

Parental Attitudes and Their Impact on Child Development

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Abstract: *The connection between parental educational procedures and children's behavior can be observed through the influence of parental actions on children's behavior, as well as through the influence of children's behavior on parental behavior. The respondents in this research were students of the eighth grade of primary schools in the urban area of the municipality of Milići. A total of 210 students participated in the survey. The questionnaires used for the purposes of the paper are: CRPBI Questionnaire and Revised USA-r Questionnaire. The aim of the study was to examine the contribution of parental behavior to the development and behavior of children, and to examine gender differences in the perception of parental behavior. Reliability data were verified using the Cronbach's alpha coefficient, and data obtained by testing the normality of the Kolmogorov – Smirnov distribution test for concordance. Predictors of parental behavior did not prove significant in predicting children's assertiveness; However, both correlations are relatively low and become insignificant in a set of multiple predictors.*

Keywords — behavior; properties; irreversibility; psychology; CRPBI; questionnaire

1. INTRODUCTION

The family is such a social community that every individual feels the need for, because the goals that are achieved in it are the foundation of all human life and therefore it is the most versatile and unique group of vital importance for every member of the social community. It is this need to establish a thread of togetherness that directs today's man back to his family [1]. Family life is certainly the most intimate sphere of seeking and realizing man and humanity. We can say that the family is in a sense a mediator between the child and the wider community. It is the most suitable school for emotional and social relations. Modern life does not suffer from individual or family isolation. The family cannot be separated from the general legality of social life, it is an integral part of society and is materially dependent on it. That is why family life serves to shape the shared experiential and experiential wealth of family members [2].

Many studies of human brain development in the world point to an extremely important period of a child and the development of his brain in the first three years of life, which affects brain function for the rest of his life. The way of communicating with others, their sense of understanding of others, the child learns the most from his environment, primarily from family, and then from people with whom he is in contact in preschool education, at the time of shaping mental, psychological, social and emotional personalities - ie until his fourth year [3].

World research shows the connection between quality upbringing of children at an early age with their mental and social individuality, as well as success in school and later in life. By the age of six, when individuality, thinking, sociability and emotions are formed, in the most important period of human life, unfortunately, parents usually do not have as much time for the child as they should, or they lack sufficient knowledge about it [4]. The consequence of such irresponsible behavior of adults towards children is the environment with mental health of individuals as we have

today, and these are the escalation of violence and deviant and socially unacceptable behavior. Therefore, raising children at an early age is the most important step that parents can take for children, themselves, but also for society as a whole [5].

2. FAMILY AND PARENTHOOD

2.1 Parenting styles

According to the overall climate, atmosphere and interpersonal relationships, each family represents a different community. Just as each person represents and has a special individuality, so each family as a group or community, makes a kind of uniqueness, it has its own identity in a group sense [6]. Parents have a leading role and importance in structuring relationships and the overall family climate, so most of the criteria for classifying families are most directly related to the role of parents, their behavior and attitude towards children. Starting from that, the literature talks about the style of upbringing or parenting. Three different parenting styles are often cited, namely: authoritarian, authoritarian, and compliant.

Authoritative parents set clear rules of conduct and requirements, explaining the reasons for applying a particular educational procedure and taking into account the developmental age of the child [7]. Such control is applied in a warm emotional atmosphere, and the needs and rights of the child are respected. This achieves the development of autonomy in the child and his free expression of his own ideas. There is a relationship between subordinates and their children between authoritarian parents and their children. Such parents have maximum control over their children's behavior and expect unconditional obedience. They use strict disciplinary techniques that include corporal punishment. The needs and rights of the child are not taken into account [8]. Indulgent parents minimize any control over the child. The child is encouraged to make his own decisions and to develop independence. There is no guidance and control from the parents. Very few demands and expectations are placed on the child, and all the child's decisions and actions are approved [9, 10].

Authoritarian and authoritarian parenting style imply tight control of the child's behavior. The difference between them is in the dimension of emotionality, but also in the type of control they use. Authoritative parents apply behavioral control more. Authoritarian parents, in addition to behavioral, also apply psychological, dysfunctional control [11]. This prevents the development of the child's autonomy.

2.2 Factors of parental behavior

Some research has addressed the question of why parents treat their children exactly the way they behave, ie. which determines parental behavior. There are three main groups of factors:

1. individual characteristics of parents
2. characteristics of the child
3. contextual factors.

