Parenting Styles and Children's Classroom Motivation in Tamale Metropolis

James Kwame Mahama[*] **MPhil. Augustine Adjei** [1] **MEd./MPhil Solomon Sukpen**[2] **MEd.**

[1] Offinso College of Education, Ashanti Region of Ghana- West Africa
[2*] Evangelical Presbyterian College of Education,Bimbila Northern Region of Ghana

Abstract- This study examines the relationship that exists between parenting styles (authoritative, authoritarian and permissive) and student's classroom motivation.Simple random sampling was used to select the subjects for the study.The sample consisted of 390 comprising of 130 students, 130 parents and 130 teachers from twenty public and private Junior High Schools in the Tamale Metropolis. The data were analyzed using partial correlation and logistic regression and analytical techniques with SPSS version 16. Results showed that majority of parents perceived themselves as authoritative, followed by authoritarian and permissive. The findings revealed that mothers were more permissive than fathers. The results also did confirm a positive correlation between paternal parenting styles and children's classroom motivation.These findings are consistent with earlier findings of Cramer (2002) and Baumrind (1971). Possible reasons why the study findings of the present study are consisted with earlier ones were discussed.The study's result also suggest that even though cultures differ in the kinds of opportunities they provide children to develop the competencies the need, parenting everywhere has direct influence on children's social and emotional development. The present study concluded that both paternal and maternal parenting styles have a great bearing on student's classroom motivation. It was therefore recommended that teachers as well as parents need to be trained to acquire skills to handle children's problems in a caring and responsible manner. Implications of the study were discussed and recommendations for future research were suggested.

Index Terms- Motivation, Parenthood, Parenting style

I. BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

There is no way in which parents can evade having a determining effect upon their children's personality, character and competence (Baumrind, 1978). The functions of parenting greatly influence how children develop (Arendell, 1997). Children's lives and opportunities are not simply a product of their innate abilities and biological maturations of the adults who are close to them and the mental, physical and emotional climates in which they are reared. Research in education and psychology has mapped in and outlined general stages of emotional and intellectual growth, and this largely substantiates the intuitive insights into child development which is evidenced in the history of children's literature.De Mause (1976) has Charted Six Modes of parent-child relations in a continuous, overlapping and increasingly compressed historical sequence as parents slowly overcame their anxieties and developed the capacity to identify and meet the needs of their children. These modes range from infanticide in antiquity, through abandonment, ambivalence, intrusive in style, socializing and helping modes, socializing is still popular and is the source of psychological models such as behaviourism which is based upon a functional view of social relations and organization. Helping requires in the words of de Mause.

An enormous amount of time, energy and discussion on the part of parents for helping regressions, being its servant rather than the other way round, interpreting its emotional conflicts and providing the objects specific to its evolving interest.There is in our society today significant underfunctioning among children and those who care for them. This underfunctioning is manifested in terms of degrees of insecurity and emotional stress and the restricted development of the potentially rich range of human skills, intellectual abilities, attitudes and values within the distractive modes of human conspicuousness and forms of understanding which enable persons to make sense of their experience (Whitfield 1980).

Whitfield (1980) some of the suffering and inhibited or retarded development among children is related to the nature of adult care and behaviour which they experience. To him, parenting styles within the home and family provide for the majority the foundations for emotional, social and intellectual adjustment as life progresses. So far as children are concerned, Whitfield (1980) asserts that there are some predominant values that are the foundation ethics of parenthood and childcare. Firstly, there should be a basic respect, built upon awareness, for the rights, needs and individuality of each child, in particular the child's right to continuous and dependable loving care. Secondly, there should be a genuine and pervasive commitment to the responsibilities of childrearing, at least to the point at which the child has grown to a stage of relative autonomy and has acquired a sufficient measure of social and economic independence. He concludes by saying that the child's rights and the caregivers' obligations and responsibilities go hand in hand and are part of the same piece. The relationships between parents and children are bidirectional, reciprocal, interacting and mutually regulating. Parents from the moment of birth can never be in total control of, nor accountable for their children's behaviour. Likewise, the most skilled, motivated and highly informed parent will make mistakes in parenthood, as patterns of behaviour are

misunderstood; everyone has limits of parental performance. Parents, like teachers, are human and fallible.

Nevertheless, parenthood is demanding and at times infinitely testing of the adults character (Whitfield, 1980).One important task of parenting is the socialization of children. The socially competent child can described as possessing independence, social responsibility and achievement orientation, which is the drive to seek intellectual challenges and solve problems efficiently and with persistence (Baumrind, 1978). Achievement orientation is more simply described as motivation. The role of parenting cannot be overlooked when assessing the development of motivation in children. Education is vital as the development of every nation is concerned, for it is the human resources of any nation rather than its physical capital and material resources, which ultimately determine the character and pace of its economic and social development.Harbison (1990) cited in Anyanwu (1994) agrees with this assertion when he notes that… human resources…. capital and natural resources are passive factors of production; human beings are the active agents who accumulate capital, exploit natural resources, build social economic and political organization and carry forward national development. Clearly, a country which is unable to develop the skills and acknowledge of its young ones to their fullest is doing a lot of harm to her development. Education affects all aspects of an individual's life such as attitudes, values and perceptions.

