Hypothesis Test Summary

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of AggressiveBehaviours is the same across categories of Father Age.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.000	Reject the null hypothesis.
2	The distribution of FreqAggressiveBehaviours is the same across categories of Father Age.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.001	Reject the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

Hypothesis Test Summary

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of AggressiveBehaviours is the same across categories of Mother Age.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.833	Retain the null hypothesis.
2	The distribution of FreqAggressiveBehaviours is the same across categories of Mother Age.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.040	Reject the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

Hypothesis Test Summary

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of AggressiveBehaviours is the same across categories of Number boys.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.037	Reject the null hypothesis.
2	The distribution of FreqAggressiveBehaviours is the same across categories of Number boys.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.016	Reject the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

Hypothesis Test Summary

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of AggressiveBehaviours is the same across categories of Number girls.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.000	Reject the null hypothesis.
2	The distribution of FreqAggressiveBehaviours is the same across categories of Number girls.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.008	Reject the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

Hypothesis Test Summary

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of AggressiveBehaviours is the same across categories of Livetogether.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.199	Retain the null hypothesis.
2	The distribution of FreqAggressiveBehaviours is the same across categories of Livetogether.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.161	Retain the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

Hypothesis Test Summary

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of AggressiveBehaviours is the same across categories of MainCaregiver.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.104	Retain the null hypothesis.
2	The distribution of FreqAggressiveBehaviours is the same across categories of MainCaregiver.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.004	Reject the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

Hypothesis Test Summary

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of AggressiveBehaviours is the same across categories of Q3-6.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.632	Retain the null hypothesis.
2	The distribution of FreqAggressiveBehaviours is the same across categories of Q3-6.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.085	Retain the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

Hypothesis Test Summary

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of AggressiveBehaviours is the same across categories of Salary.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.930	Retain the null hypothesis.
2	The distribution of FreqAggressiveBehaviours is the same across categories of Salary.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.585	Retain the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

Nonparametric tests for lying

Hypothesis Test Summary

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of Lying is the same across categories of Sex.	Independent-Samples Mann-Whitney U Test	.715	Retain the null hypothesis.
2	The distribution of FreqLying is the same across categories of Sex.	Independent-Samples Mann-Whitney U Test	.545	Retain the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

Hypothesis Test Summary

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of Lying is the same across categories of Father Education.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.833	Retain the null hypothesis.
2	The distribution of FreqLying is the same across categories of Father Education.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.087	Retain the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

Hypothesis Test Summary

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of Lying is the same across categories of Mother Education.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.417	Retain the null hypothesis.
2	The distribution of FreqLying is the same across categories of Mother Education.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.899	Retain the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

Hypothesis Test Summary

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of Lying is the same across categories of Job Father.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.552	Retain the null hypothesis.
2	The distribution of FreqLying is the same across categories of Job Father.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.024	Reject the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

Hypothesis Test Summary

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of Lying is the same across categories of Job Mother.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.343	Retain the null hypothesis.
2	The distribution of FreqLying is the same across categories of Job Mother.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.018	Reject the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

Hypothesis Test Summary

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of Lying is the same across categories of Father Age.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.007	Reject the null hypothesis.
2	The distribution of FreqLying is the same across categories of Father Age.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.002	Reject the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

Hypothesis Test Summary

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of Lying is the same across categories of Mother Age.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.084	Retain the null hypothesis.
2	The distribution of FreqLying is the same across categories of Mother Age.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.000	Reject the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

Hypothesis Test Summary

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of Lying is the same across categories of Number boys.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.011	Reject the null hypothesis.
2	The distribution of FreqLying is the same across categories of Number boys.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.007	Reject the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

Hypothesis Test Summary

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of Lying is the same across categories of Number girls.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.000	Reject the null hypothesis.
2	The distribution of FreqLying is the same across categories of Number girls.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.034	Reject the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