1. Individual characteristics of parents which affect parental behavior are: parents' age, gender, personality traits, their parents' behavior towards them, knowledge and beliefs about child development and parental behavior, and marital satisfaction. Research shows that the interaction of older mothers with children is warmer, more positive and more stimulating than the interaction of younger mothers with children. It has also been shown that underage mothers show more undesirable behaviors towards their children, have less realistic expectations about their children's development and are less sensitive to meeting their children's needs [12].

Gender of parents is one of the important factors. Mothers are more preoccupied with childcare activities, and the interaction of fathers and children is more reduced to play and leisure. It was also found that mothers spend more time with their children than fathers. Mothers use more psychological control procedures of the child, and fathers use behavioral control procedures more [13]. Parental personality traits and their influence are most pronounced in research dealing with parents with emotional disorders. Depressed mothers have been found to show less acceptance, warmth, spontaneity and patience, and punish children more than non-depressed mothers [14].

2. The characteristics of the child that most influence parental behavior are: gender, age, temperament and abilities. Research shows that parents treat children of different genders differently. [15] state that parents of six- and seven-year-olds show more emotionality in interacting with girls, and more dominance, ie. assertiveness in interacting with boys. Some research also suggests an interaction between half of the child and half of the parents. In infancy, mothers talk more and smile at girls than boys, and fathers are more concerned with sons than daughters, especially if it is a first-born child. In adolescence, more difficulties occur in same-sex interactions (mother-daughter, father-son) than in heterosexual ones. An important factor in parental behavior is the age of the child, ie it is logical that parents will not treat children of different ages equally. Although research findings are not always consistent. Decreased parental acceptance, reduced psychological control, physical showing of love, and time spent with the child. At the same time, behavioral control, the use of verbal

methods of discipline, and the emphasis on the child's autonomy increase [16].

Parental behavior is also influenced by the child's difficult temperament. [17] finds that mothers of children with severe temperaments spend less time interacting with their children and respond less to their cries between the ages of 3 and 8. months.

3. Contextual factors sit also greatly influences the interaction of parents and children. Parental behavior does not take place in social isolation. Important contextual factors are: parents' social networks, their workplace, and marital relationships. All of these factors can be a source of both stress and support. Stress caused by problems in the workplace can change a child's behavior. The perception of marital relations also has an impact. If a woman feels supported by her husband, she is more likely to be more involved with her children [18].

Important contextual factors are: socioeconomic status, family structure (number of family members and, number of children, order of birth), cultural factors and various sources of stress. Thus, we can conclude that parental behavior should be understood as a multidimensional concept that unites the individual characteristics of parents and children, but also the relationships of the wider social environment towards the family and the roles of parents and children in it.

3. CHILD DEVELOPMENT

To define development, we need to define what is at the core of development. We learn about development based on change. The changes are the result of development, and we are interested in what is behind these changes. We need to distinguish developmental change from all other types of change. The concept of development is broader than the concept of developmental changes because it includes two types of changes: developmental changes and changes caused by growth [19].

Growth means changes in quantity without changes in structure (eg hair growth). These changes are continuous, while developmental changes are discontinuous (jumpy) and qualitative [20].

Developmental changes include:

1. Qualitativeness (implies discontinuity, jumpiness). Development takes place through different stages that prepare each other, but differ qualitatively.
2. Irreversibility (irreversibility). Developmental changes are only those that are irreversible (e.g., pubertal changes, wrinkles). The characteristic of a living system is that during its exchanges with the environment it can change and undergo irreversible changes without disintegrating (open system, unlike, for example, machines - closed systems - in which irreversible changes cause failures).
3. Cumulative (accumulation). Qualitative changes (leaps) occur as a result of accumulation, generation of changes, with the proviso that in the case of developmental change there is a qualitative leap in relation to the changes that prepared it. It can be concluded, therefore, that the notion of development refers only to the development of a living system (organism and psychic system as its subsystem).

Theories of development differ, among other things, in terms of the direction of development. There is still no general theory of development that would explain the development of the individual as a whole. Theories usually deal with one aspect of development.