Singer as cited in Antwi (1992) notes:It is only where the working force at all levels is sufficiently literate, educated, trained and mobile to take advantage of new advances in techniques and organizations of production that the creation of a built-in industry of progress becomes possible (Antwi; 1992 p.221)Socially, education serves as a medium that leads to an informed citizenry without which democratic institutions necessary for the transmission of information for the maintenance of political democracy, social harmony and stability cannot survive. The need for a sound education for the youth in Ghana in general and those in Tamale in particular cannot be over-emphasized. In an era of transmission, education serves the purpose of social reconstruction, economic efficiency, cultural change, rural regeneration, social integration, political efficiency, creation of modern men and women, development of manpower resources and the development of individual excellence (Anyenwu, 2000).

It is in the recognition of all the important role education plays in development that Ghana devotes large chunk of her national resources to the expansion and maintenance of her school systems. The justification for the special attention paid to education is the belief that investment in formal education is an important way to develop human capital, reduce poverty and increase social mobility among the citizenry. The Government of Ghana has implemented a New Education Reform to meet modern trends in education delivery in September, 2007. In the government's view, an educated and skilled workforce is paramount for a dynamic knowledge-based economy, and we need, as a country to build institutions that will enable us achieve the status of middle income country by 2020. In this light, there is the need to develop in the youth critical thinking skills, technical and vocational skills that would enable the country to develop a cream of globally competitive workers who can transform the Ghanaian economy.

Good parenting which means taking responsibility for meeting the physical, intellectual, social and emotional needs as well as the general welfare of children is a key to the above agenda. When parents provide children's needs adequately especially with regard to their respective gender roles, the children enjoy good family life and eventually contribute their quota to the well-being and upkeep of the family. In many homes in the Tamale Metropolis, children schooling may be mediated by several factors among which are parental support, teacher support, achievement motivation, parents' marital status, parents' level of education and academic self- concept among others. These factors can either enhance or impede the academic performance of a child.

II. CHILDREARING PRACTICES

The meanings attached to children, along with beliefs about the nature of childhood and desirable outcomes, shape childrearing practices. All cultures seen children's development in moral terms, but there are contrasting ideas both about what behaviours should be encouraged in children and how best to facilitate their acquisition. Hoffman (1988) asserts that the aspects of childrearing that encourage exploration and enjoying peer relationship are practices that instill parental love. Hoffman, a child developmentalist, had studied child-rearing techniques and the development of motivation and moral. His childrearing technique focused on parent's discipline techniques. These include love withdrawal power assertion and induction. Love withdrawal according to Hoffman (1988) is a discipline technique in which a parent withholds attention or love from the child, as when the parent refuses to talk to the child. Power assertion he says is a technique in which a parent attempts to gain control over the child or the child's resources. Examples include spanking, threatening and removing privileges. To Hoffman induction is a discipline technique where a parent uses reason and explanation of the consequences for others of the child's actions.

Even though Hoffman 91988) believes that any discipline produces arousal on the child's part, he thinks that parents should use induction tom encourage children's development. in many of his research on parenting techniques, Hoffman concluded that induction is more positively related to development of motivation and morals than is love withdrawal and power assertion.

Eisenberg and Murphy (1995) agreed that parental discipline does contribute to children's development, but there are other aspects of parenting that play an important role, such as providing opportunities for perspective taking and modeling behaviour and thinking. Eisenberg and Murphy (1995) summarized their findings from the research literature on ways in which parenting can influence children's development of motivation. They concluded that in general children with high intrinsic motivation tend to have parents who are warm and supportive rather than punitive, use inductive discipline, provide opportunities for the children to learn about other's perspectives and feelings, involve children in family decision making, and model behaviour and thinking and providing the opportunities for their children to model such behaviours and thinking. Parents who show this configuration of behaviours according to them foster development of concern caring about others in their

children. The parents also provide information about what behaviours are expected of the child and why, and promote an internal motivational orientation in the child rather than external motivational pattern.

Often childrearing is gendered: Indian girls, for instance experience more control over their social and household activities, while boy's academic work comes under close family scrutiny. (Verma & Saraswathi; 2002).Some African societies use the metaphor of a seed, nursed to maturing by a range of actors (Nwamenang, 2002). The Hausa believe children are born without a definite character and that upbringing is crucial in shaping future character. This is expressed in proverbs relating to childrearing: 'character is like writing on a stone'; 'stick should be burnt when it is raw' (Schildkrout, 2002:354). According to Schildkrout (2002) by about seven however, Hausa children are said to develop understanding or sense, which they acquire through experience, and can assume responsibility for their own behaviour.

Children in China similarly assume a modeling theory of learning – emphasis is placed on functioning as a desirable model for children to copy. There is a strong belief in children's natural benevolence – that children are basically good and readily malleable. Throughout early childhood parents are expected to be tolerant but once children begin school they are deemed capable of reasoning and expected to conform to socially appropriate behaviour (Stevenson &Zusho, 2002). Santa Maria (2002) opines that development of autonomy is less important in some cultures. For instance, in South East Asia, children grow up accepting dependence on their families – they are not expected to develop rapidly and are not strictly disciplined. Gannotti and Handweker (2002) cites Puerto Rico where parent are expected to help children whenever called upon to do so, to avoid emotional upsets and children may remain very dependent into middle childhood. There are also cultural variations in the extent to which parents or other adults are expected to exercise authority in shaping children's characters. Setswana proverbs emphasis children's subservience to their parents such as 'a child's parent is its god' (Mauldeni, 2002)