Hypothesis Test Summary

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of Lying is the same across categories of Livetogether.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.448	Retain the null hypothesis.
2	The distribution of FreqLying is the same across categories of Livetogether.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.344	Retain the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

Hypothesis Test Summary

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of Lying is the same across categories of MainCaregiver.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.101	Retain the null hypothesis.
2	The distribution of FreqLying is the same across categories of MainCaregiver.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.002	Reject the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

Hypothesis Test Summary

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of Lying is the same across categories of Q3-6.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.784	Retain the null hypothesis.
2	The distribution of FreqLying is the same across categories of Q3-6.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.493	Retain the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

Hypothesis Test Summary

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of Lying is the same across categories of Salary.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.215	Retain the null hypothesis.
2	The distribution of FreqLying is the same across categories of Salary.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.621	Retain the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

Nonparametric tests for fear

Hypothesis Test Summary

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of Fear is the same across categories of Sex.	Independent-Samples Mann-Whitney U Test	.414	Retain the null hypothesis.
2	The distribution of FreqFear is the same across categories of Sex.	Independent-Samples Mann-Whitney U Test	.432	Retain the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

Hypothesis Test Summary

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of Fear is the same across categories of Father Education.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.013	Reject the null hypothesis.
2	The distribution of FreqFear is the same across categories of Father Education.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.192	Retain the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

Hypothesis Test Summary

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of Fear is the same across categories of Mother Education.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.604	Retain the null hypothesis.
2	The distribution of FreqFear is the same across categories of Mother Education.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.358	Retain the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

Hypothesis Test Summary

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of Fear is the same across categories of Job Father.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.021	Reject the null hypothesis.
2	The distribution of FreqFear is the same across categories of Job Father.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.238	Retain the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

Hypothesis Test Summary

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of Fear is the same across categories of Job Mother.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.058	Retain the null hypothesis.
2	The distribution of FreqFear is the same across categories of Job Mother.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.016	Reject the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

Hypothesis Test Summary

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of Fear is the same across categories of Father Age.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.010	Reject the null hypothesis.
2	The distribution of FreqFear is the same across categories of Father Age.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.003	Reject the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

Hypothesis Test Summary

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of Fear is the same across categories of Mother Age.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.226	Retain the null hypothesis.
2	The distribution of FreqFear is the same across categories of Mother Age.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.223	Retain the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

Hypothesis Test Summary

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of Fear is the same across categories of Number boys.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.013	Reject the null hypothesis.
2	The distribution of FreqFear is the same across categories of Number boys.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.000	Reject the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

Hypothesis Test Summary

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of Fear is the same across categories of Number girls.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.076	Retain the null hypothesis.
2	The distribution of FreqFear is the same across categories of Number girls.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.001	Reject the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

Hypothesis Test Summary

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of Fear is the same across categories of Livetogether.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.036	Reject the null hypothesis.
2	The distribution of FreqFear is the same across categories of Livetogether.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.649	Retain the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

Hypothesis Test Summary

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of Fear is the same across categories of MainCaregiver	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.000	Reject the null hypothesis.
2	The distribution of FreqFear is the same across categories of MainCaregiver.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.002	Reject the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

Hypothesis Test Summary

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of Fear is the same across categories of Q3-6.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.483	Retain the null hypothesis.
2	The distribution of FreqFear is the same across categories of Q3-6.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.719	Retain the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

Hypothesis Test Summary

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of Fear is the same across categories of Salary.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.312	Retain the null hypothesis.
2	The distribution of FreqFear is the same across categories of Salary.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.243	Retain the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

Nonparametric tests for social field

Hypothesis Test Summary

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of SocialField is the same across categories of Sex.	Independent-Samples Mann-Whitney U Test	.089	Retain the null hypothesis.
2	The distribution of FreqSocialField is the same across categories of Sex.	Independent-Samples Mann-Whitney U Test	.044	Reject the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