- Physical development is characterized by growth - changes in scale and differentiation, changes in the complexity of the structure and shape of the body. It refers to changes in height and weight, the nervous system changes through quantitative, qualitative and functional changes, changes in the endocrine system, and motor skills are developed [21]. Physical growth is equally influenced by hereditary factors and environmental factors. The physical development of a child is not uniform, which we see from the fact that boys and girls do not develop equally. In addition, each child has its own individual course of development. We can single out four clearly limited periods of growth. The first period is from birth to six years and in it the height and weight are in a sharp increase. This is followed by a period of slow growth that lasts until puberty. In puberty itself there is a rapid growth.

Compensatory growth (catch-up growth) is a biological phenomenon of growth acceleration in children. It is observed when, after transient growth retardation due to disease or starvation, the cause of slow growth is removed [22]. This is possible in young children or if the growth disorder has been short-lived.

- The mental development of the child only decided to present through Freud's psychoanalytic theory of development. According to Freud's teaching, the structure of the personality consists of three systems or instances: id, ego and superego. Id is a biological, ego psychological and superego social component [23]. The basic structure of the personality is acquired in early childhood - "a child is the father of a man". Id is the source of energy and is the oldest part of the personality: id contains everything inherited from ancestors including instincts and is completely unconscious. Id is ruled by the principle of pleasure and that is why he reduces the tension in the body. The ego has a secondary process in psychological functions that are in line with the principle of reality, it achieves the satisfaction of various instincts, respecting the laws of logic and morality (superego requirements). This is the basis for the development of the ego, but learning new methods that will reduce tension also represents the development of the personality as a whole. Superego has three separate functions: conscience, self-observation (introspection) and ideals. It develops through the mechanism of identification, taking on roles and values, to which the child is forced due to conflict and frustration [24]. In a newer version of the theory, Freud talks about the instincts of life (eros) and death (thanatos). The first is mostly interpreted through the sexual urge and the second produces aggression and destructiveness. Degrees of personality development are of constant order. In a newer version of the theory, Freud talks about the instincts of life (eros) and death (thanatos). The first is mostly interpreted through the sexual urge and the second produces aggression and destructiveness. Degrees of personality development are of constant order. In

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1. Preenatal stage, the first five years in which the most important foundations of personality are formed. This stage has three stages of development: oral phase, related to the first year of life during which the infant's attention is focused on the oral area, anal phase, related to the second and third year of life when the child learns to control excretion and establish hygienic habits. phallus phase, fourth and fifth years, is characterized by auto-erotic orientation of the child (narcissistic cathexis) and the tendency to bond with a parent of the opposite sex and ambivalent attitude towards a parent of the same sex (Oedipus / Electra complex) [25]. If frustration and frustration occur at any stage, there may be a fixation of a certain amount of energy and a tendency for the person to look for a source of satisfaction in the activities of that phase (oral, anal, autoerotic) at a later age.

2. The period of latency, between the age of six and twelve, when the energy of libido is suppressed, hidden, and the child shows strong curiosity and desire to learn.

3. Genital stage, begins with the period of puberty and is characterized by: "branching" of psychic energy and "investing" in new objects, greater interest in yourself and other people, establishing heterosexual relationships, and visible signs of accelerated emotional maturation and socialization.

4. THE ROLE OF THE FAMILY IN THE DEVELOPMENTAL STAGES OF CHILDREN

The role of the family changes during different phases of the life cycle, but regardless of that, in the broadest sense, it exists to provide conditions for the growth and development of its members. In modern developed society, the economic function of the family is less. Interpersonal relationships of family members, their modalities of communication and family goals, came to the fore. The picture of family life is becoming more complex, and the economic conditions in which the family lives are the most important factor in family dynamics, just when they are unfavorable. The quality of father-mother partnerships is related to the quality of motherhood [26]. The protection and emotional support that the father provides form the basis of the mother's sense of self-sufficiency in the role of partner and parent. Instead, pettiness, criticalness, disagreement regarding the child's educational goals and discipline. If sexual disagreement arises between partners, dissatisfied parents usually seek compensation for their love for their children [27]. The role of the family in the development of neurosis has long been considered in psychoanalysis. In addition to traumatic experience, constitution is also cited as an etiological factor in neurosis. If the constitutional factor is more pronounced, then even minor trauma events lead to fixation and developmental disorders.