III. THEORETICAL APPROACH TO PARENTING

Psychologists such as Ann Roe, Abraham Maslow, Sigmond Freud, Defrain and Olson have come out with theories on childrearing practices and their influences on the child's academic performance and career development. The Personality/Needs theories such as Ann Roe has focused on the importance of satisfying the child's needs as a way of creating conducive atmosphere for the child's genuine development. On the basis of her intensive investigations of 'scientists' and 'artists' early childhood experiences and personality traits, Ann Roe (1957) cited in Kankam and Onivehu (2000) formulated the Personality/Need theory that stresses the importance of need satisfaction in intellectual development and successful career achievement. Essentially, the theory is based on the premise that: "successful academic achievement and its subsequent career development is dependent on needs satisfaction and general orientation to satisfy needs, determined largely by early childhood experiences in the home".

The personality theorist's view on childrearing practices and the influences they have on social performance focused on the importance of satisfying the child's needs and creation of conducive home environment to enhance effective school work. To this end the need to create cordial, social, psychological and emotional climate in the home is of a great concern to the Personality/Need theorists.Kankam and Onivehu (2000) the Personality/Need theory posit that early childhood experiences play an important role in finding satisfaction in one's adult life. Thus the need structure of the individual would be greatly influenced by early childhood frustrations and satisfactions. The theory emphasized that the extent to which needs are fulfilled and satisfied determine the nature of an individual's motivation.

Kankam and Onivehu (2000) posit that Ann Roe (1957) postulated three types of Parental styles: emotional concentration of the child, avoidance of the child and acceptance of the child. The emotional concentration on the child, to them, has two levels. These are over – protecting parents limit exploration by the child and encourage dependency, while over – demanding parents set very high standards for the child and rigidly enforce conformity. The avoidance type of childbearing according to Luthman (2002), is divided into rejecting and neglecting parents. The rejecting parent resents the child, expresses a cold and indifferent attitude, and works to keep the child from interfering into his/her life. The neglecting parent is less hostile toward the child, but provides no affection or attention and only the basic minimum physical care is provided. The accepting parents could also be either casual or loving acceptance. The casually accepting parents are affectionate and loving but in a mild way and only give the child attention, if they are not occupied in any way. Loving acceptance parents provide much warmth, affection, praise, attention and encouragements to their children. (Kankam and Onivehu 2002.

IV. THE PSYCHODYNAMIC THEORY ON PARENTING

The psychodynamic approach tries to study emotions and other internal forces of the individual. Psychologists under this assume that personality develops as psychological conflicts are resolved typically during childhood. A giant of this approach is Sigmond Freud (1831-1939). As a neurologist by training, Freud noticed that many of his parents' nervous ailments appeared to be psychological rather than psychological in origin. (Morris and Maisto, 1999). Olson and Defrain (2000) Frued held that personality develops in a series of critical stages during the first few years of life. They emphasized the importance of providing positive emotional environmental conditions for the child who needs to believe that the world is safe and good place and that parents can be trusted to be kind and consistent. Olson and Defrain are of the view that although individuals who have suffered enormously in childhood can make dramatic, positive changes later in life, it is best if parents can help children to succeed in their academic pursuit from the very beginning by adopting the best and most suitable parenting strategies.

V. THE FIELD THEORY

Funder (2004) posits that Lewin 1956 propounded the Field Theory. In this theory, he postulated that adolescence is really a "no man's land". The adolescent is neither a child nor an adult but an individual caught up in the field of overlapping forces and expectation. Funder explains that Lewin's theory views the adolescent as "marginal person" striving to live a less privilege area that is childhood to a more privilege one that is adulthood. Lewin's field theory explains and describes the dynamics of behaviour of the individual adolescent without generalizing about adolescent as a group. Lewin maintains that general psychological concepts, laws and principles derived from the basis of frequency can create a dilemma since these laws are derived from many individuals and are true in terms of probability only. Such laws may or may not apply to specific individuals. This makes Lewin's theory unique, Funder (2004) maintains. One of Lewin's major contributions is the law that behaviour (B) is a function (F) of the personal (P) and of his or her environment (E), which he states as B = (PE) and the P and E in this formula are interdependent variables. Lewin asserts that how a child perceives his or her environment depends upon the stages of his or her development, his personality and his knowledge and that an unstable psychological environment during childhood brings about instability in an individual. Therefore to understand a child's behaviour, Lewin believes that one has to consider him and his environment as interdependent factors (Funder 2004).

Lewin (1957) cited in Connie (1997) the sum of all environment and personal factors in interaction is called the Life Space or the Psychological Space. The life space he says is the total of the non-physical factors and an individual's needs motivations and other psychological factors that determine behaviour. In effect behaviour is a function of life space and not only of the physical stimuli.

VI. PARENTING STYLES

Parents want their children to grow into socially mature individuals but they may feel frustrated in typing to discover the best way to accomplish this. As such they adopt varying parenting styles.