Hypothesis Test Summary

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of SocialField is the same across categories of Father Education.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.125	Retain the null hypothesis.
2	The distribution of FreqSocialField is the same across categories of Father Education.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.452	Retain the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

Hypothesis Test Summary

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of SocialField is the same across categories of Mother Education.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.250	Retain the null hypothesis.
2	The distribution of FreqSocialField is the same across categories of Mother Education.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.139	Retain the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

Hypothesis Test Summary

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of SocialField is the same across categories of Job Father.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.383	Retain the null hypothesis.
2	The distribution of FreqSocialField is the same across categories of Job Father.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.819	Retain the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

Hypothesis Test Summary

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of SocialField is the same across categories of Job Mother.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.060	Retain the null hypothesis.
2	The distribution of FreqSocialField is the same across categories of Job Mother.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.045	Reject the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

Hypothesis Test Summary

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of SocialField is the same across categories of Father Age.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.005	Reject the null hypothesis.
2	The distribution of FreqSocialField is the same across categories of Father Age.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.154	Retain the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

Hypothesis Test Summary

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of SocialField is the same across categories of Mother Age.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.497	Retain the null hypothesis.
2	The distribution of FreqSocialField is the same across categories of Mother Age.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.052	Retain the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

Hypothesis Test Summary

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of SocialField is the same across categories of Number boys.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.000	Reject the null hypothesis.
2	The distribution of FreqSocialField is the same across categories of Number boys.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.001	Reject the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

Hypothesis Test Summary

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of SocialField is the same across categories of Number girls.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.034	Reject the null hypothesis.
2	The distribution of FreqSocialField is the same across categories of Number girls.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.008	Reject the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

Hypothesis Test Summary

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of SocialField is the same across categories of Livetogether.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.019	Reject the null hypothesis.
2	The distribution of FreqSocialField is the same across categories of Livetogether.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.082	Retain the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

Hypothesis Test Summary

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of SocialField is the same across categories of MainCaregiver.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.000	Reject the null hypothesis.
2	The distribution of FreqSocialField is the same across categories of MainCaregiver.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.002	Reject the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

Hypothesis Test Summary

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of SocialField is the same across categories of Q3-6.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.459	Retain the null hypothesis.
2	The distribution of FreqSocialField is the same across categories of Q3-6.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.206	Retain the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

Hypothesis Test Summary

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of SocialField is the same across categories of Salary.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.167	Retain the null hypothesis.
2	The distribution of FreqSocialField is the same across categories of Salary.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.443	Retain the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

Nonparametric tests for school-related problems

Hypothesis Test Summary

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of SchoolProbs is the same across categories of Sex.	Independent-Samples Mann-Whitney U Test	.572	Retain the null hypothesis.
2	The distribution of FreqSchoolProbs is the same across categories of Sex.	Independent-Samples Mann-Whitney U Test	.925	Retain the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

Hypothesis Test Summary

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of SchoolProbs is the same across categories of Father Education.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.280	Retain the null hypothesis.
2	The distribution of FreqSchoolProbs is the same across categories of Father Education.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.138	Retain the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

Hypothesis Test Summary

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of SchoolProbs is the same across categories of Mother Education.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.074	Retain the null hypothesis.
2	The distribution of FreqSchoolProbs is the same across categories of Mother Education.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.156	Retain the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

Hypothesis Test Summary

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of SchoolProbs is the same across categories of Job Father.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.028	Reject the null hypothesis.
2	The distribution of FreqSchoolProbs is the same across categories of Job Father.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.462	Retain the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

Hypothesis Test Summary

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of SchoolProbs is the same across categories of Job Mother.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.000	Reject the null hypothesis.
2	The distribution of FreqSchoolProbs is the same across categories of Job Mother.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.198	Retain the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

Hypothesis Test Summary

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of SchoolProbs is the same across categories of Father Age.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.026	Reject the null hypothesis.
2	The distribution of FreqSchoolProbs is the same across categories of Father Age.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.044	Reject the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

