

6

**ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY
SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES**



**THE TEACHER-CHILD RELATIONSHIP PATTERNS AS
CORRELATES OF CHILDREN'S SCHOOL ADJUSTMENT IN
KINDERGARTEN.**

The case of Dire Dawa

FISSEHA MIKRE

**JUNE, 2001
ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY**

6

**ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY
SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES**



**THE TEACHER-CHILD RELATIONSHIP PATTERNS AS
CORRELATES OF CHILDREN'S SCHOOL ADJUSTMENT IN
KINDERGARTEN.**

The case of Dire Dawa

FISSEHA MIKRE

**JUNE, 2001
ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY**

6

**ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY
SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES**



**THE TEACHER-CHILD RELATIONSHIP PATTERNS AS
CORRELATES OF CHILDREN'S SCHOOL ADJUSTMENT IN
KINDERGARTEN.**

The case of Dire Dawa

FISSEHA MIKRE

**JUNE, 2001
ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY**

**THE TEACHER-CHILD RELATIONSHIP PATTERNS AS
CORRELATES OF CHILDREN'S SCHOOL ADJUSTMENT IN
KINDERGARTEN.**

**A Thesis Presented to the
School of Graduate Studies
Addis Ababa University**

**In Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of
Master of Arts in Educational Psychology**



FISSEHA MIKRE

JUNE, 2001

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

I would like to express my heart-felt gratitude and admiration to my advisor Dr. Makonnin Yimer, for his unreserved, constructive suggestions and encouragement in conducting this research.

I am very grateful to my wife, Fantu Zerga, for her genuine assistance from the beginning up to the end.

Finally, my heart-felt thanks and respect go to all my instructors and friends who helped me in various ways while attending my M.A. study and in preparing this thesis.



Fisseha Mikre

ABSTRACT

Teacher reports of children's relationship, competence and problem behaviors are important sources of information in school psychology. This study examines teacher-child relationships as correlates of children's school adjustment paradigm. Patterns of kindergarten teacher's perceptions of their relationship with children were described in a cluster analysis for 305 children on a teacher report measure.

Three patterns of relationships were described: More positively involved, functional average, and negatively involved. Children in the three patterns significantly differ in school adjustment. Children with whom kindergarten teachers reported a positive relationship were better adjusted in school and had warm, close and communicative relationships than those whom the teachers report negative relationships.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	PAGE
ACKNOWLEDGMENT	<i>i</i>
ABSTRACT	<i>ii</i>
LIST OF TABLES	<i>v</i>
CHAPTER - ONE	
1. INTRODUCTION	1-5
1.1 <i>Background of the Study</i>	1
1.2 <i>Statement of the Problem</i>	3
1.3 <i>Objectives of the Study</i>	4
1.4 <i>Significance of the Study</i>	4
1.5 <i>Delimitation of the Study</i>	5
1.6 <i>Limitation of the Study</i>	5
1.7 <i>Definition of Terms</i>	5
CHAPTER-TWO	
REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE	6-31
2.1 <i>The History of Kindergarten Education</i>	6
2.2 <i>The Critical Nature of Early Years</i>	11
2.3 <i>The Nature-Nurture Interaction</i>	13
2.4 <i>Influence of parenting Style</i>	15
2.5 <i>Teacher-Child Relationships</i>	18
2.6 <i>Adjustment in the Kindergarten</i>	27
CHAPTER THREE	
DESIGN OF THE STUDY	32-35
3.1 <i>The Subjects and Sampling</i>	32
3.2 <i>Instruments</i>	32
3.3 <i>Variables Used in the Study</i>	34
3.4 <i>Procedure of Data Collection</i>	34
3.5 <i>Data Analysis</i>	35
CHAPTER-FOUR	
RESULTS OF THE STUDY	36-44
CHAPTER FIVE	
DISCUSSION	45-55
5.1 <i>Teacher-Child Relationship Patterns</i>	45
5.2 <i>Children's School Adjustment Differences among the Relationship Patterns</i>	48

5.3	<i>Gender Difference in Teacher-Child Relationship and in School Adjustment</i>	50
-----	---	----

CHAPTER SIX

	SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS	52-55
--	--	--------------

6.1	<i>Summary</i>	52
-----	----------------	----

6.2	<i>Conclusion</i>	53
-----	-------------------	----

6.2	<i>Recommendations</i>	54
-----	------------------------	----

	REFERENCES	56-62
--	-------------------	--------------

APPENDICES

LIST OF TABLES

TABLE		PAGE
1	<i>Number of Observations, Means, and Standard Deviations for the Teacher-child Relationship Score of the Three patterns</i>	36
2	<i>ANOVA Summary Table for Cluster Solution of the Teacher-Child Relationship</i>	37
3	<i>Paired Cluster Mean Differences in Teacher Child Relationship</i>	38
4	<i>ANOVA Summary Table for School Adjustment Difference Among the Relationship Patterns</i>	39
5	<i>Mean Differences Test for the School Adjustment Variable</i>	39
6	<i>Number of Observations, Means, and Standard Deviations of the Teacher-Child Relationship and School Adjustment for Boys and Girls</i>	40
7	<i>Mean Differences Test (t-test) for Boys and Girls</i>	41
8	<i>Cluster Differentiation in Subscale Scores</i>	42
9	<i>Correlation of Teacher-Child Relationship and Adjustment to school</i>	44

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Study

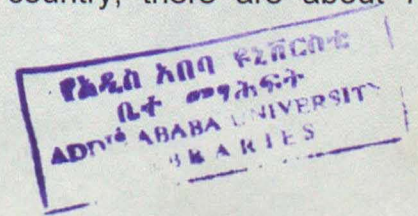
At present education theory pays a greater conviction to the primacy of social processes in learning and development, and suggests that teacher-child relationships both social and emotional may play a meaningful role in schooling. Good interpersonal relations are of primary importance in effective teaching and learning (Entwistle, 1988; Gammage 1996). There is a considerable research base on the influence of teacher's behavior on students learning and performance (Brophy & Good, 1974).

Individual differences in children's attachment to parents/care givers are linked with differences in school adjustment and learning. Child attachment to care givers is linked with peer relations, problem solving and school adjustment (Pianta, 1996, 1997). As Darge (1997) put it, caregivers support and general supervision in academic matters contribute to the achievement and self-adjustment of children. Children with secure attachment to their mothers, required less discipline, received, more instruction, engaged in more spontaneous reading and showed a better performance in schooling than children with insecure attachment (Pianta, 1994, 1996; Patrica et al, 1996). Securely attached children are active in exploration and readily settled by the caregiver when distressed. Whereas anxiously attached children show poor exploration, are difficult to settle, or avoidant of the caregiver when distressed. Insecure attachment was related to eliciting rejection from peers and adults in preschool and learning problems (Sroufe, 1995: 129).

The teacher-child relationship especially in the Kindergarten is a potentially valuable target of study in respect to patterns of child behavior, beliefs and feelings previously developed in the context of parent/mother-child attachment relationship (Erickson and Pianta, 1989 in Pianta 1994:16). Experiences with caregivers/parents greatly influence patterns of expectations of self and others and feelings of self worth, trust and motivation that preschoolers' bring to, and enact in relationships with a teacher. Patterns of teacher-child relationships in Kindergarten (eg. Conflict, open/close, and dependent) are related both to behavior in the home and are predictive of subsequent school adjustment (Pianta, 1996: 1). Howes and Hamilton (1992) asserted that, during the early school years, teachers may assume a parent-surrogate role with the children they teach, and may develop a relationship with the child that has salience for certain developmental outcomes.

In traditional Ethiopia, the Priests and the Sheiks use to gather children of their village to teach them basic literacy and religious matters. And they use to discipline and shape the behavior of children through beating, pinching and threatening. As in any area of human interaction some participants may have more power than others and so may be able to enforce their definition of the situation upon others (Delamont, 1983: 27).

The first modern kindergarten was established in Dire Dawa in 1908 by the Embassy of France and was meant to the children of Ethio-Franco railway line workers. Kindergarten establishment in Addis Ababa began around 1950 by a welfare organization and international community (Bizunesh, 1983 as cited by Shewakena 1997: 13). At present, all over the country, there are about 793



kindergartens accommodating 90,321 i.e. 46091 boys and 44230 girls; which the participation rate is a mere 1.7% and considered insignificant out of 5 million children who are in their age of preschool education. Moreover, as Shewakena (1997: 4) cited from Bizunesh (1983), the training as well as the competence of the teachers were inadequate in handling the diversified behavior of children. They show a tendency to deal and relate with all children in the same way. This condition initiated the student-researcher to address on the teacher-child relationship patterns and children's school adjustment in kindergarten.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

As early foundations are critical, it is believed that the preschool years where children stay in kindergarten are the bases of all round development. Teachers' feelings about a child, their observation of the child's interactive behavior with them and their judgement about feelings toward him are all related with his cognitive, affective, emotional, and social development and adjustment. As a result, this research will be conducted to describe the typology of relationship patterns of teachers and children, and children's school adjustment in kindergartens of Dire Dawa town. And it will attempt to answer the following basic questions:

1. What types of teacher-child relationship patterns are there in kindergarten?
2. Is there significant variation in the children's school adjustment among the relationship patterns?
3. Does the teacher-child relationship pattern significantly different for boys and girls?
4. Do the boys and the girls significantly different in their school adjustment?

1.3. Objectives of the study

- The outcome of this study may help kindergarten teachers and administrators to optimize each child's adjustment to their program.
- It may be helpful for school counselors and parents to make the necessary intervention in the child's school adjustment.
- In addition, it will serve as a basis for further research development in the area of teacher-child relationship in the kindergarten.

1.4. Significance of the Study

This study will have a potential value to education policy makers; kindergarten teacher trainers, administrators, teachers, school counselors and parents since the early years of the child are influential in his later development.

- Education policy makers may consider the teacher-child relationships described in devising the policy of kindergarten education and teacher training.
- The outcome of this study may help kindergarten teachers and administrators to optimize each child's adjustment to their program.
- It may be helpful for school counselors and parents to make the necessary intervention in the child's school adjustment.
- In addition, it will serve as a basis for further research development in the area of teacher-child relationship in the kindergarten.

1.5. Delimitation of the study

This research study was conducted on female, trained kindergarten teachers and children of eight kindergartens in Dire Dawa town.

1.6. Limitation of the study

The teacher-child relationship scale (TCRS) has certain limitations which stem from its reliance on the teacher's perspective to assess teacher-child relationships, although the items appear to describe both teacher's and children's perspectives (Lynch & Cicchetti, 1992; Pianta, 1994). However, this possibility would not necessarily diminish the validity and utility of the scale.

1.7. Definition of Terms

Kindergarten – a school for the pre-primary years preceding the first grade between the age of four and six.

Kindergarten Teacher – a female after completing grade 12th, trained for some time and teaches in the kindergarten.

Patterns – definite direction, tendency or characteristics; as relationship patterns, behavior patterns, etc.

Relationships – the connection between or among persons in business/or private affairs; relationships have a history, a memory, they are patterns of interactions, expectations, beliefs and affects organized at a level more abstract than observable behavior.

School Adjustment – to the extent that a child has the skills and is able to meet the demands and expectations set forth in the school setting, that child is likely to be well adjusted. ?

CHAPTER TWO

2.Review of the Related Literature

The following points will be discussed in this chapter: the history of kindergarten education, the critical nature of early years, the nature-nurture interaction, influence of parenting style, teacher-child relationships, and adjustment in the kindergarten.

2.1 The History of Kindergarten Education

Education is believed to have an extensive history, and the development of educational theory and practice extends from Greek philosophers, such as Socrates (469-399 B.C), Plato (425-347 B.C) and Aristotle (384-322 B.C), through the Roman Empire, into the Middle Ages, the Renaissance, and on to more recent centuries (Feeney et. al., 1987).

Nevertheless, early childhood education as a distinct discipline had its beginning with Johann Pestalozzi (1746-1827) as the nineteenth century began. It can be said that early childhood education is a new field, though it has old roots. The past philosophers, writers and educators suggested many of the significant aspects and practices found in today's kindergartens.