VII. NEGLECTFUL

Neglectful parenting is also called uninvolved, dismissive, or hands off parenting. Maccoby and Martin (1983) call this parenting style indifferent-uninvolved. They describe these parents as emotionally detached, that is they keep their children at a distance. According to Maccoby and Martin (1983) parents in this group are low in warmth and control, low in responsiveness and donot set limits. Martin (1984) posits that neglectful parents are focused on their own needs more than the needs of their own children. Demo and Cox (2000) argue that neglectful parents are unsupportive of their children though, they will still provide basic needs for the children. Dekovic and Garris (1992) agree with Martin (1984) by saying that these parents' needs and wants are always their first priority, so that the lack of

a good loving relationship with the child has a significant negative impact on the child's psychological development.

Little is known about this parenting style, and research on this population of parents is lacking because they are typically not very responsive or involved in their children's lives and therefore do not volunteer to be studied. However, Lamborn, (1991), Lamborn, Mounts, Steinberg and Dombusch (1991) were able to study the adolescent children of neglectful parents by receiving permission from the school to include all children unless the parents contacted the researchers to request their children be excluded from the study. Results of this study indicated that children of neglectful parents scored lowest on measures of psycho-social competence and highest on measures of psychological and behavioural dysfunctions, the opposite of children of authoritative parents. Because these parents and consequently their children are difficult to study, this study will examine only three previously mentioned parenting styles. (Authoritative, Authoritarian and permissive).

VIII. AUTHORITARIAN

The authoritarian parenting style is characterized by low warmth and high control. It has its roots in the seventeenth and eighteenth century puritanical belief system that finds virtue in unquestioning obedience (Baumrind 1978). Authoritarian Parents are often emotionally detached, but restrictively controlling. They use force and punitive measures in order to curb their children's self-will. Although they are consistent in discipline, these parents often use power assertion, which involves the idea that parent should be obeyed because she is bigger, more significant, and more powerful than the child. The power assertion used to guide their children, however, leaves no room for questioning or discussion. In an earlier study by Baumrind (1973), authoritarian parents admitted to frightening their children as means of control. This parenting style has been negatively associated with academic achievement, expressiveness and independence in children (Hill, 1995, Schumow et al., 1998). While children of authoritarian parents show high levels of obedience, research has shown this parenting style to also produce some negative outcomes in children's development, such as low levels of self-concept (Lamborn, et al., 1991) and poor adjustment at school (Schumow et al, 1998).

IX. PERMISSIVE (INDULGENT PARENTING)

Permissive parents typically display high levels of warmth and low levels of control in interations with their children. This style of parenting dates back to the philosopher Rousseau in the eighteenth century and was strongly promoted in the 1970s by the Children's Movement (Baumrind, 1978). Baumrind (1978) described the idea behind permissive parenting as self-actualization or the natural tendency of children o learn on their own all they need to know, and to act on this knowledge when ready to do so. This parenting style is characterized by an affirmative, accepting and benign manner that frees children from restraint. Permissive parents warm, loving and child-centered, but they are prone to sudden outbursts of anger when they reach their capacity of tolerance. These parents often use

love withdrawal and ridicule as a means of discipline. Though they often grant their children's demands for independence, they fail to engage in independence training of their children. (Baumrind, 1973). Like children in authoritarian homes, children reared in permissive homes also display some negative developmental outcomes. These children generally express high levels of self-confidence but are prone to drug abuse, delinquency, and a lack of interest in school during adolescent. (Lamborn et al., 1991). They are also more likely to use tobacco and alcohol as minors (Cohen and Rice, 1991).

X. AUTHORITATIVE

High levels of warmth and high level of control characterize the authoritative parenting style. Authoritative parenting provides a balance between authoritarian and permissive parenting. Authoritative parents use reasoning and consistency in interactions with their children, placing high value on verbal give and take (Baumrind, 1978). These parents are more likely to use positive reinforcement and induction to guide their children. Induction involves explaining reasons and consequences to aid children in forming internalizing the concepts of right and wrong. Authoritative parents communicate clearly with their children, and they encourage their children's independent strivings (Baumrind 1973). Contrary to the previously described parenting styles, "authoritative discipline tends to foster in children a particular kind of social competence which is associated with success in Western society" (Baumrind, 1978 p. 245). Authoritative parenting has been associated with numerous positive child outcomes, such as self-regulation, high social competence, positive social adjustment, and low psychological and behavioural dysfunction (Grolnick and Ryan, 1989; Lamborn, et al 1991). Hill (1995) found authoritative parenting to be positively correlated with organization, achievement and intellectual orientation in children. Additionally, children of authoritative parents have also been shown to process higher levels of autonomy than children of authoritarian and permissive parents (Deslandes, 2000).

XI. EMPIRICAL STUDIES ON PARENTING STYLES

In one of the best-known studies on the developmental consequences of parenting styles, Baumrind (1978) did a study into children's behaviour during routine activities in a preschool at a Middle-class North American nuclear family. She used purposive sample of 100 families. She rated children's behaviour on a 72 – item scale and correlated these ratings to obtain seven clusters of scores, representing seven dimensions of preschool behaviour such as hostile vs. friendly, resistive vs. cooperative, domineering vs. tractable, dominant vs. submissive, purposive vs. aimless, achievement-oriented vs. not achievement oriented and independent vs. suggestive. Baumrind interviewed each child's parents about their child-rearing beliefs and practices. The study concluded that parenting behaviours in 77 percent of their families fit one of three patterns:

Authoritarian, Authoritative and permissive.Baumrind found that, on the average, each style of parenting was associated with different pattern of children's behaviour in the preschool:

children of authoritarian tended to lack social competence in dealing with other children. In situation of moral conflict, they tended to look outside authority to decide what was right. These children were often characterized as lacking spontaneity and intellectual curiosity.