Hypothesis Test Summary

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of SchoolProbs is the same across categories of Mother Age.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.329	Retain the null hypothesis.
2	The distribution of FreqSchoolProbs is the same across categories of Mother Age.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.058	Retain the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

Hypothesis Test Summary

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of SchoolProbs is the same across categories of Number boys.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.002	Reject the null hypothesis.
2	The distribution of FreqSchoolProbs is the same across categories of Number boys.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.000	Reject the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

Hypothesis Test Summary

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of SchoolProbs is the same across categories of Number girls.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.000	Reject the null hypothesis.
2	The distribution of FreqSchoolProbs is the same across categories of Number girls.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.000	Reject the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

Hypothesis Test Summary

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of SchoolProbs is the same across categories of Livetogether.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.119	Retain the null hypothesis.
2	The distribution of FreqSchoolProbs is the same across categories of Livetogether.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.089	Retain the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

Hypothesis Test Summary

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of SchoolProbs is the same across categories of MainCaregiver.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.002	Reject the null hypothesis.
2	The distribution of FreqSchoolProbs is the same across categories of MainCaregiver.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.009	Reject the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

Hypothesis Test Summary

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of SchoolProbs is the same across categories of Q3-6.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.725	Retain the null hypothesis.
2	The distribution of FreqSchoolProbs is the same across categories of Q3-6.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.466	Retain the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

Hypothesis Test Summary

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of SchoolProbs is the same across categories of Salary.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.176	Retain the null hypothesis.
2	The distribution of FreqSchoolProbs is the same across categories of Salary.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.048	Reject the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

Nonparametric tests for strange habits

Hypothesis Test Summary

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of StrangeHabits is the same across categories of Sex.	Independent-Samples Mann-Whitney U Test	.856	Retain the null hypothesis.
2	The distribution of FreqStrangeHabits is the same across categories of Sex.	Independent-Samples Mann-Whitney U Test	.218	Retain the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

Hypothesis Test Summary

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of StrangeHabits is the same across categories of Father Education.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.112	Retain the null hypothesis.
2	The distribution of FreqStrangeHabits is the same across categories of Father Education.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.101	Retain the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

Hypothesis Test Summary

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of StrangeHabits is the same across categories of Mother Education.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.026	Reject the null hypothesis.
2	The distribution of FreqStrangeHabits is the same across categories of Mother Education.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.159	Retain the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

Hypothesis Test Summary

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of StrangeHabits is the same across categories of Job Father.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.066	Retain the null hypothesis.
2	The distribution of FreqStrangeHabits is the same across categories of Job Father.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.301	Retain the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

Hypothesis Test Summary

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of StrangeHabits is the same across categories of Job Mother.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.001	Reject the null hypothesis.
2	The distribution of FreqStrangeHabits is the same across categories of Job Mother.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.037	Reject the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

Hypothesis Test Summary

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of StrangeHabits is the same across categories of Father Age.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.002	Reject the null hypothesis.
2	The distribution of FreqStrangeHabits is the same across categories of Father Age.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.065	Retain the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

Hypothesis Test Summary

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of StrangeHabits is the same across categories of Mother Age.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.136	Retain the null hypothesis.
2	The distribution of FreqStrangeHabits is the same across categories of Mother Age.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.165	Retain the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

Hypothesis Test Summary

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of StrangeHabits is the same across categories of Number boys.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.000	Reject the null hypothesis.
2	The distribution of FreqStrangeHabits is the same across categories of Number boys.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.000	Reject the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

Hypothesis Test Summary

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of StrangeHabits is the same across categories of Number girls.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.001	Reject the null hypothesis.
2	The distribution of FreqStrangeHabits is the same across categories of Number girls.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.003	Reject the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