To begin with, Plato and Aristotle speculated the importance of beginning education for young children. Both saw human beings as essentially good, emphasized the development of mind and body, and suggested that children ought to be directed to learning by what amuses their mind to discover with accuracy their unique natural skill. However, up to the end of the Middle Ages,

children were regarded as small adults and given no special consideration or treatment (Feeney et. al, 1987).

Martin Luther (1483-1546), the religious reformer of the Renaissance period advocated that school should develop the intellectual, religious, physical, emotional and social qualities of children. John Amos Comenius (1592-1670) also stressed the importance of teaching children while they are young; and advocated learning by doing and may have been the first to advocate learning through play. He also realized that improved education resulted in improved social relations. In his view children should learn by observation and doing, and by use rather than precept; discipline for children should be mild (Lambert, 1960; Foster & Headley, 1959; Feeney et. al, 1987).

Rousseau (1712-1778) gave special attention to the concept of childhood education. He felt that childhood is a unique time when a child should not be considered as a small adult-filled with original sin. Instead, the child has to be seen as a natural being in his own right who needed complete freedom to grow and develop. He, then, was most concerned with helping the child to develop naturally, to unfold, and blossom to the greatest extent possible. According to Rousseau, the best education for the child is education which least hampered the development of the pupils natural ways. To him the natural impulses of the child were good; thus, expression rather than repression were a fundamental tenet of education (Lambert, 1960; Austin, 1976; Feeney et. al, 1987).

Johann Pestalozzi (1746-1827), a Swiss educator who was influenced by the romantic philosophers including Rousseau, devoted his life to the education of children particularly for the orphaned and the poor. He believed that education should be based on the natural development of children and that every child was capable of learning. He rejected the practice of simple memorization and advocated sensory exploration and observation as the basis of child learning. He was also concerned with teaching human relationships; His aim was to awaken a feeling of brotherhood, make children affectionate, just, and considerate (Lambert, 1960; Feeney et. al, 1987).

Robert Owen (1771-1858), an English social philosopher, and controversial reformer was a disciple of Pestalozzi. He established schools to improve the lives of children who from the age of six worked long hours in the mills along side their parents. Owen believed that education, starting with the very young, together with an environment that allowed people to live by the principle of mutual consideration, could transform the nature of people and society. He did not believe in pressuring and punishing children to learn; rather he showed children the negative consequences of their action. Sensory learning, stories and visitors from the community were included in the school program in an attempt to make school relevant and interesting (Feeney et. al, 1987).

Many of the practices originated in Owens schools can still be found in todays carly childhood programs. They include periods of time which the children choose for their activities, emphasis on a warm, nurturing and

nonpunitive teacher, and the use of spontaneous play, singing and dancing as features of the education of children under the age of six (Lambert, 1960; Feeney et. al, 1987).

Friederic Froebel (1782 – 1852) of German parentage became convinced that the most needed reform in education is concern for young children. Froebel opened a school for little children in which play, games, songs, talking, painting, gardening, modeling, weaving, looking at pictures and listening to stories were important features. Moreover, all these were intended to foster inventiveness and skill development. He called this school kindergarten (Literally children's garden), because he believed that educating children is similar to cultivating plants. Moreover, the name is still used for children of four to six. Froebel gave emphasis to the idea that education comes chiefly from doing, and because he recognized the value of play as an educational force in the lives of children; play and games became prominent features of his kindergarten (Foster and Headley, 1959; Lambert, 1960). Besides establishing the kindergarten, he set up an institute to train young women to become kindergarten teachers (Feeney et. al. 1987).

Maria Montessori (1870 – 1952) has had great influence on the education of young children. Unlike Froebel, she saw no value in play. She did recognize, however, the need for children to participate in the work of the school. Children worked by themselves with materials designed by her in such a way that children could see their own errors and made their own corrections. The teacher played the role of a guide and was ready to give assistance when needed (Lambert,

1960). She also highly emphasized that early childhood is the richest and extremely valuable period which ought to be utilized by education in every possible way, and warned that the waste of this period of life can not be compensated (Cllermont, 1973).

Montessori's emphasis, however, was on the child's assumption of responsibility, because to her there was no freedom without independence. She wished to see children become increasingly independent of the teacher. Moreover, she emphasized on the need to recognize differences in children and the need to adapt work to the individual; and the role of the school in improving the community and the need for working closely with parents. She also believed that children could learn best through their own direct sensory experience of the world (Foster & Headley, 1959; Lambert, 1960; Feeney et. al, 1987).

Kindergarten education in Ethiopia was introduced ninety years back (Bizunesh, 1983). Nevertheless, there were only 77 kindergartens until 1973. Twenty years later; i.e in 1993 the number of kindergartens increased to 550; in 1994 this number was raised to 652; and in 1995 it became 678. Moreover, in 1998 the number of kindergarten reached to 793. In 1973 the total number enrolled was 7,573 with an average of 98 children per kindergarten, while by 1998 this number increased to 90321 and the average number of children enrolled had risen to about 115 per kindergarten (MOE, 1998:40).

Concerning kindergarten teachers training, a beginning was made with the training of 20 young ladies in 1971 at the Ras Desta Community Center in

Addis Ababa for six months. This training center moved to Debrezeit in August 1972 and began training kindergarten teachers extending the course to one solid year (Shewakena, 1997:13).

Besides, in 1978 the Ministry of Education in collaboration with UNICEF opened kindergarten teachers training institute in Addis Ababa, Yekatit 12 secondary school (MOE, 1984:54). The courses organized in this institute last three months. Similarly, kindergarten teachers training programme has been introduced in Dessie Teachers' training institute by May 1994 with the training duration of three months. At present, there are about five additional private vocational institutes in Addis which train kindergarten teachers from three to ten months' duration.

2.2 The Critical Nature of Early Years

There is a general belief that the early years are critical for later development of a person (Sroufe, 1995:203). In addition, many of the personality elements of an individual may be established in these years. As Diane (1992:6) quoted it from Freudian theory, personality is shaped primarily by the emotional relationship we have in the early years. Opposingly Kohlberg, Ricks and Snarey (1984) in Macra and Costa (1988:418) put that "The common belief that the experiences of early years of life determine the development of a person for the rest of his/her life is generally a myth". As Scar et. al (1981:896) showed , child rearing practices, social class, religion, diet and so on influence

on early years account only for a small proportion of variance to determine personality which is not too much to excite the environmentalists.

However, many research findings are still reporting that the experiences of early years are determinants of later life. The child with successful early adaptation would be more likely to succeed in later phase (Sroufe, 1995:218). As discussed by Bowlby (1973), earlier development may set the course for later development. Infact 50 percent of general intelligence develops between birth and 5 years of age (Ballantine, 1993). For example as Heath (1989) stated it, early learning experiences provided to children by their parents/teachers establish much of what may be learned, how and when it will be taught, and the rate of learning. In Campbell and Ramey's (1994) view, the Child's cognitive, social and emotional development should be enhanced through strengthening the intellectual, the social, the affect stimulus values and developmental appropriateness of the early environment. They further speculated that early success in life should increase the likelihood of later success, leading inturn to an eventual command of higher-paying jobs and other social and cultural rewards. In Ballantine (1993:32) statement, preschool education is positively related to higher graduation and employment rates and lower detention, and arrest rates, this result overall reduced rates for special schooling and other social programs.

Walker et.al (1994) argue that lower school performance and poor life appear to be related with cumulative early experiences that appear little

influenced by later schooling. In addition, the implications for prevention lie in terms of improved prediction coupled with early, multilevel, and systematic interventions in the home and in schools.

Sroufe (1990) conceived personality as an inner organization of attitudes, beliefs and values. Key features of such organization include individual degree of openness to the range of emotional experiences, unique styles or regulation capacities and their expectations about others and relationships in the process. Moreover, he insisted that it is early and it is by the preschool period that a coherent and stable self/personality in this sense may be said to be established,

The popular early education theorist Maria Montessori (1870-1952) was also very much interested in the first years of life. She believed that children went through sensitive periods during which they had interest and capacity for the development of particular knowledge and/or skill (Feeney et. al, 1987:16).

2.3 The Nature-Nurture Interaction

The developing child's behavior is believed to be a complex function of a continuing interaction between two sets of forces: his unfolding biological nature influenced by his genetic inheritance, and his expanding interaction experience with the world about him (Mussen, 1965). In their early years, children become attracted to people because they are providers of interactive, important and reliable source of stimulation for them (Hetherington & Parke, 1993:218). Initially mothers play the greatest role in this regard, they are seen as the prime

architect of their children's lives and are blamed for whatever problem be fall them not only in childhood but also through out their lives (Diane, 1992:2).

Personality theorists with a psychosocial orientation have stressed the interplay between the individual and his/her social context and emphasized the bidirectional relations between one's development and his adaptive capacities (Lerner, 1988:363). Nevertheless, Thornton (1995) opposed this view and suggested that human adaptation and problem solving capacities are innate and that humans are engaged in such activities from birth through adulthood.

Walker and his colleagues (1994) on the other hand considered the transmission of competency in life and schooling to be a function of the combination between biological and sociocultural factors, including the cumulative set of interactions children have with their parents, teachers, and peers as well as the influence of wider societal factors. Therefore, in both the home and the school, the quantity and quality of interactions with parents and teachers, the cultural context within which those interactions occur, and individual differences in child ability mediate what is learned (Garica, 1990).

Genetic factors appear to be related with characteristics of the children that are associated with differences in relationship quality as well as parental warmth, involvement and responsiveness (Dunn, 1993:42). Several studies have found that genetics contribute to parental warmth (Plomin et.al 1994). Children's temperament and IQ are also linked to heredity. It also appears likely that the dimensions of shared humor will be influenced genetically (Dunn, 1992:42).

Plomin and Neiderhiser (1992) showed genetic influences on ratings of peer groups, life events and social support to approximate 0.30 which suggests that genetics can account for more than one quarter of the variance of these measures. Scar (1992) and Plomin and Colleagues (1994) viewed genetic factors more to be involved in the way children select, modify, and create the environment that they experience in their lives. The way in which children interact with their environment and their experiences are influenced by genetic differences among them (Plomin et. al, 1994).

2.4 Influence of Parenting Style

Research into socialization and parenting is focused primarily on what parents do with their children rather than on the dyadic relationship (Dunn, 1993).

Baumrind's (1971) descriptive scheme distinguishes four different styles of parenting based on acceptance-rejection and controlling permissiveness dimensions. Authoritative parents are demanding and accepting, authoritarian parents are demanding and rejecting, whereas permissive parents are permissive and accepting, and neglecting parents are permissive and ignoring or rejecting.

The parenting style exercised seems to affect children's cognitive, social and emotional development. In addition, differences in how children behave are closely implicated in the dimensions of parental behavior out lined in the Baumrind model (Dunn, 1993). Children from a wide range of backgrounds

tended to get lower school grades when their descriptions of family behavior indicated more authoritarian parenting, more permissive parenting or less authoritative parenting (Dornbusch et.al, 1987:1256). For instance, in Ballantine's (1993:91) statement, parents who exercise authoritative parenting, who set high standards, and who have high aspirations for their children are more likely to have high achieving children. The study of Baumrind and Allen (1967:292) showed that:

Parents of the most assertive, self reliant and self controlled children were controlling, demanding, communicative and loving; parents of the unhappy and disaffiliated group were relatively controlling and detached; and parents of the least self-reliant and self controlled group of children were non controlling, non demanding and relatively warm.

Coleman's (1966) research in equality of educational opportunity evidenced that home environment in general and parenting style in particular far outweigh the effects of the school program on children's achievement and adjustment. Jencks et. al (1972) findings also concluded that family characteristics and parenting style are the main variables in a child's school environment. Infact, the finding indicated that family background accounts for more than one-half of the variation in educational attainment and school adjustment.