Family patterns create neurotic defense mechanisms and stimulate the formation of a neurotic nucleus in individual members. These are usually families that are prone to secrets and mystifications of certain family events. At the same time, these families show extremely adapted behavior in society, but they are not authentic. Too much importance is attached to form, the social position of individuals. One, and sometimes the only, expression of neurotic family behavior may be snobbery, which is a kind of defense against existential emptiness [28].

Family environment is considered a key factor in psychological adjustment in adolescence. Adolescents who have experienced high control but low family cohesion since childhood are much more introverted and depressed. Characteristics of the family with psychosomatics are: excessive emotional interference, tendency to overprotection, family rigidity and weakness of the family in solving problems and conflicts [29]. Emotional interference manifests itself through very weak psychological boundaries between parents and children and through poor self-differentiation. Each family member interferes with the independence of the other member. Loyalty is extremely important to the family. There is no privacy or individuality. If one family member speaks, the other immediately interrupts him. He rarely speaks on his own behalf, and personal attitudes and personal feelings are not expressed. The support and concerns that otherwise exist in most families are overemphasized in these families. In them, everyone protects everyone. When there is a hint of any disagreement, conflict, etc. the mutual need for protection is activated too quickly. The rigid family of psychosomatics has a pronounced inability to adapt to the changing demands placed on it. Family members find it difficult to verbalize most or only some of their feelings (eg fear, anger, anxiety, love ...) The family teaches its members to hide tension through their behavioral patterns [30]. The adolescent protests with his body. He has not learned that anxiety, love, anger can be freely expressed through words. He empties the energy of his feelings, especially unpleasant ones, such as anger and rage, through bodily symptoms.

5. RESEARCH METHOD

5.1 Sample of respondents

The respondents in this research were students of the eighth grade of primary schools in the urban area of the municipality of Milići. A total of 210 students participated in the survey. Eleven respondents were excluded from further processing because they come from a family with only one parent. Some of the respondents filled in the questionnaires incorrectly or incompletely, which resulted in a further reduction of the sample. The final sample therefore consisted of 180 students. Out of that, 90 students were male and 90 female.

5.2 Sample instruments

- The CRPBI (Children's Reports of Parental Behavior Inventory) was designed by Earl S. Schaefer in 1965. The original version has 260 particles distributed in 26 scales with 10 particles each. Due to the time inefficiency of the original questionnaire, several abbreviated versions have been developed [31].

The CRPBI has four forms: the form in which the child evaluates the mother's behavior toward herself, the form in which the child evaluates the father's behavior toward himself, the form in which the mother evaluates her behavior toward the child, and the form in which the father evaluates his behavior toward the child. Two forms of questionnaires were used in this paper: the form in which the child assesses the mother's behavior towards herself and the form in which the child assesses the father's behavior towards himself.

- The revised USA-r Shyness and Assertiveness Questionnaire was used to measure school children's shyness and assertiveness. The questionnaire has two versions: the Shyness and Assertiveness Questionnaire for Male Respondents (USAM-r), while the second version is for the Female Respondent (USAF-r). They differ in several particles from the first part of the shyness scale (particles 1, 2 and 4) that describe situations of heterosexual interaction [32]. These particles are adapted to the differences that exist in the behavior of women and men, and are a consequence of the adoption of gender roles. All other particles are equal, ie. contain a description of equal situations. The number of reactions in both versions of the questionnaire is thus the same, ie. 45 reactions. Both forms of the questionnaire are attached in Annex 2. The task of the respondent is to choose one of the four offered answers that best represents his behavior,

5.3 Statistical data processing

The results will first present the basic statistical indicators of the variables used regarding parental behavior and shyness and assertiveness of children: arithmetic mean (M), standard deviation (q), minimum and maximum result, data on the reliability of instruments used using Cronbach's alpha coefficient and data obtained by testing the normality of the Kolmogorov – Smirnov distribution congruence test. Since the overall results on the scale of shyness and assertiveness for males and females are calculated from different particles, all further processing of these results was done especially for boys, especially for girls.

6. RESULTS

Table 1. Basic statistical indicators for variables of parental behavior (N = 180).