Hypothesis Test Summary

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of StrangeHabits is the same across categories of Livetogether.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.002	Reject the null hypothesis.
2	The distribution of FreqStrangeHabits is the same across categories of Livetogether.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.027	Reject the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

Hypothesis Test Summary

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of StrangeHabits is the same across categories of MainCaregiver.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.002	Reject the null hypothesis.
2	The distribution of FreqStrangeHabits is the same across categories of MainCaregiver.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.013	Reject the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

Hypothesis Test Summary

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of StrangeHabits is the same across categories of Q3-6.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.573	Retain the null hypothesis.
2	The distribution of FreqStrangeHabits is the same across categories of Q3-6.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.553	Retain the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

Hypothesis Test Summary

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of StrangeHabits is the same across categories of Salary.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.198	Retain the null hypothesis.
2	The distribution of FreqStrangeHabits is the same across categories of Salary.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.200	Retain the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

Appendix2 Information Sheet

Thank you for your participation in the present study, which investigate social behaviours in Saudi Arabia's in early years' education from parents' and teachers'viewpoints . To do that, data will be collected by administrating questionnaires to examine Social behaviours in children, and by observing children's behaviour in the classroom and during school activity and at home.

I greatly appreciate your cooperation. If you have any questions regarding this study, or if you feel psychologically distressed by participation in this study, please feel free to talk to the researcher.

Thanks again for your participation.

Appendix 3   Parents questionnaire

Dear father/ mother

The researcher is investigating pre-school children's behavioural problems in Riyadh in Saudi Arabia.

We wish you to kindly cooperate with the researcher by answering the questions below and determining the degree of each behaviour your child has engaged in during the past by drawing an X in the corresponding box that properly fits your answer. All the questions are to be to responded with reference to your child(ren).

There is no need to mention your name or the name of your child/ren on the paper. In addition, please note that besides the researcher no one will be able to see your answers and that your answers will not be used for any other purpose but scientific research.

The questionnaire will take approximately 30 minutes to be completed

1. Role in the family: father or   Mother

	Father	Mother
2.Educational qualifications	☐ High school ☐ Diploma ☐ Bachelor ☐ Master ☐ PhD ☐ None	☐ High school ☐ Diploma ☐ Bachelor ☐ Master ☐ PhD ☐ None
3. Profession	☐ Gov. job ☐ private sector ☐ Retired ☐ Unemployed	☐ Gov. job ☐ private sector ☐ Retired ☐ Unemployed
4. Age	☐ 15-20 ☐ 21-25 ☐ 26-30 ☐ 31-35 ☐36-40 ☐ 41-45	☐ 15-20 ☐ 21-25 ☐ 26-30 ☐ 31-35 ☐36-40 ☐ 41-45

5. Number of Children: Male: ①②③④⑤   Female: ①②③④⑤

6.Do parents live together?:☐ yes   ☐ No

7.Who is responsible of primary care of the child?:   Mother   Grandmother   Nanny

8.Do you have children between 3-6 ?

Yes ☐   No ☐

9. The monthly income of family: ☐ less than 5000 RS   ☐ 5000-10000 RS ☐ More than 15000 RS

10. Does your child have a psychical health or behaviour challenge if yes, which of the following please describe the challenge?

☐ ADHD ☐ autism ☐chronic disease ☐ physical disability

☐Other.

1. In your view how do you define behaviour problems in pre-school age? <u>Select one or more</u>

   A) ☐Shows anxiety (nail biting, Hair pulling, Body rocking) .

   B) ☐ Physical aggressive toward others

   C) ☐ Does not make eye contact during conversation

   D) ☐ Hostile, uncooperative and irritable behaviour toward others.