The finding of Miller and Scarr (1989) indicated significant relations between behavior problems observed in parent-child interactions and child language and cognitive functioning, as well as parental discipline and control strategies. Children of problem behavior exhibited more concurrent difficulties in

language, cognitive and social development, and their parents become non supportive, non consistent and expressed negative attitudes toward them more frequently (Richman, Stevenson & Graham, 1982). Ballantine (1993:91) also reported authoritarian and permissive (very rigid or lax) parenting styles to be negatively associated with children's school adjustment, whereas an authoritative style (guidance with reasoning) is positively related to children's school adjustment.

Mcloyd (1990) particularly argues that poverty and economic loss may diminish the capacity for supportive, consistent, and involved parenting and render parents more vulnerable to the effects of negative life events. Gerner et. al (1994) stated:

Faced with persistent financial concerns and other stressors, low-income parents show less responsiveness to the cognitive, social-emotional needs of the children and more reliance on physical punishment coercion to gain obedience

Campbell et. al (1986) also found significant associations between child adjustment problems and socio-economic status and parents negative and controlling behaviors in a sample of preschoolers with externalizing problems i.e hyperactivity and aggression. On the otherhand, children nurtured in avoidant/neglect parenting style exhibit lack of affective involvement, lack of personal sharing, and a strong tendency of attempting to meet their own dependency needs. Moreover, children classified as having resistant/ambivalent attachment with parents have considerable problems with peers and in school. Such patterns of parenting behavior has been associated with risk for the

children of having lower cognitive, social and emotional functioning as well as problems in school and with peers (Gerner et.al, 1994). Moreover, children who are maltreated by their parents perceived their teachers in ways consistent with the insecure relationship they have with parents (Lynch & Cicchetti, 1992). Eckenrode, Laird and Doris (1993) have also claimed to show a high rate of school and adjustment problems among maltreated children. However, their study contained inadequate comparison group.

To this end, Condry and Siman (1974) reported that child of nurturant, demanding, companionship and disciplining and consistent parents to be active and outshine in cognitive and social functioning as well as in emotional stability. Condry and Siman further suggested that children of neglecting parents seem to be more peer oriented and often try to seek approval and attention elsewhere other than their home.

2.5 Teacher-Child Relationships

The importance of relationships for the development of the individual has long been recognized; individuality of mind, self and personality are held to be products of relationship processes (Sullivan, 1953; Vygotsky, 1978). Attachment theory also proposes that aspects of children's relationships with other persons affect their cognitive, social and emotional competence (Ainsworth, Blehar, Waters and Wall, 1978). The theory also underscores the importance of adults' sensitivity to the developing preschoolers increasing coordination of affect,

cognition and behavior i.e structuring experience while allowing the child autonomy, and leading him to social and cognitive success.

Bowlby (1989) also maintained that the quality of children's relationship to their caretakers exerts a strong influence on their ability and willingness to explore their environment. Children who are securely related with their caretakers presumably embark on exploring their environment with greater assurance than insecurely attached children (Jacobsen, Edelstien & Hoffman, 1994).

For children's, cognitive, social and emotional development, the significance of early close relationships has long been assumed (Bowlby, 1982; Frued, 1949). Relationships are viewed as the contexts in which socialization takes place, communication skills are acquired, which the regulation of emotions develop and in which the self-system has its origins (Dunn, 1993; Hartup, 1986; Maccoby & Martin, 1983; Sullivan, 1953). A secure relationship between child and teacher is seen as not only the basis for a child's sense of self-efficacy and social skills, but also of key significance in the development of later successful relationships (Bretheron & Waters, 1985; Mahler, Pine & Bergamon, 1975; Sroufe and Fleesen, 1986).

The relationship which children have with their teachers is of great importance in determining the quality of their educational and life experiences. Early childhood is a period in which development is sensitive to the influence of relationships and that performance in school may infact be mediated by social

processes embedded in these relationships (Pianta, 1997:12). Children may judge if a school is a safe and trust worthy place in which they may live and work, they can have the confidence to explore and develop new skills and understandings when they feel safe, cared for, and secured; otherwise unproductive if they feel threatened, anxious or uncertain. As a student J.T. Dillon declared it, "Nothing do I regret more in my life than that my teachers were not my friends; nothing ever heightened my being or deepened my learning more than being loved (Feeney, Christensen & Moravick, 1987:179). Like the parent – child relationship, the teacher-child relationship may vary in nature and quality. Some teacher – child relationships can be characterized as close and affectionate, others as distant and formal, still others as conflictual (Pianta, 1995, 1996, 1997).

One of the goals of early childhood education is to help children develop strong, positive and realistic self-concepts; and these are greatly influenced by opinions of significant people in their lives. The nature of children's self concept is dependent on how family members, caregivers and teachers relate to them (Feeney, Christensen & Moravick, 1987:18).

What a teacher teaches may not be so important as how he teaches and what kind of person he is as he teaches (Dewey, 1933 in Fromberg 1987:5). Young children need teachers who love, encourage, and care for them to value and positively evaluate themselves (Pratt, 1980; Feeney et. al, 1987 and Entwistle, 1988). Teachers who are unable to provide such care may cause

children fail to develop respect for themselves, to feel unworthy of love, incapable of social interaction, and unable to achieve. In addition, these conditions seriously hinder children's ability to relate to the people, activities, and ideas that help them learn and grow. Children's development is influenced by the quality of care provided, and that the quality of care is dependent on the education and training of teachers (Howes & Hamilton, 1992:864).

And, hence kindergarten teacher lays the foundation for children's cognitive, moral, social, emotional and psychological development; and this is a clue for later adjustment to formal school in particular and to life in general. The early childhood teacher controls rewards and punishments in the classroom, evaluates students' performance, and maintains control over the class; she also "... wipes runny noses and consols hurt feelings, joining formal and nurturant responsibilities." (Pianta, 1997:16). As Tesfaye (1988:19) put it,

Children are dependent on the teacher in the classroom situation; everything she does influences the attitude of children. The teacher of young children serves as a model for children; Her personality, the way she talks, the way she laughs, the way she walks, the way she dresses, the way she reacts, the way she treats, her speech, gesture, response, attitude and feelings have a decisive influence in children's development.

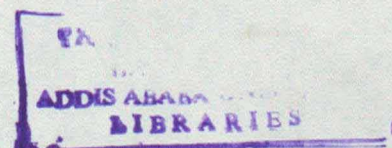
Research in social development, attachment theory and teaching learning increasingly shows the importance of adult-child relationships as contexts for development. But, often times the social values, aspirations, and attitudes that adults want to instill in children reflect their own backgrounds, experiences, and world view (Ramsey, 1987).

Since children's relationship with their teachers are an important component of the school experience and are greatly related to children's adjustment, recent research attempting to describe emotional security in teacher-child relationships is emerging (Howes and Hamilton, 1992; Pianta & Nimetz, 1991). In addition, the type of relationship that children form with a teacher retains elements of the children's relationships with their parents.

Vygotsky's (1978) theory of learning affirms the child-teacher relationship to exert a great influence on salience developmental outcomes and cognitive learning. Werner and Smith (1982) determined that one of the factors for positive outcomes among high failure risk children was a supportive relationship with a teacher. Teacher-child relationships are also important aspects of teachers experiences in the classroom (Pianta, 1995).

Harper and Huie (1987) put that relating successfully with teachers and gaining peer acceptance are not only highly salient to children but also important in forecasting later social and school adjustment; out comes such as peer rejection, for example, may persist over many years and maintain or contribute to adjustment problems in future settings.

As Ramsey (1987) stated it, when children are gaining their first insights into the nature of the social world and forming their early relationships with others, teachers can support experiences that will create more fertile ground for later development.



The ideal child-care teacher not only provides the child with a language rich, cognitive learning environment, but also, through her care giving and socialization roles, helps the child form trusting relationships with extra familial adults and enjoy positive interactions with peers (Sroufe, 1983; Howes, et. al, 1994). Expectations, competencies and attitudes developed within teacher-child attachment relationships are expected to influence the child's orientation to school success, peer relationships, and later adjustment in life (Howes et. al, 1994).

Pederson, Fincher and Eaton (1978) reported that children who are made feel worthwhile, supported in their independence, motivated to achieve, and provided with support to interpret and cope with environmental demands by their teacher differed from their peers on subsequent drop out rates, academic achievement, in peer social skills, behavioral competence, and adjustment in the adult world.

Pianta (1995:15) described patterns of kindergarten teachers perceptions of their relationships with children in clusters of six, i.e dependent, positively involved, dysfunctional, functional average, angry dependent and uninvolved. Children in these clusters significantly differ in their adjustment to school. In the description, the most problematic were the dysfunctional and angry dependents. These relationship cluster findings of Pianta found to agree with the five-group cluster scheme of children's perceptions of their relationships with teachers such

as optimal, average, disengaged, confused, and deprived found by Lynch and Cicchetti (1992).

On the otherhand the finding of Howes and Hamilton (1992:861) classified teacher-child relationship into three categories: emotionally secure, avoidant, and ambivalent. The children in the different categories experienced different amounts of sensitivity and involvement. Teachers found to be most sensitive to and most involved with children in the secure category and least sensitive and involved with children in the avoidance category.

Coherent and stable differences of relationship have been clearly documented in the preschool period (Sroufe, 1995). In Pianta's (1995) description of teacher-child relationships, the positively involved and to a lesser extent the functional average group showed behaviors towards their teachers that were indicative of a secure relationship They shared personal information, appeared comfortable with dependency but were not too dependent and displayed positive affect in response to the teachers' interactions or in regard to their relationship with the teacher (Main and Cassidy, 1988, Pianta, 1995). Within high risk groups of children with similar ability and readiness profiles, high scores on the warmth and open communication dimensions were related to promotion to first grade (Pianta & Steinberg, 1992, Pianta, 1996). Moreover, these children showed the fewest behavior problems and the highest levels of competent behaviors in both the social and instructional areas and have a history of secured parent-child relationships (Pianta, 1995). Because,

prospective research indicates that parent-child relationship patterns predict relationships with teachers and peers (Howes & Hamilton, 1992; Sroufe, 1989; Pianta, 1995). As Sroufe (1995) put it, children with secure relationship histories were observed less often to be aggressive or to pose disciplinary problems in the classroom, and indeed less often disciplined by their teacher.

Children whose relationship with the teacher fall in the dependent and angry dependent clusters show a mixture of adjustment difficulties; they were reported to have more conduct problems, less competent in intellectual functioning, and as being less tolerant of frustration. Evidently anger, and difficulties in managing it, appeared to be a common feature in these children's relationships and adjustment patterns (Pianta, 1995). Developmental research has also documented that angry dependent relation in early childhood is associated with decreased competence in social-emotional functioning (Lieberman, Weston & Pawl, 1990). Moreover, children who are overly dependent on the teacher are neglected by peers and are rated low on expressed curiosity (Sroufe, 1983). Some researchers (eg. Elicker, England & Sroufe, 1992; Sroufe; 1995) assessed and found a strong association of over dependency during the preschool years and anxious attachment in infancy.

In Pianta's finding, very high scores on the conflict/anger marked some teacher-child relationships and troubled feeling scales very low scores on the warmth/closeness and open communication scales, and moderate scores on the dependency scales. This group clearly had relationships between children and

teachers that were problematic, and the group was called dysfunctional. The teachers reported considerable anger on the part of both children and teachers, there was a marked lack of communication and positive affect in the interactions between teachers and children, and the teachers were troubled by their relationship with these children (Pianta, 1995, 1997). Some findings indicate that high conflict in child-teacher relationships is destructive to the capacity of a teacher to feel effective in the classroom (Pianta, 1994). Kindergarten teachers found to decide retaining children who are characterized by the dysfunctional relationship before they go to grade one. These groups of children are in need of some form of intervention to change the direction of their school situations. They seem closed off from the positive aspects of relating with a teacher, with anger and conflict dominating their contacts. These children were also reported to be the least competent in grade one (Pianta, 1996).