Scale	M	q	min.	max.	KS Z	Crombach alpha	number of particles
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PO M	2.1 7	0.2 3	1.44	2.64	0.89	0.88	29
PPP	1.6 8	0.3 5	1.00	2.76	1.08	0.83	18
BK M	2.1 1	0.3 2	1.10	2.80	1.09	0.62	10
POO	2.0 7	0.2 2	1.56	3.53	0.78	0.91	29
PKO	1.6 3	0.3 5	1.00	2.81	0.98	0.84	18
BKO	2.0 8	0.3 4	1.20	3.00	1.24	0.67	10

POM - a result on the scale of maternal acceptance; PPP - result on the scale of maternal psychological control; BKM - result on the scale of maternal behavioral control; POO - result on the scale of father's acceptance; PKO - result on the scale of father's psychological control; BKO - result on the scale of the father's behavioral control

Table 2. Basic statistical indicators for scales of shyness and assertiveness for male and female respondents (N boys = 90, N girls = 90)

Scale	M	q	min	max	KS Z	Crombach alpha	number of particles
SRAM M	39.03	9.49	23	69	1.07	0.86	21
ASER M	51.12	11.4	27	80	0.57	0.82	24
SRAM F	49.12	9.30	29	70	0.98	0.82	26
ASERF	43.83	9.11	25	70	0.57	0.83	19

SRAMM - score on the shyness scale for boys; ASERM - score on the assertiveness scale for boys; SRAMF - a result on the scale of shyness for girls; ASERF - score on the assertiveness scale for girls

The Kolmogorov-Smirnov test tested the normality of the distribution of results on the scales of parental behavior, and the scales of shyness and assertiveness. No distribution deviates significantly from the normal curve at a significance level of 5%. The obtained results are in line with expectations because the mentioned variables are distributed according to the principle of a bell-shaped curve. In order to determine the reliability of the questionnaires used, internal consistency coefficients were calculated. Cronbach's alpha coefficients were calculated based on the individual particles of each CRPBI scale, and especially for the shyness scale and the assertiveness scale for males and females. For CRPBI scales, the coefficients range from 0.62 to 0.91. The dimensions of maternal and paternal acceptance of the child have the highest reliability, 0.88 for the mother and 0.91 for the father. The dimensions of behavioral control, both maternal (0.62) and

paternal (0.67), have the lowest reliability. The obtained coefficients of reliability are equal to those listed in the literature, even slightly higher. Shyness and assertiveness scales for both sexes show satisfactory reliability, ranging from 0.82 for the shyness scale in girls to 0.86 for the shyness scale in boys. The obtained results are very similar to the values shown in the literature [33].

The first problem of this study was to examine gender differences in children's perceptions of parental behavior of mothers and fathers. To answer this problem, the analysis of variance with repeated measurements was used in the processing of the results. Accordingly, we determined the variance between families with male or female children, as the effect of gender of the child (independent factor), and the variance within the family, between estimates of behavior of male and female parents, as the effect of gender of parents (dependent factor). The results of the performed analyzes are shown in Table 3.

Table 3. Basic results of a complex analysis of variance, for each of the three dimensions of parental behavior, as a function of half of the child and half of the parents

	Source of variability	F relationship	P
Acceptance-rejection	gender of the child	1.20	0.28
	gender of parents	43.10	0.00
	interaction	3.26	0.07
Psychological control	gender of the child	3.04	0.08
	gender of parents	4.80	0.03
	interaction	1.03	0.31
Behavioral control	gender of the child	0.04	0.84
	gender of parents	1.98	0.16
	interaction	0.67	0.41

The obtained results show that the main effect of parental sex is statistically significant for two dimensions of parental behavior, that is, there is a statistically significant difference between assessments of parental and paternal parental behavior as seen by their children. The two dimensions on which mother and father are assessed are the acceptance-rejection dimension (F = 43.10, p <0.01) and the psychological control dimension (F = 4.80, p <0.05). The average values of assessments of maternal behavior on scales and these two dimensions are higher than the average values of assessments of father's behavior on the same scales. This means that children assess the behavior of mothers as more acceptable than the behavior of fathers (Mmajka = 2.17, Motac = 2.07, total for boys and girls). Mothers also control

their children more psychologically than fathers (Mmajka = 1.68, Motac = 1.63).

No statistically significant F-ratio was found for the second main effect, ie the sex effect of the child, on any of the assessed dimensions of parental behavior. That is, no statistically significant difference was found between the estimates of boys and girls. It follows that boys and girls evaluate parental behavior equally accepting, and psychologically and behaviorally controlling, that is, parents treat children equally regardless of the child's gender.