Children of authoritative parents appeared more self-reliant, self-controlled and willing to explore. Baumrind believes that this is a result of the fact that authoritative parents set high standards for their children, they explain why they are being rewarded and punished. Such explanations improve children's understanding and acceptance of social rules. Children of permissive parents tended to be relatively immature, they had difficulty controlling their impulses, accepting responsibility for social actions, and acting independently In another studies on the influence of parenting styles on children's classroom motivation, Cramer (2001) examined the relationships between authoritarian, permissive and authoritative parenting styles and child outcomes as measured by child interviews and questionnaires. Cramer used a random sample of 281 students. Correlation analyses were performed to determine which demographic characteristics should be used as control variables. Regression analyses were also performed to examine the relationship between parenting styles and children's classroom motivation.

The study concluded that mother's authoritative parenting was found to be positively related to children's mastery motivation, fathers' authoritarian parenting was found to be negatively related to children's mastery motivation and mothers' permissive parenting was negatively related to
teachers' perception of children's classroom motivation. Contrary to Cramer's expectations, mothers' authoritarian parenting was found to be positively related to children's mastery motivation and teachers' perceptions of children's classroom motivation. Research conducted in the years since Baumrinds initial publications has generally supported her observations and extended them to older children (Bornstein 1996). For example Dornbusch (1987) and Herman (1997) found that authoritative parenting is associated with better school performance and better social adjustment than authoritarian parenting among high school students, just as it is among preschoolers.

Despite the consistency of these findings, the conclusion that authoritative parenting is most conducive to intellectual and social competence must be qualified in two important ways. Firstly, it is important to remember that the basic strategy for relating parenting behaviours to child behaviours used in these researches relies on correlational data. Consequently, there can be no certainty that differences in parenting styles caused the differences in children's behaviour. Caspi (1998) has summarized a variety of researches suggesting that it is just as likely that parenting style is influenced by the child's characteristic as it is that the child is shaped by a particular style of parenting. A particular active and easily frustrated child, for example may elicit authoritarian parenting whereas, from the same parents, an easy going or timid child might elicit an authoritative style. In support of this view, research on the personalities of biologically unrelated children in the same household has shown that children are quite different from one another, even though they were being raised by the same parents. (Plomin and Bergeman, 1991). Such findings imply one of two things: Patterns of Caregiving do not have effect on a child's

behaviour or parents' patterns of caregiving vary from one child to the next. Either conclusion undermines the idea that parental styles of socialization are the causes of variations in children's development (Harris, 1998).

The presence of both parents in the household has been found from various studies to be a factor determining the differences that existed in children's educational achievement and attainment. Fox (1994) pointed out that a family's interaction pattern affects the security of the child's attainment, patterns of aggressiveness, language and cognitive development. Thus interpersonal interaction between parents and their children help children develop intellectual abilities that enables them perform better at school. Studies conducted by Reed and Dubow (1997) on parent-child communication pointed out that of all the influences on child development, human relations are the most important. They posited that parent-child communication enhances children's cognitive and intellectual abilities in that children normally pick up most of their communication skills from parents. Again, through interaction, parents get to know more about their children's problems and offer immediate assistance to them. This often saves the children from trouble which could likely occur if such problems are not solved.

Krien and Beller (1988) in a study conducted on educational attainment of children from single-parent families concluded that children in non-intact families had less investment in their education because they had lower family incomes and lived in poor communities. Perhaps even more important, children in non-intact families received less parental time and attention, single mothers were likely to be working outside home and had less income to cater for the educational needs of their children. A range of studies conducted by researchers (Simpson, McCarthy and Walker, 1995; Dennis and Erados 1995) examined the repercussions of father absence on children and by consensus postulated that, the loss of the father (role model) could predispose the child to maladjustment, delinquency and poor academic performance.

Zimiles and Lee (1991) in a study on parenting style and its correlates showed how family structure can affect a student's school work. They compared students from three different types of families (intact, single-parent and step-families and the styles they adopt) with respect to high school grades and educational persistence. Based on a large sample of 13,582 from a national data set (the High School and Beyond Study), they found that differences among the three groups with regards to achievement test scores and high school grades were slightly but statistically significant. Students from both single-parent and step-families lagged behind those from intact families because both families used the authoritarian approach to parenting. But were indistinguishable from each other. This trend persisted even after the socio-economic status was taken into account. This study revealed the effects of family structure on children but it did not indicate the processes or mechanisms responsible in different environments for the academic motivation of children.

A study by Mueller and Cooper (1986) extended the effects on family structure beyond student academic achievement. They employed a control group to study the effects of family structure on social adjustment in early adulthood. Their subjects were 1,448 Mid-West young adults. They found that the lower educational attainment of respondents reared in single-parent families appeared to be the result of the economic disadvantage and the style of parenting of such families rather than their structure. However, for some other outcomes such as economic attainment and marriage stability, children from single-parent families fared less well than their counterpart from two-parent families even after family of origin and economic conditions were controlled.