The uninvolved children appear to make few emotional demands on their teachers and are markedly uncommunicative about personal information and dismiss their dependency needs (Pianta, 1996). However, it remains a question whether these children are competent or they are simply using under involvement as a means to reduce emotional demands and intimacy (Pianta, 1995). The possible explanation for this may be that in a school setting, conformity and low attention seeking is valued and that intimacy with an adult is not as important for a child's development as it is in a parent-child context (Lynch and Cicchetti, 1992).

2.6 Adjustment in the Kindergarten

Studies of experimental pre-school programmes in the USA indicate that high quality preschool education has significant long term outcomes, not only for the child but also for the community (Sestini, 1985). In connection to this, Welkart's findings in Eric (1991) revealed that:

... as young adults, children who attended kindergarten programme competently made greater gains in education, employment and social responsibility than similar young adults who were not competent in their kindergarten attendance did. He concluded that high quality early childhood education reduces major social and economic problems with in a community and that preventing life long problems in high risk children is a better community investment than attempting to correct them.

Many teachers in the kindergarten expect children to learn and behave in ways that will facilitate learning. The children are expected to let their speech, dress, morals, behavior be monitored and corrected, and their state of knowledge constantly examined and criticized. However not all children accept this situation (Delamont, 1983:37). As Brottman (1968:190) put it, the teacher is expected to be more sensitive to differences in emotional and social development in children, and less concerned with subject matter.

The new experiences which a child is facing every time are more important in influencing his/her adjustment. Entering the kindergarten is a big step for the child. It means leaving his/her familiar home and depending on adults other than his/her parents, finding a place for his/her self in a group of other children of about the same age, there are new toys, different toilet arrangements, a strange play area; he meets a variety of responses from the

other children, some of them apparently unreasonable. He must trust the teachers to understand and keep himself in his stay in the kindergarten (Catherine, 1966:110). These experiences, Catherine explained further strengthen the child's feeling of confidence in himself if he meets them successfully; therefore he will become creative, independent, less irritable, not frightened and can easily be tuned to adjustment. Otherwise, if he does not meet the experiences successfully, he will lose in creativity, become over dependent, irritable, feel strange or get frightened. Moreover, these may be disastrous for sound adjustment of the child.

Children's school adjustment is associated with teachers attributions, interactions with children, expectations and attitudes as well as children's feelings about teachers (Entwistle, 1988; Brophy and Good, 1974; Munchin & Shapiro, 1983; Pederson et. al, 1978; Pianta, 1995). When children experience a secure relationship with their teacher, the likelihood of school adjustment increases. Pianta and Nimetz (1991) discussed children's competence and school adjustment to be associated with teacher relationship ratings.

With in attachment theory of Bowlby (1978) and Sroufe et. al (1983), a secure child is described as not a dependent child. Security reflects using the adult as a base from which to explore the social as well as the physical environment. Dependence in contrast describes the child who clings to the adult in an immature or fearful way and is unable to see the adult as a base for exploration.

In Sroufe's (1982) discussion, emotional security and dependency behavior are more clearly differentiated in the preschool period. The emotionally secure preschoolers may seek instrumental assistance when they need help. In contrast, dependent preschoolers frequently seek attention and contact with the teacher, often waiting for help without trying to solve problems on their own. As Howes, Hamilton and Matheson (1994) put it, preschool children who are dependent on the teacher also found to withdraw from the peer group and rely on the teacher to solve problems with peers. Walker and his Colleagues (1994) also reported that 4-year-old children rated high in teacher dependence were also low in social competence with peers and insecure in infant-mother attachment.

Emotional independence includes being able to operate in the environment without constant attention, guidance, and nurturance from adults; the world of peers and objects rather than caregivers or teachers should command the preschool child's attention (Pianta, 1995; Sroufe, 1995). Opposingly, the preschool child who can not separate from parents, who chronically hovers near the teacher or who routinely acts out to receive attention or praise is viewed as emotionally dependent (Ramsey, 1993).

Howes, Hamilton and Matheson (1994) argue that forming a secure positive relationship with teachers presumably draws on similar underlying attitudes, as does social competence with peers. A socially competent child would be able to form positive relationships with both teachers and peers.

Furthermore, he may be more likely to elicit positive socialization from teachers, just as a less competent child may elicit negative socialization.

Harper and Huie (1987) found children who profit from their educational experiences to like school and feel secure in their school environment. Conversely children who have reactions such as anxiety, avoidance, or negative attitude towards school may show signs of early adjustment difficulties, that, in turn may disrupt their future progress.

Apparently, kindergarten children in the different teacher-child relationship clusters differ in their school adjustment behavior. The dysfunctional and angry dependent groups generally showing more conduct problems and less in cognitive competencies (Pianta, 1995, 1996). Pianta also reported this group to be significantly higher for the learning problem scale than the other groups. Children with uninvolved and positively involved relationships with kindergarten teachers seem displaying more frustration tolerance in the school than children with dysfunctional or angry relationship histories (Pianta & Nimetz, 1991; Pianta, 1995, 1996). And also the uninvolved, positively involved and the functional relationship groups were rated as having better work habits than the dysfunctional group, the positively involved group were found to be better in social skills than the rest.

In summary, teacher-child relationship affects children's school adjustment. Although, there are no many researches conducted in the area, the few researches available by Pianta and colleagues used teacher-child relationship scale and school adjustment scale as a method of investigation.

Overall, the review of the literature points to the need for studying to what depth the teacher-child relationship is related with children's school adjustment in our kindergartens. In addition, exploring the typologies of relationships and their differences when seen from the child's school adjustment situation is desirable.

CHAPTER THREE

3. DESIGN OF THE STUDY

3.1. The subjects and Sampling

A pilot study which was intended to create a working relationship with the people in the study site and test the relevance of instruments was carried out on sixty children (Boys=33 and Girls=27); and three female trained teachers.

According to Krejcie and Morgan (1970) determination of sample size for research activities from a given population, the main study was intended to be carried out on 320 Kindergarten children of ages 5 up to 6 years old (Boys=174 and Girls=146); and sixteen female trained teachers. The sample group was drawn from eight kindergartens that were selected out of fifteen by simple random sampling. Proportional allocation for the two-sex group and a simple random sampling technique were utilized to select the children for the study. A mix of approaches was used to assign the teachers in this study, i.e. wherever there are more than two teachers in the kindergarten, two were chosen by a simple random draw. When there are only two female trained teachers, both were included in the study. Out of the 320 sampled individuals, the scales were filled and returned for only 305 (i.e. Boys = 169 and girls = 136).

3.2. Instruments

3.2.1. The teacher-child relationship scale (TCRS)

The teacher-child relationship scale of Pianta (1992) was adapted and used in the study. In a five –point scale, the teacher –child relationship scale contains items that show closeness, dependency and conflictual relations. A refinement and

validation of items were conducted to make them fit to our culture. A pilot study was conducted in one of the kindergartens. Three female-trained teachers each filled the thirty-one-item scale for twenty children.

Then item analysis was carried out on the upper (27%) and the lower (27%) scores (Nachimias & Nachimias, 1987). t-value was computed to see significant mean differences between the upper and the lower scores ($t = 11.32$, at .05 two tailed, df_{30}) and the difference was highly significant because the critical t –value is 2.04.

Considering individual item variance, the thirty-one-item scale is found to have a reliability coefficient (Cronbach alpha coefficient of .64).

The final item selection was made in two ways, i.e.computing discrimination index for each item and taking items with a relatively large discrimination index. Moreover, t –test was used to see significant item mean differences between the upper and the lower (27%) groups. Items that significantly differentiated between the groups were selected. Based on this, out of the thirty-one items, twenty-one items with ($t \geq 2.25$, at .05 two tailed, df_{30}) were selected.

These 21 items have internal consistency reliability (Cronbach alpha coefficient of .81).

3.2.2. The School Adjustment Scale (SAS)

The twenty three-item scale of school adjustment was adapted from Barbara (1975) and Hoffman (1966). The scale contains items, which indicate the child's school readiness, competence in social relations, personal maturity, and conduct problems. Teachers, who filled the teacher – child relationship scale also filled the

school adjustment scale for the same children since the two scales were different. Item analysis was carried out on the upper (27%) and the lower (27%) scores. The scale items significantly differentiated between the upper and the lower groups ($t > 14.07$, at .05 two tailed df_{30}), where the critical t -value is 2.04. Out of the 23 items, 19 were selected for the final study with ($t \geq 2.51$, at.05 two tailed, and df_{30}). The 19 items have an internal consistency reliability (Cronbach alpha coefficient of .89) The size of items selected were found to agree with Edwards (1957) principle of selecting atleast 65% of those administered.

3.3. Variables used in the study

i. Dependent Variable

The child's school adjustment score when rated by the kindergarten teacher

ii. Independent Variable

Teacher-child relationship score

3.4. Data Collection Procedure

Translating English-to -Amharic- and back to English of both instruments were made before the pilot testing. In the pilot study as well as in the main study, teachers in less than twenty days filled the teacher-child relationship scale and the school adjustment scale to avoid the problem of bias and diminishing returns. In the pilot session, three teachers filled both the scales for twenty children each. After improving the instruments for the main study, both scales were filled by sixteen female, trained teachers for twenty children each.

The two scales containing both affirmative and negative statement items were arranged in five points Likert scaling response. The total score for an individual child was computed by summing up the affirmative items' point and the reverse keyed negative items' points.

3.5. Data Analysis

After assigning scores on the teacher-child relationship scale and the school adjustment scale for the 305 subjects (Boys =169 and Girls =136), cluster analysis of Ward's (1963) method was used and three cluster solutions were found. The Ward method uses the least error term variance grouping (Everitt, 1980: 31).

A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed whether the three groups are equally homogeneous.

Independent samples mean differences test (t-test) among the clusters for both teacher-child relationship scale scores and school adjustment scale scores. Moreover, mean differences test of both scores was done for boys and girls.

A similar one way anova was performed to see whether the three groups are equally homogeneous for the school adjustment scale scores.

Pearson product-moment correlations were computed between teacher-child relationship and school adjustment scores for all cluster groupings.

Using TUKEY HSD method made post-hoc comparison. This method was selected, among others, for caution and its appropriateness for unequal sample size mean comparisons (Howell, 1989:357).

Finally, all differences were tested for statistical significance at the .05 level.

CHAPTER FOUR

4. RESULTS OF THE STUDY

The results of the main study are presented in the following sequence: Cluster solutions of the teacher-child relationship, cluster differences in teacher-child relationships, school adjustment differences among the clusters, sex differences in teacher-child relationship and school adjustment, cluster differentiation in subscale scores and types of clusters, and correlations.

4.1 Cluster Solutions of the Teacher-Child Relationships

The 305 scores of teacher-child relationships were grouped into three cluster solutions with the possible least error variance. The number of observations, means, standard deviations for each cluster solution are given in table 1.

Table 1

Number of observations, means, and standard deviations for the teacher-child relationship score of the three clusters

Cluster Case	N	Means	Standard deviation
1	106	92.25	4.71
2	132	78.21	4.39
3	67	62.43	5.37
Total	305		

*The highest possible scores for teacher-child relationship scale is 105 and for school adjustment is 95.

Table 1 indicates that 106 children scored higher (mean 92.25) than the rest in teacher-child relationship scale. And 132 children scored moderately high (mean = 78.21) than the 67 children who scored relatively low (mean = 62.43). A high score in teacher-child relationship shows a more positive relationship/involvement between the teacher and the child and a low score shows vice versa.

Table 2
ANOVA Summary Table

Source	SS	df	MS	F
Between Clusters	36974.76	2	18487.38	826.52**
Within Clusters	6752.63	302	22.36	
Total	43727.39	304		

** P < .001

Table 2 presents the results of cluster solutions of the teacher-child relationship scores. The table shows that the differences between the three-cluster solutions are statistically significant. Hence, it indicates that for this sample group, there are three groups of children, which have different types of relationships with their teachers.

4.1 Paired Cluster Differences in Teacher-Child Relationship

Mean differences test (t-test) was performed to see for differences in teacher-child relationship among the three clusters. All cluster paired mean differences were found to be statistically significant. And the results are shown in table 3.