The F-ratio of the interaction between the variables of parental sex and child sex is also not statistically significant on any of the assessed dimensions of parental behavior. This means that there is no statistically significant difference in the assessments of parental behavior of boys between boys and girls, nor in the assessments of fathers' behavior given by children of different sexes.

Given that the analysis of variance found that there is no statistically significant difference in assessments of parental behavior of mothers and fathers towards male or female children in any dimension, we can conclude that children of both sexes can be viewed as a single group in terms of parental behavior. The question is whether we can view children as a unique group regardless of gender and given the results obtained in the Questionnaire of Shyness and Assertiveness. Thus, another problem of this research was to examine gender differences in shyness and assertiveness of school children. To answer this problem, the t-test for large independent samples was used. However, since the overall results on the scale of shyness and assertiveness for males and females are calculated from different particles, ie some particles are projected on different scales, in determining the differences between the groups, only those particles were taken into account that are common to the two groups in the scale of shyness, ie in the scale of assertiveness. Thus, in both sexes, the first 21 particles are projected on the shyness scale, and averages are determined and the difference in responses to these particles is tested. The last 19 particles are projected on both poles on the assertiveness scale and the difference in assertiveness was tested using average results on the last 19 particles. The obtained results are shown in Tables 4 and 5. The last 19 particles are projected on both poles on the assertiveness scale and the difference in assertiveness was tested using average results on the last 19 particles. The obtained results are shown in Tables 5 and 6. The last 19 particles are projected on both poles on the assertiveness scale and the difference in assertiveness was tested using average results on the last 19 particles. The obtained results are shown in Tables 4 and 5.

Table 4. Arithmetic means and standard deviations of the results on the first 21 particles of the shyness scale for both sexes, and the t-value of the difference between the results of these two groups.

Pol	N	M	q	t-value	df	p
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boys	90	39.03	9.49	0.80	178	0.43
girls	90	40.08	8.00			

Table 5. Arithmetic means and standard deviations of the results on the last 19 particles of the assertiveness scale for both sexes, and the t-value of the difference between the results of these two groups.

Pol	N	M	q	t-value	df	p
boys	90	40.68	9.20	2.31	178	0.02
girls	90	43.83	9.11			

The results show that there is no statistically significant difference on the same parts of the shyness scale between boys and girls. However, boys and girls differ statistically significantly according to the results on the same parts of the assertiveness scale with a significance level of 5% in the direction of greater assertiveness of boys.

The third problem of this research was to examine the predictiveness of parental behavior for shyness and assertiveness of school children. To determine whether there is a correlation between the dimensions of parental behavior, shyness and assertiveness, the correlation coefficients between the variables of parental behavior, and shyness and assertiveness of boys and girls were first calculated. At the same time, no variable of maternal behavior was statistically significantly related to children's characteristics. The father's acceptance of the child is statistically significantly positively correlated with a higher score on the Assertiveness Scale, ie with the boy's non-assertiveness (0.22, $p < 0.05$), while father's psychological control was positively associated with shyness in girls (0.27, $p < 0.05$). The boy's non-assertiveness was also positively associated with the father's behavioral control (0.25, $p < 0.05$).

Almost all dimensions of parental behavior are statistically significantly related. At the same time, the highest correlation coefficients are between assessments of maternal and paternal behavior on the same dimensions, 0.54, $p < 0.01$ for the acceptance dimension, 0.52, $p < 0.01$ for the psychological control dimension, and 0.41, $p < 0.01$ for behavioral control. There is also a high correlation between the father's acceptance and his behavioral control, 0.50, $p < 0.01$, and the father's behavioral control is significantly negatively correlated with his psychological control, -0.28, $p < 0.01$. In the mother, a high correlation was found between her acceptance and behavioral control, 0.32, $p < 0.01$. Regarding the connection between different dimensions in two parents, the highest connection between father's acceptance and mother's behavioral control is 0.25, $p < 0.01$.

A slightly lower but significant correlation exists between maternal acceptance and paternal behavioral control, 0.16, $p < 0.05$, and between paternal psychological and maternal behavioral control, 0.15, $p < 0.05$.