   E) ☐ Stealing

   F) ☐ Other

2. In your point of view how could children's behavioural problems at home be identified?

----

3. From your point of view, what are behavioural problems at pre-school?

Statements	In your view please indicate which of the following statements you will consider as behavioural problems, by drawing an X in the box that properly fits your answer.					How often it happens?				
	Strongly agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Never	Sometimes	Not sure	often	Always
Aggressive behaviour										
Assaults on peers by hitting, biting, or pulling hair	1.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Damages other children's things such as their clothes or bags	2.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Prevents other children from playing and doing activities	3.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Controls other kids	4.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Mocks friends and	5.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

brothers										
Seizes other people's things by force	6.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Starts fights	7.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Hurts others on purpose when s/he notices that nobody can see them	8.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Insults friends and brothers	9.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Scares brothers or peers	10.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Uses things like sticks and shoes to hit	11.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Tends to violent playing	12.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Says nasty words	13.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Damages his/her own property such as clothes and toys	14.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Challenges older people	15.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Does not respect others	16.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Makes a lot of noise (yells or hits)	17.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Damages and breaks furniture	18.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Throws rubbish on the floor in spite of the presence of a waste basket	19.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Lying										

Statement	No.	Strongly agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly disagree	never	Sometimes	Not sure	often	Always
Pretends that he/she is oppressed	20.	□	□	□	□		□	□	□	□	□
Pretends that he/she is sick in order to gain attention and sympathy	21.	□	□	□	□		□	□	□	□	□
Accuses others of beating or assaulting him/her	22.	□	□	□	□		□	□	□	□	□
Claims that he/she is hungry or thirsty	23.	□	□	□	□		□	□	□	□	□
Asks for things for him/herself claiming that the teacher asked for them	24.	□	□	□	□		□	□	□	□	□

Statements	In your view please indicate which of the following statements you will consider as behavioural problems, by drawing an X in the box that properly fits your answer.					How often it happens?				
	Strongly agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly disagree	never	Sometimes	Not sure	often	Always
Falsely accuses other children	25. □	□	□	□		□	□	□	□	□
Lies to get rid of embarrassment in some situations	26. □	□	□	□		□	□	□	□	□
Accuses others of his/her own mistakes	27. □	□	□	□		□	□	□	□	□
Fears										
Afraid of going to school and refuses it	28. □	□	□	□		□	□	□	□	□

Complains of headaches or any pain, claiming that he or she is sick	29.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Afraid of staying alone	30.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Yells or cries strongly when his/her room door is closed, asking to open it	31.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Yells or runs away when he/she sees a bug	32.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Afraid of entering a crowded place	33.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Afraid of new places	34.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Gets confused when an adult talks to him/her	35.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Afraid of going to the toilet alone	36.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Talks about scary things like demons	37.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Cries if he/she sees a doctor or a nurse	38.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Afraid of darkness	39.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Social field										
Does not like socialisation	40.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Prefers to play alone	41.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Prefers e-games to sharing with others in playing	42.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Heavily responds to anything that happens around him/her	43.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Shy when there are guests	44.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Avoids dealing with strangers	45.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Stays still in his/her place for a long time	46.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
School-related problems										
Does not easily accept regulations	47.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Refuses to do his/her duties at home	48.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Misses school	49.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Misses school activities	50.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

strange habits									
Sucks his/her fingers	51.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Bites his/her fingers	52.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Puts pens in his fingers	53.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Touches others in a strange or an inappropriate way	54.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Spits on the floor or any other place	55.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Suddenly yells at others and without any warning	56.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Refuses to go to bed at	57.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

bedtime									
Refuses to get up in the morning	58.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Refuses to eat	59.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

4. Please describe in your view if you consider any other behavioural problems other than those mentioned above.

Will you be willing to participate in an interview if it is needed?   ☐ **Yes**   ☐ **NO**

 With our greatest thanks and appreciation

The researcher

Basma

Appendix 4Teacher's questionnaire

Dear teacher

The researcher is investigating pre-school children's behavioural problems in Riyadh in Saudi Arabia.

We request that you kindly cooperate with the researcher by answering the questions below and determining the degree of each behaviours that children display in the classroom or at school by drawing an X in the corresponding box that best fits your answer.