Table 3
Mean Differences Test (t-test)

Cluster Cases	N	Mean	Mean Difference	df	t-value
1	106	92.25	14.04	236	23.76**
2	132	78.21			
1	106	92.25	29.82	171	38.41**
3	67	62.43			
2	132	78.21	15.78	197	22.19**
3	67	62.43			

** P < .001

As indicated in table 3 the cluster differences in teacher-child relationship were statistically significant. Post hoc test of Tukey HSD (See Appendix _F_) also revealed the presence of clear differences among the cluster relationship types since all the three mean differences (clusters 1 & 3 = 29.82, 2 & 3 = 15.78, and 1 & 2 = 14.04) substantially exceed the Tukey HSD value which is 9.94 were the family wise error rate is about .021 (Howell, 1987:357).

4.1 School Adjustment Differences Among the Clusters

The research question addressed in this section is whether the children in the different relationship patterns are significantly different in their school adjustment. A similar one-way ANOVA similar to that of the teacher-child relationship variable was performed to see significant differences among the three clusters for school adjustment variable. And the result is shown in table 4.

Table 4
ANOVA Summary Table

Source	SS	df	MS	F
Between Cluster	18110.12	2	9055.06	153.15**
With in Cluster	17855.44	302	59.12	
Total	35965.56			

** P < .001

Table 4 presents the result of children's school adjustment variations in the three different patterns of relationship. The table shows that the group's difference was statistically significant. This may confirm the presence of teacher-child relationship determination on the child's adjustment in the school environment.

Table 5
Mean Differences Test for the School Adjustment Variable

Cluster Cases	N	Mean	Mean Difference	df	t-value
1 2	106 132	80.96 71.45	9.51	236	10.19**
1 3	106 67	80.96 60.04	20.92	171	17.18**
2 3	132 67	71.45 60.04	11.41	197	9.28**

** P < .001

Table 5 presents the clusters differences in school adjustment. As shown in the table, the clusters mean differences were statistically significant. Nevertheless. Post hoc test of Tukey HSD (See Appendix _F_) showed the existence of a

difference only between cluster one and cluster three (mean difference = 20.92) where the HSD value is 16.16.

4.1 Sex Differences in Teacher – Child Relationship and School Adjustment

The research question handled in this section is sex differences in teacher-child relationships and the child's school adjustment. Mean differences test (t-test) was performed for both teacher-child relationship and school adjustment variables. Table 6 shows the number of observation, means, and standard deviations of the teacher-child relationship and school adjustment scores for boys and girls. (See Appendix _C_) for the distribution of scores for boys and girls.

Table 6

Number of Observations, means, and standard deviation for teacher-child relationship and school adjustment scores for boys and girls

Teacher-child Relationship score (x-scores)	Sex	N	Mean	Standard deviation
	Boy	169	79.35	11.52
	Girl	136	79.97	12.59
School Adjustment scores (y-scores)	Boy	169	71.24	10.93
	Girl	136	73.51	10.71

X – Teacher-child relationship scale score
 Y – School Adjustment scale score

Table 6 shows that on the average girls as a group scored slightly higher than boys did in both the teacher-child relationship and school adjustment scores.

Table 7
Mean differences test (t-test) for boys and girls

Variable	Sex	N	Mean	Mean Difference	df	t-value
Teacher-child Relationship	Boy	169	79.35	-.62	303	-.449*
	Girl	136	79.97			
School Adjustment	Boy	169	71.24	2.27	303	
	Girl	136	73.51			

* P > .65

** P > .07

Table 7 presents the results of mean differences test (t-test) for boys and girls. The table shows that eventhough girls scored slightly higher, the gender difference in teacher-child relationship was not statistically significant. Closer examination indicates that boys (mean = 79.35) received almost equal score with girls (mean = 79.97) for teacher-child relationship variable, and lower (mean = 71.24) than girls (mean = 73.51) for the school adjustment variable.

4.1 Cluster Differentiation in Sub-scale Scores and types of clusters

The basic question dealt in this section is describing the type of teacher-child relationship clusters present in kindergartens. Again mean differences test were performed between the three clusters for close relationship, conflict relation, overdependency, adjustment, and conduct problem sub-scales. And the results are presented in table 8.

Table 8

Cluster Differentiation in Sub-scale Scores

Cluster Cases	Closer relation		Conflict relation		Overdependence relation		Adjustment to school		Conduct problems	
	Mean diff.	t-value	Mean diff.	t-value	Mean diff.	t-value	Mean diff.	t-value	Mean diff.	t-value
1 2	6.83	12.59	-4.86	-11.84	-1.96	-7.3	10.63	12.99	-3.1	-8.22
1 3	13.47	20.66**	-11.28**	-21.69	-4.23*	-11.61	27.38	30.27*	-5.61	-11.93*
2 3	6.65	9.23	-6.43	-11.46	-2.26	-6.38	16.75	16.82	-2.52	-4.79

** P < .01 for honest significance differences

* P < .05

As presented in table 8, children in cluster one on the average received higher score in close relationship subscale (mean = 39.61) than children in cluster two (mean = 32.78) and cluster three (mean = 26.13) (See Appendix H). In addition, they have got extremely minimum scores in both conflict and overdependency relationship subscale (mean = 11 and 5.83) than the other clusters. Moreover, the mean difference test shows the presence of a more statistically significant differences between cluster one and the rest. Hence, children in this cluster may be labeled as more positively involved in their relationship with their teachers. Furthermore, children in this group have been found to be well adjusted in school (mean = 61.19) and have less conduct problems (mean = 10.17).

The difference between children in cluster two and three were also shown in table 8. Children in cluster two were found to have a moderate close relationship scores (mean = 32.78), minimum scores in overdependency (mean = 7.81) and conflictual relations (mean = 15.85). On the average they are found to have a moderate positive involvement in relationship with their teachers. With regard to school adjustment and conduct problems, they are characterized as fairly adjusted to school and have less conduct problems. Children in cluster three on the average received very low scores in close relationship (mean = 26.13), and very high scores in conflictual and over dependency relationships (mean = 22.28 and 10.07) children in this group are generalized to have negative involvement in relationship with their teachers. In addition, they are also found to exhibit adjustment difficulties and conduct problems in the school environment.

In summary, teacher-child relationships can be described into three: more positively involved children, which are also well adjusted in the school environment, moderately positively involved and fairly adjusted children, and finally negatively involved and problematic children.

The maximum score for:

- Close relationship is = 45
- Conflict relationship is = 35
- Overdependency is =15
- Adjustment is = 70
- Conduct problems is =25

4.1 Correlation's of Teacher-Child Relationship and Adjustment to School

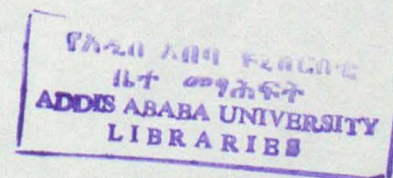
The section treats whether there is significant correlation between teacher-child relationship and school adjustment scores for the whole sample group and for each cluster solutions. Pearson product moment correlation coefficient was computed and the following results were obtained.

Table 9
Correlation's

Case	Correlation
Whole group	.78**
Cluster 1	.472**
Cluster 2	.464**
Cluster 3	.458**

** Correlation is significant at .01 level (2-tailed)

As it is presented in table 9, the correlations between teacher-child relationship and children's school adjustment were statistically significant. In the whole group, about 60.84% of the variation in school adjustment may be attributed to the variation in teacher-child relationship. The children's school adjustment variation attributed to the teacher-child relationship was 22.78% for children in cluster one, 21.53% for cluster two, and 20.97% for cluster three respectively.



CHAPTER FIVE

5. DISCUSSION

The major subtopics that are going to be discussed in this section are the following:

1. Teacher-child Relationship Patterns
2. Children's school Adjustment Variation among the Relationship Patterns.
3. Gender Difference in Teacher-Child Relationship and School Adjustment.

5.1 Teacher-Child Relationship Patterns

Recent research attempting to describe teacher-child relationships is emerging, and it is based on two foundations: the common experience of teachers, parents and children that relationships are important components of the school experience and are related to children's adjustment and research in social development, attachment theory, and teaching – learning that increasingly shows the importance of adult-child relationships as contexts for development (Pianta, 1994:15). Furthermore, the growing interest to Vygotskian theory of learning calls attention to the primacy of social processes in learning and development (Sroufe, 1995:312). Relationships with adults play a central role in the development and adaptation of young children (Pianta, 1995:296)

During the early school years, a teacher is a central person in a child's life; children often spend more of their waking hours with a teacher than with parents, and the teacher-child relationship in which academic and social learning takes

place, is itself a context for development. Teacher-child relationships are considered as agents of developmental change in school (Sroufe, 1983).

In the present research study, the sampled children were grouped into three types of relationships with their teachers namely: more positively involved (close/warm relationship), moderately positively involved (functional average), and negatively involved (problematic children) who showed conflictual and overdependency relationships with the teacher. The groups were found to vary significantly ($F = 826.52, .001$ and $df 302$) with each other. The factor based subscales of the teacher-child relationship scale (TCRS) used in this study involves dimensions of closeness which reflect positive involvement, conflict and dependency subscales which reflect negative involvement and overinvolvement respectively. In a series of descriptive studies, Pianta and Steinberg (1992) and Pianta (1994) have also showed that dimensions of closeness, conflict, and overdependency as reported from the teacher's perspective, can characterize teacher-child relationships.

The more positively involved group of children were found to be high on closeness (warmth) subscale items such as 'I share an affectionate, warm relationship with this child,' and very low for conflict subscale items like '... this child and I seem to be struggling with each other.' and on overdependency items like 'this child is overly dependent on me'.

The moderately positively involved group named as functional average in Pianta's (1994) finding on the other hand, were at midrange on both positive affect

(closeness) and negative affect (conflict and overdependency) subscale items. Whereas, the negatively involved/problematic children were very high for conflict items, moderately high for overdependency involvement and extremely low for closeness/ warm relationship items.

The cluster solutions in the present study were found to complement Lynch and Cicchetti's (1992) report of teacher-child relationship typology based on the concept of the child's psychological proximity seeking (analogous to involvement) and emotional quality (analogous to closeness). And, Pianta's (1997) finding of generally positively involved and negatively involved patterns of teacher-child relationships also agreed with the present finding.

The more positively involved and to a lesser extent the functional average group, showed behaviors towards their teacher that were indicative of a secure and close relationship; they shared personal information, appeared comfortable, were not too dependent, and, in general displayed positive affect in response to the teachers' interaction.

The negatively involved/the problematic children's relationship on the otherhand, represent considerable conflict, Overdependency, and little or no closeness and open communication between the children and the teacher. These Kindergarten children seemed closed off from the positive aspects of relating with a teacher, anger and conflict dominated their contacts, and they are undoubtedly in need of intervention schemes. Teacher-child relationships are a key relational context for the child, and may provide a window for identification of risk and for intervention (Pianta, 1994).

5.3 Children's School Adjustment Variation among the Relationship patterns.

When entering kindergarten, children face many demands: how to become an accepted member of the peer group, co-operate with authority figures such as the teacher, become involved in academic development, and perform well on academic skill building activities (Pianta, Steinberg and Rollins, 1995). Relationships with adults (parent and teachers) had implications on how children respond to situations involving problem solving and acquiring new information.

Teacher-child relationships can also be involved in children's self-concept and expectations regarding academic performance. In a case study, Pederson, Faucher, and Eaton (1978) provided evidence that teachers can have a significant impact on children's success in school and in life. It has also been proposed that a positive teacher-child relationship may significantly facilitate a child's adaptation to school (Sroufe, 1983), especially for children at high risk for failure (Pederson, et. al., 1978). A positive relationship with a kindergarten teacher was associated with better adjustment (lower levels of behavior problems and higher levels of competence behavior), and a negative relationship was strongly associated with a downward trend in adjustment (high levels of behavior problems and lower levels of competence behaviors). Nevertheless, the results of this and other studies do not suggest that teacher-child relationships are the sole predictors of school adjustment, nor do they suggest that other relationships or experiences prior to school entry have no relation to school adjustment. In relation to this, attachment theory and research strongly suggest that child-parent relationships are a primary determinant of the quality of teacher-child relationships and school adjustment (Sroufe, 1983; Hamilton and Howes, 1992).