The expected connection between the two dimensions in children has also been established. Shyness and non-assertiveness in boys are highly positively correlated, 0.43, $p < 0.01$. The same direction of association, with an even higher coefficient, was found in girls, 0.56, $p < 0.01$. These dimensions are not correlated between boys and girls, as the overall scores on shyness and assertiveness in boys and girls are calculated from different particles.

The results shown in Table 7 show that the dimensions of parental behavior and gender of the child do not contribute significantly to the prediction of child shyness. The results in Table 8 show that the dimensions of parental behavior and gender of the child also do not significantly contribute to the prediction of children's assertiveness.

Table 7. Results of regression analysis conducted with dimensions of parental behavior and gender of the child as predictors and shyness of children as a criterion

	R	R2	R2kor	F	p
shame	0.14	0.02	-0.02	0.46	0.86

continuation of the table

β pol	β POM	β PPP	β BKM	β POO	β PKO	β BKO
0.07	0.02	0.07	-0.08	-0.07	0.04	0.07

gender - gender of the child; POM - maternal acceptance; PPP - maternal psychological control; BKM - maternal behavioral control; POO - father's acceptance; PKO - father's psychological control; BKO - father's behavioral control

Table 8. Results of regression analysis conducted with dimensions of parental behavior and gender of the child as predictors and assertiveness of children as a criterion

	R	R2	R2kor	F	p
shame	0.26	0.07	0.03	1.73	0.11

continuation of the table

β pol	β POM	β PPP	β BKM	β POO	β PKO	β BKO
0.17	-0.09	-0.15	-0.01	0.10	0.17	0.11

gender - gender of the child; POM - maternal acceptance; PPP - maternal psychological control; BKM - maternal behavioral control; POO - father's acceptance; PKO - father's psychological control; BKO - father's behavioral control

7. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The first problem of this research was to examine gender differences in children's perceptions of parental behavior of mothers and fathers, ie to determine whether fathers and mothers differ in the dimensions of parental behavior and whether they behave differently towards children of different

sexes. To address this problem, analyzes of variance with repeated measurements were performed for each of the dimensions of parental behavior, with some variance between families with male and female children, as the effect of gender of the child (independent factor), and variance within family, between assessment of male and female parent behavior, as a parental gender effect (dependent factor). The obtained results show that the main effect of parental sex is statistically significant for two dimensions of parental behavior, ie, that there is a statistically significant difference between assessments of parental and paternal parental behavior as seen by their children. The two dimensions on which mother and father are assessed are the acceptance-rejection dimension ($F = 43.10, p < 0.01$) and the psychological control dimension ($F = 4.80, p < 0.05$). In both cases, mothers achieve a higher score than fathers, which means that children assess mothers' behavior as more acceptable than fathers' behavior, and more psychologically controlling than fathers. In the dimension of behavioral control, assessments of the behavior of mothers and fathers do not differ significantly. The main effect of child gender did not prove to be statistically significant for either dimension of parental behavior. It follows that children of both sexes assess parental behavior equally on all three dimensions.

The impossibility of proving the connection between the sex of the child and parental behavior can be partly explained by the weaknesses of the measuring instruments used [34]. In this paper, parental behavior was measured only on the basis of children's assessments. In some other studies, where these effects have been confirmed, data on parental behavior have been collected in a number of different ways. Future research should take into account methodological improvements that increase the likelihood of confirming hypotheses arising from theoretical considerations.

Namely, we expect different behavior of parents towards children of different sexes [35]. In the background of the expected effects are different expectations that parents, and the whole society, have towards boys and girls. Girls are expected to adopt those values and behaviors that are consistent with the female gender role, and boys are expected to adopt those values that are consistent with the male gender role. It is these differences in parental expectations that lead to different goals in upbringing, and this entails the use of different upbringing procedures and specific parental behaviors towards children of different genders [36]. One possible explanation for the lack of these differences in recent research is that the differences between male and female roles are diminishing, ie they are no longer so pronounced in education.