There is no need to mention your name or the name of the child on the paper. Please note that besides the researcher, no one will be able to see your answers and that your answers will not be used for any other purpose but scientific research.

The questionnaire will take approximately 20 minutes to be completed

1.Years active as a teacher: ☐ 1-5 ☐6-10 ☐ 11-15 ☐ 16-20 ☐ 21-25 year/s

2. School: ☐ State school   ☐ Public school

3.Educational attainment: ☐ Diploma degree   ☐License degree

4 .Age: ☐ 20-25   ☐ 26-30 ☐ 31-35 ☐ 36-40 ☐ 36-40 ☐ 41-45 ☐ 46 or more

5.Works with children aged:☐ 3-4 ☐ 4-5 ☐ 5-6

1. From your point of view , how could children's behavioural problems at school be identified?

   A) Non compliance   B) Aggressiveness   C) uncontrolled behaviour D) Withdrawn, lonely depressed   E) Other.

From your point of view how can children's behavioural problems in your classroom be identified?

Statements	In your view please indicate which of the following statements you will consider as behavioural problems, by drawing an X in the box that properly fits your answer.					How often it happens?				
	Strongly agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly disagree	never	sometimes	Not sure	often	Always
Aggressive behaviours										
Assaults on peers by hitting, biting, or pulling hair	1. ☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Damages friends' belongings such as their clothes	2. ☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

or bags										
Prevents other children from playing and doing activities	3.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Controls other children	4.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Threatens his or her friends	5.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Mocks his or her peers	6.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Seizes other peers belongings by force	7.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Hurts others on purpose when he or she notices that nobody can see them	8.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Tells you about the mistakes of others so that you punish them	9.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Insults his or her peers	10.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Fights other children	11.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Uses things like sticks, shoes, etc. to hit or threaten	12.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Statements	In your view please indicate which of the following statements you will consider as behavioural problems, by drawing an X in the box that properly fits your answer.					How often it happens?				
	Strongly agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly disagree	never	sometimes	Not sure	often	Always
Crushes children and pushes them away	13. ☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Tends towards violent play	14. ☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Takes other children's toys when they cannot notice it	15. ☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Damages their own properties such as clothes, bags, etc.	16. ☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Trips up peers on purpose while they are walking	17. ☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Says nasty words	18. ☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Challenges the teacher and replies to her (speaks back)	19. ☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Makes a lot of	20. ☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

	No.									
noise										
Does not obey teachers' directions and orders	21.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Draws on walls and doors on purpose	22.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Throws rubbish on the floor in spite of the presence of a waste basket	23.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Cries in the classroom and asks to go home	24.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Insists that a relative attends the class with him or her	25.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Lying										
Pretends that he or she does not have money or dessert in order to get more	26.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Falsely accuses his or her peers	27.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Claims that he or she needs to go to the toilet often	28.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Social Field										

Statement	No.	Strongly agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly disagree	never	sometimes	Not sure	often	Always
Prevents others from finishing their work in the class	29.	☐	☐	☐	☐		☐	☐		☐	☐	☐
Refuses to play with children of the opposite gender	30.	☐	☐	☐	☐		☐	☐		☐	☐	☐

Statements	In your view please indicate which of the following statements you will consider as behavioural problems, by drawing an X in the box that properly fits your answer.					How often it happens?				
	Strongly agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly disagree	never	sometimes	Not sure	often	Always
Afraid of going out from the classroom to the schoolyard — 31.	☐	☐	☐	☐		☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Gets confused when he or she talks to the teacher — 32.	☐	☐	☐	☐		☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Cries and becomes confused if an unfamiliar person enters the classroom — 33.	☐	☐	☐	☐		☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Fears										
Afraid of going to the toilet — 34.	☐	☐	☐	☐		☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

alone									
Gets confused when an adult talks to him or her	35.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Afraid of standing in front of peers to tell a story or to sing, for example	36.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Misses school claiming that he or she is sick	37.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Draws scary things like monsters or guns	38.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Runs away when he or she sees the principal	39.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Lying									
Claims to have things he or she does not really have	40.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Pretends that he or she is oppressed	41.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Makes up stories and pretends that	42.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

they actually happened										

3. In your view are there any other behaviour problems that not mentioned above please

Mention?