In the present study, all correlations between teacher-child relationship and school adjustment scores were found to be statistically significant at the .01 level (two tailed), and they are in the expected direction. For instance, 60.84% of the variation in school adjustment in the whole group, 22.78%, 21.53%, and 20.97% in the three different patterns may be attributed to the variation in teacher-child relationships. Children who were rated as having a relatively positive relationship (high closeness, low conflict and negligible overdependency) with their kindergarten teachers tended to obtain better scores on school adjustment. On the other hand, children who were rated as having a relatively negative relationship with their kindergarten teachers tended to obtain worse on school adjustment.

Children in the three different relationship patterns significantly vary in their school adjustment behaviors ($F = 153.15$, $df 302$, $P < .001$). The more children are positively involved with the teacher, the more they become well adjusted to school and the lesser they exhibit problems of conduct. These children outshine in academic competence, peer relations, language development and maturity levels. Pianta, Steinberg and Rollins (1995) also found these group of children to have high academic performance in school, more outgoing, gregarious, accepted by peers and were less aggressive to their teacher and in the peer context.

On the otherhand, those children who have negative involvement (conflictual and Overdependency) in their relationship with the teacher were found to be incompetent in academic matters, showed more social withdrawal and hostile aggression towards their peers. Moreover, expectations, competencies, and attitudes developed within adult-child attachment relationships are expected to

influence the child's orientation to peer relationship (Howes, Hamilton, and Matheson, 1994). Teacher-dependent children, for instance, would be less competent with peers because their dependent behaviors would affect the development of peer relationship; they tend to withdraw from the group and solely rely on the teacher to solve problems with peers.

Behaviors that are indicative of emotional security (closeness), including proximity maintenance, are similar to behaviors indicative of dependency during infancy period. Nevertheless, by preschool, emotional security and dependency behaviors are more clearly differentiated (Sroufe, 1983). Bowlby (1973) also viewed dependence and conflict as more of a personality trait and closeness as relationship specific. The emotionally secure (close) preschooler seeks instrumental assistance from the teacher when the child demands. But, the dependent one seeks attention and contact with the teacher demanding help without trying to solve problems on his own. This kind of dependent child may complicate the emerging child-centered instruction and impose unnecessary burden on the kindergarten teacher.

5.3 Gender Differences in Teacher-Child Relationships and in School Adjustment

Gender differences for both teacher-child relationship and school adjustment variables were not statistically significant ($t = .449$, $df 303$, $P > .65$) for the former, and ($t = 1.82$, $df 303$, $P > .07$) for the later. A similar study by Pianta and Steinberg (1992), and Pianta (1994, 1996) also reported statistically insignificant differences between the two sexes with respect to teacher-child relationship and school adjustment variables.

The underlying explanation for the non-presence of gender difference may be the instability of gender stereotyping attributions in the early ages (Sroufe, 1995). Teachers tend to treat and relate with early age children of the different sex group in the same way. As the study of Leaper (1991) indicated, on the average, preschool boys tend to use more direct and demanding communicative relations, and preschool girls typically use more polite and cooperative strategies of relationship. However, descriptive studies of Lerner (1988) and, Howes, and his colleagues (1994) reported that children acquire gender constancy and knowledge of gender role stereotypes at and above the age of seven. Because of this reason, the significant adult's (such as the teacher) perception of their relationship to the children and their judgement about the children's adjustment may not show discrepancies.

We also do not expect more gender-differentiated interactions/relationships to appear before the shift to the middle childhood period (Lynch and Cicchetti, 1992). Pianta and Nimetz (1991) highlighted that relationships between teachers and children become sex differentiated above the age of nine.

In the present study, the kindergarten boys and girls, nearly equally distributed in the three different teacher – child relationship patterns and school adjustment. In the more positively involved (close/warm) relationship pattern (n = 106, Boys = 55, Girls = 51); in the moderately positively involved (functional average) pattern (n = 132, Boys = 78, Girls = 54), and the negatively involved (problematic) relationship pattern (n = 67, Boys = 36, Girls = 31). (See Appendix F for detail). Therefore, as in the other studies in the area, gender difference was not found for both teacher-child relationship and the child's school adjustment in this study.

CHAPTER SIX

6. SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

6.1 SUMMARY

This study investigated to answer the following basic questions:

1. What types of teacher-child relationship patterns are there in kindergarten?
2. Is there significant difference in the children's school adjustment among the relationship patterns
3. Does the teacher-child relationship pattern significantly different for boys and girls?
4. Do the boys and the girls significantly different in school adjustment?

Based on this, the following results were obtained.

- Three types of teacher-child relationship patterns are described. In addition, the children in these patterns significantly differ for their relationship with the teacher.
- The children in the three teacher-child relationship patterns were found to differ significantly in school adjustment such as school readiness, social relations' competence personal maturity, and conduct problems. The more positive relationship the children have with their teacher the more they become well adjusted to school.
- In this study, a statistically significant gender difference is not reported for both teacher-child relationship and children's school adjustment variables.

6.2 CONCLUSION

Developmental perspective on early childhood education need not be limited to discussions of developmental appropriateness of instruction. But, instead, has to inquire the basic processes of development such as social development that account for success or failure in early childhood environments. Child-adult relationship is a particular social context that has salience for the development of a number of social and academic outcomes in early childhood. Particularly teacher - child relationship serve as a regulatory function with respect to emotional and academic skill development. In so doing, they have enormous influence on a child's competence in early childhood settings.

The results of this study indicate differential school adjustment of kindergarten children of the relationship patterns. Children in the positively involved pattern were more well adjusted, and children in the functional average pattern were fairly adjusted in a number of areas such as school readiness, social relations competence, and personal maturity than the children in the negatively involved relationship pattern.

Teacher – child relationships are believed to be part of a developmental process that has complex and multifactored determinants, as does adjustment. In fact, it is highly likely that factors other than the teacher – child relationship (such as parenting style) may contribute to the child's school adjustment. However, the value of assessing teacher – child relationships rely in relation to promoting motivation to the well-adjusted group, and in intervention for present and subsequent adjustment problems. Teacher – child relationships and interactions

may represent a potential arena for intervention that was not usually considered by educators, yet is often acknowledged as the key to success especially for high risk children.

However, it has to be taken care of that improving teacher-child relationship does not guarantee improved school adjustment. Nevertheless, this study indicates that teacher – child relationships may play a role in adjustment to school and may be a useful target in a comprehensive program of intervention involving multiple focuses within the classroom, school, home, and the peer context.

6.3. Recommendation

There are a number of implications of this study for practice and research in school psychology. Based on the findings in this research, the following recommendations are given.

- Identification of children's competence behaviors and problem behaviors must be facilitated as early as possible.
- Intervention schemes especially for those with high-risk problematic children must be easily maintained in the early, sensitive, and formative years.
- Educators in general and school psychologists in particular must play a major role in extending research to the school context, and apply research out comes in the process of schooling to enhance the child's welfare.

- By using identification and intervention, schemes in the early years, kindergarten administrators, teachers, and school counselors in cooperation with parents must optimize the individual child's adjustment in the school program.
- Kindergarten teacher-training contents need to be focused in line with social processes of learning.
- The criteria for selecting candidates of kindergarten teacher training need to be thoroughly studied and outlined to strengthen the situation
- Further research development in the area of teacher-child relationships and children's adjustment in the kindergarten is necessary.

REFERENCES

- Ainsworth, M.S., et. al. (1978). *Patterns of Attachment: A Psychological Study of the strange situation*. Hillsdale, NJ: LEA.
- Austin, G.R. (1976). *Early Childhood Education: An International Perspective*. New York: Academic Press, Inc.
- Ballantine, J.H. (1993). *The Sociology of Education, A Systematic Analysis*. Prentice Hall: Englewood Cliffs.
- Barbara, T. (1975). Adjustment to School. Educational Research 17, 128-136.
- Baumrind, D. and Black, E.A. (1967). Socialization Practices Associated with Dimensions of Competence in Preschool boys and girls. Child Development, Vol. 38, No.2, 291-327
- Baumrind, D.A. (1971). Current Patterns of Parental Authority. Developmental Psychology. Vol. 4, No.1
- Bizunesh W. (1983). "An Evaluation of Kindergarten Curriculum Implementation in Addis Ababa" Dissertation for Postgraduate Diploma, University of Nairobi.
- Bowlby, J. (1969). *Attachment and Loss: Vol. 1. Attachment*. London: Hogarth Press.
- Bowlby, J. (1973). *Attachment and Loss*. New York: Basic Books.
- Bowlby, J. (1980). *Attachment and Loss, Loss, V-3*. London: The Hogarth Press.
- Bowlby, J. (1989). *A Secure base: Clinical applications of attachment theory*. London: Routledge.
- Brophy, J.E., and Good, T.L. (1974). *Teacher-Student Relationships: Causes and Consequences*. New York: Holt.
- Brottman, M.A. (1968). A Multidisciplinary Approach to Education. The Elementary School Journal, Vol. 68, No. 4 , 188-198
- Campbell, et. al. (1986). Parent-referred problem three-year-olds: Follow up at School Entry. Journal of Abnormal Child Psychology. 19, 301-318.
- Campbell, F.A. & Ramsey, G.T. (1994). Effects of Early Intervention on Intellectual and Academic Achievement. A follow up study of Children from low-income families. Child Development, 65, 684-697.
- Catherine, B. (1966). A Lap to sit on – And Much More. Childhood Education. 43, 20-23

- Clicker, J., Eglund, M., & Sroufe, L.A. (1992). *Predicting Peer Competence and Peer Relationships in Childhood from early Parent Child Relationships*. In R. Parke & G. Ladd (Eds.). *Family-Peer Relationships: Modes of Linkage*. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Cllermont, C. (1973). *The Absorbent Mind*. New York: Holt Rinehart & Iniston
- Coleman, J.S., et. al. (1966). *Equality of Educational Opportunity*. Washington: US Department of Education.
- Condry, J., & Simon, M. (1987). Characteristics of Peer-and adult-oriented children. Child Development, 58, No. 4.
- Darge Wole. (1997). Childhood Experiences in Parental Care and Later Competency: The Case of Sinkegna High School Students. EJE. Vol-17, No. 2
- Delamont, S. (1983). *Interaction in The Classroom, 2nd ed.* New York: Routledge Publishers.
- Diane, E. (1992). *Mother-Infant Bonding: A Scientific Fiction*. New York: Yale University Press.
- Dornbusch et. al. (1987). The Relation of parenting style to adolescence School performance. Child Development. Vol. 38, No. 5, 1244-1257
- Dunn, J. (1988). *The beginning of Social Understanding*. Massachusetts: Harvard University Press.
- Dunn, J. (1988). *Young Children's Close Relationships: Beyond Attachment*. Newbury Park: SAGE Publications, Inc.
- Eckenrode, J., Laird, M. & Doris, J. (1993). School Performance and Disciplinary Problems among Abused and Neglected Children. Developmental Psychology, 29, 53-62.
- Education Statistics Annual Abstract. (1991). MOE: Addis Ababa.
- Edwards, A.L. (1957). *Techniques of Attitude Scale Construction*. New York: Applenton Century Crafts.
- Elicker, J., Eglund, B. & Sroufe, L.A. (1992). *Predicting peer competence and peer relationships in childhood from early parent-child relationships*. In R. Parke and G. Ladd (Edns), *Family-peers relationships*. NJ: Erlbaum.
- Entwistle, N. (1992). *Styles of Learning and Teaching*. London: David Fulton Publishers.