Milne, Myers, Rosenthal and Ginsburg (1986) attempted to process in the study of the educational achievement of children from single-parent families. Working with two national data bases (the Sustaining Effect Study of Title, N = 12,249 and the High School and Beyond, N = 2700), Milne and her colleagues examined the effects of living in a one parent family on children's classroom motivation and academic achievement. In their analysis, they not only examined the effects of socio-economic status, race, and age but also the effects of several process variables including their custodial mother's educational expectations, number of books in the home, homework monitoring and time use at home. They found that students from two-parent families had higher scores on reading and mathematics achievement tests than students from one-parent families. This trend persisted even after race and age were taken into account. They also found that parents' educational expectation for students were significant mediators of the effects of family structure. Based on the small and non-significant direct effects of family structure on academic achievement. Milne et al (1986) argued that the negative effects of living in a one-parent family work primarily through other variables such as socio-economic status, parenting styles and parents educational expectations.

Using data from the "class structure and class consciousness in the Federal Republic of Germany" survey collected in 1985, they based their analysis on a sub-sample of the larger survey which was limited to persons with ages between 18 and 39. They had a sample of 939 respondents. They found that research in the United States of America showed that children who grew up with single parents were more likely to drop out of school than those who grew up with two parents, and children whose parents divorced had lower educational attainments than children whose parents did not divorce. This happened as a result of low parental support, control and supervision, low access to economic resources and stress that come with change from a two-parent family to a one-parent family. These resulted in low classroom motivation which led into low academic aspirations and achievements which also led to low educational attainment.

In contrast, Singlemann and Wojtkiewicz in the end showed that when the normal socio-economic factors were held constant, growing up in a single-parent household had little effect on the educational attainment of children in Germany but had a negative effect on vocational training than those who lived with two-parents. On the other hand, growing up with a single-parent was more likely to affect the educational attainment of children in America.

Kugh (2000) categorized factors that affect parents' attitudes towards schooling under three main headings – parents' background and characteristics, the cost and benefits parents see in education and the general norms and practices of the community. He submitted that certain background characteristics

of parents have been shown in a number of studies to be correlated with educational participation. The three most important are economic level, parental education and place of residence. According to him, research studies by Filmer (1999), showed that fewer children of the poor complete grade one, while more children of the Wealthy do so. Therefore, when households' incomes are low, children's classroom motivation is likely to be affected negatively.

Addae-Mensah, Djangmah and Agbenyega (1973) in a on family background and educational opportunities in Ghana, found that students of parents of high educational and income were admitted to the top ten schools in Ghana between 1968 and 1970. They also discovered that 43 percent of them came from high income families and only 14.4 percent came from farmers, fishermen and labourers' families and 14 percent had no occupation listed.

Opare (1999) opined that besides the social support that middle class parents offer to their children and wards, such parents also monitor the progress of their children in school and make their children feel as sense of belonging. Such a sense of belonging, according to him, invariably tends to serve as a motivator to pupils to learn hard. Opare's view harmonizes with the findings of Majoribanks (1988) in a longitudinal study that the aspirations of parents middle class families had differential linear and curvilear associations with the educational and occupational outcomes of young adults from different social status groups. Majoribanks (1988) posited that for young adults in the middle class social status families, parental aspirations had a curvilinear association with education attainment until the threshold level is attained.

Blau and Duncan (1977) cited in Majoribanks (19880 showed that parents' education was a major predictor of a child's reading ability and success. Although parents' education particularly maternal education has been found to be an important predictor of children's reading level and other school achievements, the question of precisely how better and educated parents confer an advantage on their children remain open. Studies have suggested that mother's education is related to how they think about and behave toward their children which may, in turn have an effect on their children's classroom motivation (Durkin 1986; Laosa 1978) cited in majoribanks (1988). Educated mothers, it is explained, provide their children with more materials and activities that promote literacy and become more directly involved in their children's education. This finding corroborates the research result of Leibowitz (1974) as cited by Kalmijn (1994). The results indicated that the influence of mother's education on school related outcomes was stronger than that of the father's. This was because an educated mother sets examples for children and gives help in school related work.

Snow (1991) argued that mother with more education is likely to have a higher degree of literacy, would probably provide more extensive experience for her children, and is likely to have higher educational aspirations for them. She posited further that mother's educational level and their aspirations for their children seemed to matter more to children's achievement than did fathers'. The explanation offered was that in general, mothers helped with homework, selected reading materials, answered questions, read bedtime stories, enforced television rules and in many other ways serve as the father's

teacher.Further research on status attainment indicate that educational aspirations of parents are associated with higher aspirations in children and that this association accounts for a significant part of the association between father's and son's educational attainment. (Astone and McLanahan 1991).

Bishop (1989) indicated that a study conducted at the University of Karachi Pakistan showed that children of parents with university of education were over represented at the university 27 times compared to children of illiterate parents. This finding is consistent with findings of studies carried out in Brazil, India and Colombia. The finding showed that children from educated parents were strongly over-represented among students at the university. Bishop also asserted that in virtually all nations today, irrespective of ideology or level of development, children of parents who are high on the occupational and social scale tended to get more years of schooling than those of low-income children.According to him, in a supposedly strictly egalitarian country such as the former Soviet-Union, there was concern that students at universities were dominated by those from professional and managerial background. Students of peasant origin, especially those from rural areas whose parents had little or no education were handicapped compared to children of professional urban parents (Bishop 1989). These results go to support the Role Model Theory which stresses that parents set examples for their children. Hence a parent with more education acts as a model or a motivator which encourages similar behaviour from his or her offspring (Harveman, Wolfe and Spaulding 1991).