The notion of androgyny, which includes the positive features of both roles, is becoming more and more prominent. That is, in boys, tenderness, prudence, prosocial behavior are emphasized, just as girls are taught to be independent, dominant and the like. Parental behavior with respect to the sex of the child is a problem that requires further research. Future research could include a questionnaire on parents'

understanding of gender roles, and examine how this relates to their upbringing of male and female children, respectively. Another problem with this research was to examine gender differences in shyness and assertiveness of school children. To answer this problem, a t-test for large independent samples was used. However, since the overall results on the scale of shyness and assertiveness for males and females are calculated from different particles, ie some particles are projected on different scales, only those particles that are common to the two groups on the scale were taken into account when determining differences between groups. shyness, ie on the scale of assertiveness [37].

The results show that there is no statistically significant difference on identical parts of the shyness scale between boys and girls. However, boys and girls differ statistically significantly according to the results on the same parts of the assertiveness scale ($t = 2.31, p < 0.05$) in the direction of greater assertiveness of boys.

It has been found that girls from the earliest age to adolescence are more shy than boys. In adolescence, there is no longer such a pronounced difference in the prevalence of shyness. Since the respondents in this study are in the mentioned years of related shyness, ie 13, 14-15 years, which is equalized between the sexes in those years, we can conclude that the non-statistically significant difference between girls and boys of this age is consistent with settings from the literature.

In the upbringing of most parents, assertive behavior of boys is encouraged and supported, while the same forms of behavior in girls are suppressed and criticized as inappropriate [38].

To determine the contribution of parental behavior in interpreting a child's shyness and assertiveness, regression analyzes were performed with dimensions of parental behavior and gender of the child as predictors, and results on the shyness scale and the assertiveness scale as criteria. Since only 90 boys and 90 girls participated in the study, ie. these are relatively small samples, it did not make sense to do regression especially for boys, especially for girls, but regression analysis was performed for the whole sample [39]. With a larger number of respondents in the regression analysis, ie. with more degrees of freedom, we are more confident in the conclusions we draw at the population level. However, as the total results on the scale of shyness and the scale of assertiveness for males and females are calculated from different particles, ie some particles are projected on different scales, only those particles that are common to the two groups on the scale of shyness, ie on the scale of assertiveness, were taken into the criterion variable. In order to determine the influence of the child's gender on the criterion, a gender predictor was included in both regressions. Thus, two regression analyzes were performed with six predictors of parental behavior and a predictor of gender of the child, and with one criterion in children, together for boys and girls [40].

We will observe the results both at the level of the intercorrelation matrix and at the level of regression analysis.

Since these variables are interrelated, their inclusion in the regression analysis necessarily gives the results according to which some significant individual predictor becomes insignificant. Only three significant associations of parental behavior with traits in children have been identified. At the same time, no variable of maternal behavior was statistically significantly related to children's characteristics. Father's acceptance is statistically significantly positively correlated with a higher score on the assertiveness scale, ie with a lower assertiveness of boys ($0.22, p < 0.05$). Boys' non-assertiveness was also positively associated with father's behavioral control ($0.25, p < 0.05$), while father's psychological control was positively associated with shyness in girls ($0.27, p < 0.05$).

The hypotheses from which we started are that parental behavior affects the shyness and assertiveness of children. We expect less parental acceptance and greater psychological and behavioral control to contribute to the development of shyness and non-assertiveness in children. The insignificance of the predictors used in the prediction of child behavior is not in line with expectations. Research shows that in approximately two-thirds of adults, shyness is the result of parenting practices and parenting methods. The emotional influence between the parent (guardian) and the child has the strongest influence on the development of shyness, especially in the first years of life. If this connection does not lead to a strong development of attachment, the possibility of shy behavior later in life increases. On the other side, overprotection also contributes to the development of shyness by the child not developing the necessary social skills. Both too high and too low parental expectations contribute to the development of shyness.

Predictors of parental behavior have not been shown to be significant in predicting children's shyness. But a significant correlation was obtained, in the expected direction, between the psychological control of the father and the shyness of the girls. Upbringing also plays a very important role in the development of assertiveness in children. The obtained results are not in line with expectations here either. Similar to shyness, but in the opposite direction, we expect that greater assertiveness is associated with greater acceptance, and less psychological and behavioral control of parents. Predictors of parental behavior did not prove significant in predicting children's assertiveness, however, two significant associations were found between father behavior and boy's assertiveness, with greater behavioral control expected to be associated with boys' assertiveness. while the unexpected direction of the connection between the greater father's acceptance and the boy's less assertiveness. However, both correlations are relatively low and become insignificant in a set of multiple predictors.

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