- Eric, A. (1991). Present Early Childhood Education Policy in South Africa.
- Everitt, B. (1980). *Cluster Analysis*. New York: John Wiley Sons.
- Feeney, S., Christensen, D. and Moravick, H. (1987). *Who am I in the lives of Children?* Columbus: Merril Publishers.
- Foster and Headley. (1959). *Education in the Kindergarten*. New York: American Book Company.
- Foster and Headley. (1964). *Education in the Kindergarten*. New York: American Book Company.
- Freud, S. (1966). *Introductory Lecturers on Psychoanalysis*. New York: Norton.
- Fromberg, D.R. (1987). *The Full-Day Kindergarten*. London: Teachers College Press.
- Gammage, P.H. (1996). *Primary Education: What School is Really for*. London: Routledge Publishers.
- Garcia, C.T. (1990). Developmental Outcome of Minority Infants: A process – oriented look into our beginnings. Child Development, 61, 270 – 279.
- Gerner, P.W. (1994). Social Competence among low-income Preschoolers: Emotion Socialization Practices and Social Cognitive Correlates. Child Development 65, 622-635.
- Harper, L.V., Huie, K., (985). The effects of Prior group experience, age, and familiarity on the quality and organization of preschoolers' social relationship. Child Development, 56, 704-717.
- Hartup, W.W. (1989). Social Relationships and their developmental significance. American Psychologist. 44, 120-126.
- Heath. S.B. (1989). Oral and Literate Traditions among Black Americans Living in Poverty. American Psychologist 44, 367-373.
- Hetherington, E.M., and Parke, R.D. (1993). *Child Psychology: A contemporary Viewpoint*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Hoffman, H. (1966). The place of Human Relationship. Childhood Education 43, 118-131.
- Howell, D.C. (1987). *Statistical Methods for Psychology*. Boston: PWS – Kent Inc.

- Howes, C., Hamilton, C.E., & Matheson, C.C. (1994). Children's Relationships with Peers: Differential Associations with Aspects of the Teacher-Child Relationship. Child Development, Vol-65, 253-263.
- Howes, C. and Hamilton, C.E. (1992). Children's Relationships with Caregivers: Mothers and childcare Teachers. Child Development, Vol. 63, No. 4.
- Jacobsen, T., Edelstein, W., and Hoffman, V. (1994). A longitudinal Study of the relation between representations of attachment in childhood and cognitive functioning in childhood and adolescence. Developmental Psychology 30, 112-124.
- Jencks, C. et. al. (1972). ***Inequality: A Reassessment of the effects of Family and Schooling in America.*** New York: Basic Books.
- Krejcie, R.V. & Morgan, D.W. (1970). Determining Sample Size for Research Activities. Education and Psychological Measurement, Vol. 30, 607-610.
- Lambert, H.M. (1960). ***Early Childhood Education.*** Boston: Allyn and Bacon Inc.
- Lane, M.B. (1966). Creative Thinking on Critical Needs of Children. Early Childhood Education Vol. 43, No.1.
- Leaper, C. (1991). Influence and involvement in Children's Discourse; Age, Gender and Partner Effects. Child Development, Vol-62, No. 7, 797-8114
- Lerner, J.V. (1988). A Longitudinal Study of Negative Emotional States and Adjustment from Early Childhood through Adolescence. Child Development 59, 364-375.
- Lieberman, F.A., Weston, R.D., & Pawl, H.J., (1990). Preventive Intervention and Outcome with Anxiously Attached Dyads. Child Development Vol. 62, 199-209.
- Lynch, M., Cicchetti, D. (1992). ***Maltreated Children's reports of relatedness to their Teachers.*** In R. Pianta (Ed.) ***Beyond the Parent: The Role of other adults in Children's lives.*** San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Maccoby, E., & Martin, J. (1983). ***Socialization in the context of the family: Parent-child interaction.*** In P. Mussen (series Ed). Handbook of child Psychology, Vol.4, 1-120
- Main, M., & Cassidy, J. (1988). Categories of response to reunion with parent at age six: Predictable from infant attachment and stable over a one-month period. Developmental Psychology, 24, 415-426.

- McCra, R.R. and Costa, Jr. (1988). Recalled Parent-Child Relations and Adult Personality. Journal of Personality. Vol. 56, No.2, 417-434.
- McLoyd, V.C. (1990). The impact of economic hardship on black families and children: Psychological distress, Parenting, and Socioemotional development. Child Development, 61, 311-346.
- Miller, S., & Scarr, S. (1987). Diagnosis of behavior Problem in two year olds. Child Development 58, 290-298.
- Ministry of Education. (1984). Basic Education Statistics. Addis Ababa: EMPDA.
- Minuchin, P., & Shapiro, E. (1983). *The School as a Context for Social Development*. In P. Mussen (Series Ed.), *Handbook of Child Psychology, Socialization and Personality Development*. New York: Wiley.
- Mussen, P.H. (1965). *Readings in Child Development and Personality*. New York: Harper and Row.
- Nachmias, D. and Nachmias, C.H. (1987). *Research Methods in the Social Sciences*. New York: St. Martin Inc.
- Patrica, et. al. (1996). *Primary Education: Classroom Practice in England and France*. London: Routledge Publishers.
- Pedersen, E., Faucher, T.A & Eaton, W.W. (1978). A new perspective on the effects of first-grade teachers in children's subsequent adult status. Harvard Educational Review, 48, 1-31.
- Pianta, et. al. (1995). The First Two Years of School: Teacher-Child Relationships and Deflections in Children's Classroom Adjustment. Development and Psychopathology. Vol. 17, 295-312.
- Pianta, R.C. & Nimetz, S.L. (1991). Relationships between children and teachers: Associations with Classroom and home behavior. Journal of Applied Developmental Psychology, 12, 379-393.
- Pianta, R.C. (1994). Patterns of Relationships between Children and Kindergarten Teachers. Journal of School Psychology. Vol. 32, No.1, 15-31.
- Pianta, R.C. (1996). Theoretical base of the Student Teacher Relationship Scale. Unpublished Material.
- Pianta, R.C. (1997). Adult-Child Relationship Processes and Early School. Early Education and Development Vol. 8, No. 1, 11-25.



- Pianta, R.C., & Steinbert, M.S. (1992). The first two years of school: Teacher-child relationships and deflections in children's classroom adjustment. School Psychology 22, 48-57.
- Plomin, R., Neiderhiser, J.M. (1992). *Genetics and Experience*. Current Directions in Psychological Science, 1, 160-163.
- Plomin, at.al. (1994). Nature and Nurture: Genetic Contribution to measures of the family environment. Developmental Psychology 30, 32-43.
- Pratt, D. (1980). *Curriculum: Design and Development*. San Diago: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich Inc.
- Ramsey, P.G. (1987). *Teaching and Learning in a diverse World: Multicultural Education for Young Children*. New York: Teachers College Press.
- Read H.K. (1966). *The Nursery School*. London: W.B. Saunders Company.
- Richman, N., Stevenson, J., & Graham, P. (1982). *Preschool to School: A behavioral Study*. London: Academic Press.
- Scar, S. et. al. (1981). Personality Resemblance among Adolescents and Their Parents in Biological Related and Adaptive Families. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology. Vol-40, No.5, 885-898.
- Scarr, S. (1992). Developmental Theories for the 1990s: Development and Individual differences. Child Development 63, 1-19.
- Sensini, E. (1985). Preschool Policies and Programs in low-income countries. International Journal of Early Childhood Education, V-15, No. 1.
- Shewakena Cherinet. (1997). The Current State of The learning Environment in the Ethiopian Kindergartens. Unpublished M.A Thesis, A.A.U.
- Sroufe, F.L. (1990). *An Organizational Perspective on the Self*. In D. Cicchetti & M. Beeghly (Edns). *Transitions from Infancy to Childhood*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Sroufe, L.A. (1983). *Infant-Caregiving Attachment and Patterns of Adaptation in Pre-school: The roots of Maladaptation and Competence*. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Sroufe, L.A. (1995). *Emotional Development: The Organization of Emotional life in the Early Years*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Sullivan, J.S. (1953). *The Interpersonal theory of Psychiatry*. New York: Norton Publishers.

- Tesfaye Minase. (1988). The State of Preschool Education in Selected Urban Dwellers. Unpublished Senior Essay. A.A.U.
- Thornton, S. (1995). Children Solving Problems. Harvard Educational Review. Vol. 65, No. 4, 684.
- Vygotsky, L.S. (1978). *Mind in Society: The Development of higher Psychological Processes*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Walker, et. al (1994). Prediction of School Outcomes Based on Early Language Production and Socioeconomic factors. Child Development 65, 606-621.
- Werner, E., Smith, E. (1982). *Vulnerable but Invincible*. New York: Wiley.

APPENDICES

Appendix A

A list of kindergartens included in the area of study.

1. Kidest Teressa Kindergarten
2. Dire Betel "
3. Birhan "
4. Greek "
5. Model Number 1 "
6. Mislenat "
7. Bistrate Gabriel "
8. Bilal "

Appendix B-1

በአዲስ አበባ ዩኒቨርሲቲ ድንረ ምረቃ ት/ቤት የሳይኮሎጂ ትምህርት ክፍል

በአጠቃላይ ስርዓት የመምህር - ስርዓት ቀረቤታን በተመለከተ በመምህራ የሚሞላ መጠይቅ።

የመጠይቁ ዓላማ:- በአጠቃላይ መምህራንና ስርዓት መካከል ያለውን የቀረቤታ ዓይነት ስይቸ ስመተንተንና የስርዓትን በት/ቤት የመሳመድ ሁኔታ ለማጠናከር ነው።

መመሪያ:- ስርዓት ተስማሚ የሆነውን መልስ በዚህ ምልክት (v) ሣጥኑ ውስጥ ያመልክቱ

መጠይቁን በአርጋታ አንዲሞሱልኝ አደጠደኩ፣ ስለ ትብብርዎ በቅድሚያ አመሰግናለሁ።

ሀ. የአጠቃላይ ስርዓት ስም _____

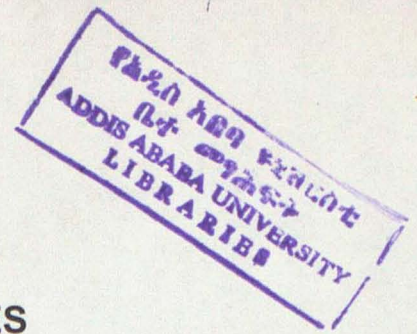
ለ. የስርዓት ስም _____ ዓይነት _____ ዕድሜ _____

ሐ. የሚኖርበት ክፍተኛ _____ ቀበሌ _____ ብሔር _____

ተ.ቁ	የቅርጽ ሁኔታ	ሙሉ በሙሉ ትክክል አይደለም	በአብዛኛው ትክክል አይደለም	አርግጠኛ መሆን ያዳግተኛል	በአብዛኛው ትክክል ነው	ሙሉ በሙሉ ትክክል ነው
1	ከዚህ ስርዓት ጋር ጠበቅ ያለ አስደሳች ቀረቤታ አንጋራለን፣					
2	ይህ ስርዓት ብዙውን ጊዜ ከኔ ጋር አይስማማም፣					
3	ይህ ስርዓት በተናደደ ጊዜ አንዳጽናናው ይፈልጋል፣					
4	ይህ ስርዓት ከኔ ጋር ያለውን ቀረቤታ ዋጋ ይሰጠዋል፣					
5	ይህ ስርዓት ከሰህተት አንዲሞር ሳይሆን የምጩቀነት ይመስለኛል፣					
6	ይህ ስርዓት ከተመሰገንና ከተበረታታ ደስ ይሰጣል፣					
7	ይህ ስርዓት በማንኛውም ጊዜ ስለ ራሱ ሁኔታ ሃሳብ ያካፍላል፣					
8	ይህ ስርዓት ከመጠን ያለፈ በኋላ ጥገና ይሆናል፣					
9	ይህ ስርዓት በኔ በቀላሉ ይናደዳል ይቆጣል፣					
10	ይህ ስርዓት ብዙውን ጊዜ እኔን ለማስደሰት ይሞክራል፣					
11	ስርዓት በጥሩ ሁኔታ አንዳልተንከባከብኩት ይሰማኛል፣					
12	ይህ ስርዓት በማያስፈልገው ጊዜ ጥምር አርዳታዬን ይጠይቃል፣					

ተ.ቁ	የቅርብ ሁኔታ	ሙሉ በሙሉ ትክክል አይደለም	በአብዛኛው ትክክል አይደለም	አርግጠኛ መሆን ያዳግተኛል	በአብዛኛው ትክክል ነው	ሙሉ በሙሉ ትክክል ነው
13	ይህ ሕፃን እኔን የሚገምተኝ በቀጩነት ብቻ ነው።					
14	ይህ ሕፃን ሲረብሽ ከተገሰጸ አይቀበልም ወይም ያኮርፋል።					
15	የዚህ ሕፃን ፀጣይ ያሰሰቸኛል።					
16	ይህ ሕፃን የእን ተግባር ሲከተል አስተውያለሁ።					
17	ይህ ሕፃን ስለእኔ ያለው አመለካከት ተለዋዋጭ ነው።					
18	ይህ ሕፃን ከእኔ አንድ ነገር ከፈለገ በቀጣ መንፈስ ይጠይቀኛል።					
19	ይህ ሕፃን ስሜቱንና ስምዱን በግልጽ ይነግረኛል።					
20	ከዚህ ሕፃን ጋር ያለን መቀራረብ የውጤታማነት፣ መንፈስ እንዲኖረኝ ያደርጋል።					
21	ይህ ሕፃን ቢያስፈልገው እንኳን የእን ድጋፍ ስመቀበል ፈቃደኛ ሆኖ አይገኝም።					

Appendix B₂



ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES DEPARTMENT OF PSYCHOLOGY

Teacher- child Relationship Questionnaire to be filled by the teacher.