Cohen (1987) did agree to the assertion when he stated that there is a strong correlation between parental education and children's classroom motivation. He explained that a parent transmits his or her educational values through modeling and redefining. Moreover if a parent's education attainment is high, education appears to his or her children as the outré to socio-economic success. Conversely, if a parent's education is low, education appears irrelevant to his or her children. The implication here is that parents with high educational status become role models for their children in terms of classroom motivation and academic achievement. The reason for this according to Godfried (1994) is that well educated parents more often actively involved and interested in their children's academic progress.

XII.   PARENTING STYLES AS RELATED TO MARITAL STATUS

Approximately half of all marriages in the United States end in divorce, and it has been estimated that about 30 percent of all children born to married couples will see their parents' divorce sometime before they are 18 years old (Furstenberg &Charlin, 1991). Amato and Keith, (1991) children whose parents have divorced are twice as likely as children whose parents are still together to have problems in school, to act out, to be depressed and unhappy, to have less self-esteem, and to be less socially responsible and competent.Emery and Forehand, (1994) are of the view that most children whose parents divorce make some adjustment to the situation and develop into competent individuals who function normally. They agree that in the short run, however, the breakup of a family is dislocating for

everyone involved and often immediately following a divorce there is deterioration in parenting.

Amato and Keith (1991) agreed to the assertion by stating that custodial parents are often socially isolated and lonely. They are of the view that single parents have no one to support them when the children question their authority and no one to act as a buffer between them and their children. They assert that the task of parenting is even more difficult for a custodial mother when the father sees his children only occasionally and is indulgent or permissive on these occasions.Although it makes intuitive sense that the losses associated with the breakup of a family are the causes of various behavioural and social problems experienced by children of a divorced family, a number of studies that collected data about children before their parents divorced have cast doubt on this idea. Many researchers have suggested that it is the style a parent adopts and not divorce itself, that poses the greatest risk for children's development.

XIII. IMPACT OF PARENT'S SOCIO ECONOMIC STATUS ON PARENTING STYLE

Poverty touches all aspects of family life: the quality of housing and health care, access to education and recreational facilities (Duncan and Brooks – Gunn, 1997; McLoyd, 1998). Poverty also appears to affect parents' approach to child rearing. Studies in many parts of the world have found that, families living close to the subsistence level parents are likely to adopt child-rearing practices that are controlling in a manner akin to the authoritarian pattern described by Baumrind. Le Vine (1974) cited in Cole and Cole (2001) parents who know what it means to eke out a living see obedience as the means by which their children will be able to make their way in the world and establish themselves economically in the young adulthood when the basis must be laid for the economic security of their immediate families.

An emphasis on obedience is also frequently encountered in poor families in the United States, in part for the economically based reason cited by Le Vine. In addition, some researchers have suggested that poor minority mothers in the United States demand unquestioning obedience and discourage their children's curiosity because the dangerous circumstances of their daily life make independence on the part of their children too risky, (McLoyd, 1998). Another important way in which poverty influences parenting is by raising the level of parents' stress. Parents whom are under stress are less nurturant, more likely to resort to physical punishment and less consistent when they interact with their children. Although scanty resources offer one explanation for obedience-oriented parenting styles, there are other factors. Several studies have shown that the parents' type of work is directly related to their style of interaction with their children at home. (Greenberg 1994; Crouter, 1994).

XIV. PARENTS' LEVEL OF EDUCATION AND CHILDREN'S CLASSROOM MOTIVATION

Research indicates that educational level of a parent is particularly influential in determining whether a child is intrinsically motivated in the classroom. Ersado (2005) asserts that a parent's level of education is the most consistent determinant of child's education and employment decisions. Hallman (2006) agrees with the above assertion and stated that higher level of education of parents or household heads turns to be associated with increased access to education, higher attendance rates, higher intrinsically motivated children and lower dropout rates. A number of reasons have been advanced for the association between parents' level of education and children's higher level of classroom motivation. Pryor and Ampiah (2003) are of the view that non-educated parents are not able to provide support, offer help, do not understand children's position in decision making and they evaluate their children's behaviour and attitudes according to a set of traditional standards and often do not appreciate the benefits of schooling. Pryor and Ampiah assert that educated parents provide intellectually stimulating environment, encourage independent action of children and that they have ability to understand children's behaviour and actions. Such parents they concluded demonstrate a high commitment to education of their children not only by owing books and reading to their children but also by requiring their children to do extensive homework.

Brown and Parkers (2002) a research in China indicated that for each additional year of a father's education, the probability of his child dropping out of school falls by 12-14%. However, a study done in Brazil by Cardoso and Verner (2007) argue that the schooling level of the mother does not have significant impact on the probability of the child dropping out of school.

These studies imply that a child's classroom motivation is not determine by his or her parents' level of education alone. Al Samarri and Peagood (1988) conducted a research in Tanzania which also suggested that a father's education has a greater influence on boy's primary schooling and the mother's on girls. The same research did indicate that while a married mother's primary education can increase the probability of girls enrolling in primary school by 9.7% and secondary by 17.6%, it has no significant effect on the enrolment of boys. This implies that educated mothers have a stronger preference for their daughter's education. From the above studies done, it can be concluded that parenting is a dynamic phenomenon and that whereas parents' level of education may influence their children's classroom motivation, the child's Characteristics such as determination and resiliency do count.