Will you willing to participating in the following interview if necessary? ☐Yes ☐ **NO**

Thank you very much for your participation.

Basma

Appendix 5   Focus Group questions

Questions for a Focus Group on socially unacceptable Behaviours

Engagement questions:

1- What do you mean by behavioural problems in early years children?

2- In your point of view how children's behavioural problems at home could be identified?

Engagement questions:

1. **From your viewpoints, what are behaviours that could be considered as aggressive behaviours in pre-school children?**

    a. Could you please rate to what extend these behaviours are socially accepted or not?

    b. How often these behaviours happen?

2. **From your viewpoints, what are behaviours that could be considered as lying behaviours in pre-school children?**

    a. Could you please rate to what extend these behaviours are socially accepted or not?

    b. How often these behaviours happen?

1. **From your viewpoints, what are behaviours that could be considered as fear in pre-school children?**

    a. Could you please rate to what extend these fears are normal or not?

    b. How often these behaviours happen?

2. **From your viewpoints, what are behaviours that could be considered as social problems in pre-school children?**

    a. Could you please rate to what extend these fears are normal or not?

    b. How often these behaviours happen?

3. **From your viewpoints, what are school-related behaviours that could be considered as problems in pre-school children?**

    a. Could you please rate to what extend these fears are socially accepted or not?

    b. How often these behaviours happen?

Exit question:

Are there other behaviours that you could consider them as problems?

Participants:

6 to 9 participants will be selected to participate in focus group from parents (fathers, mothers) and teachers.

Three focus groups will be conducted; one for each group; fathers, mothers, and teachers. To let participants feel comfortable, participants in each group will be of the same gender. Also, head-teachers will not participate.

Once a group of viable recruits has been established, I will call each one to confirm interest and availability. I will give those times and locations of the focus groups and secure verbal confirmation. I will tell them I will email them a written confirmation and call to remind those two days before the scheduled group.

Appendix 6   Focus Group Confirmation Letter

Dear _____,

Thank you for your willingness to participate in our focus group. As discussed on the phone, we would like to hear your ideas and opinions about behavioural problems in pre-school children. You will be in a group with 6 to 9 other parents. Your responses to the questions will be kept anonymous. The date, time, and place are listed below. Please look for signs once you arrive directing you to the room where the focus group will be held.

DATE:_____

TIME:_____

PLACE: _____

If you need directions to the focus group or will not be able to attend for any reason please call me (mobile: 00966505246545). Otherwise we look forward to seeing you.

Sincerely,

Basma

Appendix 7   Consent form

<u>**Canterbury Christ Church University**</u>

An Investigation into Social behaviours in Saudi Arabia's Early Years Education

I have been advised and provided with information relating to the above programme of research in which I have been asked to participate and have been given a copy to keep. The nature and purposes of the research have been explained to me, and I have had the opportunity to discuss the details and ask questions about this information. I understand what is being proposed and the procedures in which I will be involved have been explained to me.

I understand that my involvement in this study, and particularly data from this research, will remain strictly confidential. Only the researchers involved in the study will have access to the data. It has been explained to me what will happen to the data once the research programme has been completed.

I hereby fully and freely consent to participate in the study which has been fully explained to me.

Having given this consent I understand that I have the right to withdraw from the programme without disadvantage to myself and without being obliged to give any reason.

Participant's name (BLOCK CAPITALS):

Participant's signature:

Investigator's name:

Investigator's signature:

…………………………………………………………………………………………….

Date…