1. Name of the Kindergarten : _____
2. Name of the child _____
Sex: _____ Age: _____
Higher _____ Kebele _____ Ethnicity _____

No.	School Adjustment	Definitely Does not Apply	Not Really	Neutral Not Sure	Applies Somewhat	Definitely Applies
1	Share an affectionate warm relationship with this child.					
2	This child and I always seem to be struggling with each other.					
3	If upset, this child will seek comfort from me.					
4	This child values his/her relationship with me.					
5	This child appears hurt or embarrassed when I correct him/her.					
6	When I praise this child, he/she beams with pride.					
7	This child spontaneously shares information about himself/herself.					
8	This child is overly dependent on me.					
9	This child easily becomes angry with me.					
10	This child tries to please me.					
11	This child feels that I treat him/her unfairly.					
12	This child asks for my help when					

	he/she really does not need help.					
13	This child sees me as a source of punishment criticism.					
14	This child remains angry or resistant after being disciplined.					
15	Dealing with this child drains my energy.					
16	I have noticed this child coping my behavior or ways of doing things.					
17	This child's feelings toward me can be unpredictable or can change suddenly.					
18	This child whines or cries when he/she wants something from me.					
19	This child openly shares his/her feelings and experiences with me.					
20	My interactions with this child make me feel effective and confident.					
21	This child does not accept my help when he/she needs it.					

Appendix C-1

በአዲስ አበባ ዩኒቨርሲቲ ድንረ ምረቃ ት/ቤት የሳይኮሎጂ ትምህርት ክፍል

በአፀደ ሕፃናት የተማሪን የመሳመድ ሁኔታ በተመለከተ በመምህራ የሚሞላ መጠይቅ።

የመጠይቁ ዓላማ፡- በአፀደ ሕፃናት የሕፃኑን የመሳመድ ደረጃ ለማጤን ነው።

መመሪያ፡- ስርስዎ ተስማሚ የሆነውን መልስ በዚህ ምልክት (v) ሣጥኑ ውስጥ ያመልክቱ

መጠይቁን በእርጋታ እንዲሞሉልኝ እየጠየኩ፣ ስለ ትብብርዎ በቅድሚያ እመሰግናለሁ።

ሀ. የአፀደ ሕፃናቱ ሥም _____

ለ. የሕፃኑ ሥም _____ ጾታ _____ ዕድሜ _____

ሐ. የሚኖርበት ክፍተኛ _____ ቀበሌ _____ ብሔር _____

ተ.ቁ	የቅርጽ ሁኔታ	ሙሉ በሙሉ ትክክል አይደለም	በአብዛኛው ትክክል አይደለም	እርግጠኛ መሆን ያዳግተኛል	በአብዛኛው ትክክል ነው	ሙሉ በሙሉ ትክክል ነው
1	ይህ ሕፃን ለትምህርቱ በቂ ትኩረት ይሰጣል፣					
2	ይህ ሕፃን የመጫወቻ ቁሳቁሶችን በቀሳሱ መጠቀም ይችላል፣					
3	ይህ ሕፃን ለትምህርት ሥራ እዎንታዊ ዝንባሌ አለው፣					
4	ሕፃኑ አዳዲስ ሃሳቦችን የማፍለቅ ችሎታ አለው፣					
5	ይህ ሕፃን የግል ፍላጎቶችን በግልጽ ያውቃል፣					
6	ሕፃኑ የእን ትእዛዝና መመሪያ ይቃረናል፣					
7	ይህ ሕፃን በቂ የቋንቋ ችሎታ አለው፣					
8	ሕፃኑ አፀደ ሕፃናት ሲሆን ይዘናናል፣					
9	ይህ ሕፃን አግባብ ያላቸው ወቅሳና ትችቶችን ይቀበላል፣					

10	ሕፃኑ ተናዳጅና ቁጡ ነው።					
11	ይህ ሕፃን እንግዳ ከሆኑ አዋቂ ሰዎች ጋር ፈጥኖ መግባባት ይችላል።					
12	ይህ ሕፃን ስሕዲስ ተግባር አዎንታዊ ዝንባሌ አለው።					
13	ይህ ሕፃን ከጓደኞቹ ጋር አዎንታዊ የሆነ መቀራረብ አለው።					
14	ሕፃኑ የምሰጠውን መመሪያ በአትኩሮት ይከታተላል።					
15	ይህ ሕፃን ለማንኛውም ነገር የኔን ማረጋገጫ ይፈልጋል።					
16	ሕፃኑ በአፀደ ሕፃናት ቅጥር ግቢ ውስጥ መሆን ያስደስተዋል።					
17	ይህ ሕፃን ረባሽና በመማር ማስተማሩ ሥራ ላይ ተጽእኖ የሚያሳድር ነው።					
18	ሕፃኑ የሚፈለገውን ነገር በበቂ የቋንቋ ችሎታ መጠየቅ ይችላል።					
19	ይህ ሕፃን ከሌሎች ሕፃናት ጋር ይጣላል።					

Appendix C₂

ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES DEPARTMENT OF PSYCHOLOGY

The child's school Adjustment of Questionnaire to be filled by the teacher.

1. Name of the Kindergarten : _____
2. Name of the child _____
- Sex: _____ Age: _____
- Higher _____ Kebele _____ Ethnicity _____

No.	School Adjustment	Definitely Does not Apply	Not Really	Neutral Not Sure	Applies Somewhat	Definitely Applies
1	This child has a satisfactory level of concentration.					
2	He/she can easily manipulate play materials.					
3	He/she has a positive attitude to work/learning activities.					
4	He/she is creative and forward original ideas.					
5	He/she is able to cope with personal needs.					
6	This child is resistant to the teacher's command and instruction.					
7	This child is able in verbalizing his/her school work.					
8	This child settles in school.					

9	This child accepts genuine criticism and blame.					
10	This child easily annoyed or become angry.					
11	This child can relate maturity with unfamiliar adults.					
12	This child has a positive attitude towards new activities					
13	This child has a positive relationship with peers.					
14	This child follows instructions curiously.					
15	This child often seeks the teacher's attention.					
16	this child has interest in the school environment.					
17	This child is disruptive and influences the classroom mood.					
18	This child competently verbalizes his wants and needs.					
19	This child is in rows with other children.					

Appendix D

Distribution of Teacher-child Relationship Scores for boys and girls

Boys					Girls					
79	74	78	62	102	91	92	92	65	76	78
89	79	80	83	102	78	100	68	66	47	80
91	79	76	93	96	90	68	85	62	71	88
89	64	76	94	65	85	70	90	56	71	76
89	53	92	84	91	71	90	62	87	90	72
80	64	90	87	96	80	68	76	88	87	77
87	76	77	84	87	71	84	81	86	64	58
99	82	73	86	74	81	58	80	90	60	76
91	68	76	97	53		95	82	97	65	
74	84	69	101	82		96	86	91	78	
90	86	77	68	91		77	72	105	99	
82	78	63	65	74		82	81	96	77	
75	70	91	93	81		97	86	75	79	
81	69	84	59	69		68	87	61	57	
94	78	76	58	82		80	85	100	83	
80	72	99	65	72		86	91	93	80	
72	75	85	80	74		84	77	72	88	
95	74	76	90	77		86	74	74	65	
68	75	67	80	71		85	79	78	69	
91	91	61	76	98		92	85	103	91	
90	82	69	80	74		97	92	91	90	
73	85	75	72	91		98	87	68	78	
93	91	84	77	52		74	85	88	79	
97	97	94	85	61		79	78	87	94	
87	89	73	74	57		53	76	83	92	
77	86	97	56	74		84	100	61	66	
94	82	62	59	71		83	71	57	98	
65	86	71	65	83		89	77	88	102	
89	85	61	76	55		83	62	50	100	
91	85	92	70	65		72	58	85	74	
93	82	97	89	71		96	67	84	56	
63	86	93	67	59		86	60	89	85	

Appendix E

Distribution of school adjustment scores for boys and girls

Boys					Girls				
76	58	75	60	65	72	84	57	79	66
87	68	74	57	72	89	72	58	48	80
75	58	69	79	77	73	78	60	69	84
76	76	73	83	75	72	77	51	75	55
75	68	69	43	55	82	59	78	72	69
75	75	63	75	72	71	84	89	73	74
87	55	79	81	67	80	72	71	68	68
87	71	79	75	71	48	64	84	71	60
72	72	74	50		85	76	88	62	
59	69	62	75		85	76	79	70	
87	74	66	77		72	74	88	83	
77	75	58	59		65	69	94	71	
60	70	59	70		83	75	73	73	
85	62	77	63		73	77	68	74	
89	58	73	75		82	83	84	77	
80	70	75	64		57	78	83	89	
62	67	82	67		62	72	68	84	
71	65	77	60		90	73	70	60	
73	67	73	42		78	71	70	68	
77	66	64	91		78	78	89	79	
80	78	56	81		87	78	91	84	
67	77	62	74		81	73	64	77	
77	68	56	32		68	72	84	72	
78	73	82	52		58	66	91	91	
79	73	89	54		46	72	86	90	
76	82	90	88		73	84	58	72	
64	79	85	77		68	65	51	79	
81	76	79	75		75	77	77	91	
61	58	82	57		73	56	38	90	
72	79	88	62		68	63	80	72	
73	75	88	65		81	55	80	73	
78	75	91	41		73	66	79	57	

Appendix F

Frequency Table of Relationship Cluster Membership of boys and girls

Cluster	Total	Number of Boys	%	Number of Girls	%
1	106	55	52%	51	48%
2	132	78	59.1%	54	40.9%
3	67	36	53.7%	31	46.3%
Grand Total	305	169	54.9	136	45.1%

Appendix G

Multiple comparison Results (Post hoc test results)

Score of X	Cluster case (i)	Cluster case (j)	Mean difference (i-j)	Standard error	sig.
Tukey HSD	1	2	14.04	.62	.000
		3	29.82	.74	
	2	1	-14.04	.62	.000
		3	15.78	.71	
	3	1	-29.82	.74	.000
		2	-15.78	.71	
Score of Y			-	-	-
Tukey HSD	1	2	9.51	1.00	.000
		3	20.92	1.20	
	2	1	-9.51	1.00	.000
		3	11.41	1.15	
	3	1	-20.92	1.20	.000
		2	-11.42	1.15	

Score of X = teacher-child relationship
 Score of y = School adjustment