XV. PARENTING STYLES AND CHILDREN'S CLASSROOM MOTIVATION

In the earlier half of the twentieth century, motivation was thought by those in the field of psychology to be based on "drives" Such as animal or instinctual drives (White, 1959). Drive theories, however, could not explain the curiosity or desire to manipulate or control the environment that was evident in research on these theories. Effectance motivation (also called competence motivation) involves behaviour characterized by curiosity, exploration, and experimentation propelled by the feeling of efficacy that comes with mastering one's environment (White, 1959). White's theory of motivation brought about a shift in thinking regarding the ideas of motivation prevalent at

that time. (Harter, 1978). Much research has focused on effectance motivation in regard to intrinsic versus extrinsic motivation orientation (Amabile, Hill, Hennessey. And Tighe, 1994, Boggiano and Barrett 1985; Harter, 1978; 1981, Gottfried, 1985; 1990).Boggiano and Barrett (1985) examined motivational orientation as a mediator of the influence of failure feedback on children's future performance. The results of this study indicated that an intrinsic motivational orientation had a positive influence on children's persistence in completing future tasks. Gottfried (1985; 1990) found children's intrinsic motivation to be positively related to academic achievement. Many of these researchers further focused on how intrinsic and extrinsic motivation influence school behaviour.

Past research has focused on the relationships between motivation and varying aspects of school behaviour, such as perceptions of academic achievement, personal control, grades, and perceptions of academic competence, goal setting, and academic anxiety (Boggiano et al., 1988; Elliot and Dweck, 1988; Gottfried, 1985). In an another investigation of the relationship between motivation and school, Anderman, Griesinger and Westerfield (1998) examined adolescent's perceptions of and involvement in cheating in relation to their motivational goals and their perceptions of performance and external factors in the classroom. The results of this study indicated that children who cheated thought their class was extrinsically focused and their school was focused on performance. Lange, Mckinnon and Nida (1989) determined that motivational factors directly contribute to young children's recall proficiency. In addition to the desire to understand the relationship between motivation and school, still other researchers sought to find the source of motivational orientation beginning from the home (Ginsburg and Brostein, 1993; Hokoda and Fincham, 1995; Wentzel 1998). Gottfried et al (1994) found that parental motivational practices play a distinctive role in children's academic intrinsic motivation. In another infestation of parenting behaviours, Ginsburg and Bronstein (1993) found that over-and under-controlling parenting styles were linked to extrinsic motivation while parental encouragement in response to grades and autonomy-supporting family styles were linked to intrinsic motivation.

Dweck (1999) has been studying the question of why some children are motivated to try hard in school in the face of difficulties and even failure, while others stop trying as soon as they encounter difficulty. Dweck hypothesized two patterns of motivation that was observed in early childhood and became especially prominent once children entered school, where their failures and success are visible to their classmates.According to this hypothesis, some children develop a motivational pattern that is referred to as Mastery Orientation. In her view, even if these children have just done poorly or failed at a task, they remain optimistic and tell themselves", "I can do it fi I try harder next time". As a result of this kind of thinking, they tend to persist in the face of difficulties and to lok for challenges similar to those they are struggling with. Over time, this kind of motivation pattern allows these children to improve their academic performance. These children according to the study were traced to the authoritative parenting style. By contrast other children develop a helpless motivational pattern,. When they fail at a task, they tell themselves, "I can't do that", and they give up

trying altogether. When they encounter similar task in the future, they tend to avoid them. This helpless orientation toward difficulty and failure lowers these children's chance of achieving academic success. Children of the helpless orientation were traced to the authoritarian type of parenting.

Dweck (1999) tested her hypothesis by presenting several jigsaw puzzles to 4 – and – 5 – year – old children. Unknown to the children, only one of the puzzles actually could be completed. Some of the children did not become upset when they failed at the impossible puzzles and took the task as a challenge, showing a mastery motivational pattern, others became upset and gave up, showing the helpless pattern, just as Dweck had predicted. When these same children were invited back to play with the puzzles at later time, those who did not persist on the impossible puzzles wanted to play only with the puzzle they had successfully completed, while the more mastery-oriented children wanted to try again to solve the puzzles that had stumped them (Dweck, 1999). It might be thought that more able students would be the ones who typically display the mastery oriented pattern and that less able students would be the ones who readily give up in the face of difficulty and avoid challenges.Yet Dweck found that these two patterns were not related to children's IQ scores or their academic achievement. She reports that many able students give up in the face of difficulty and many weaker students show a mastery orientation. The trend was traced to home – the parenting styles children were offered with (Dweck, 1999).

Around the age of 12, when children make the transition from elementary to Junior High School, the two motivational patterns begin to relate to school success. Dweck (1999) attributes this effect not only to an intensification of the demands that are made on children from home as they move from elementary school to Junior High School but also to the increased complexity in children's thinking about concepts such as intelligence, effort and success. At about 12 years of age, Dweck, (1999) asserts that North American children begin to articulate theories about what it means to "be intelligent". According to her, some children have an entity model of intelligence. She sees intelligence as a fixed quality that each person has a certain amount of. To her, other children, by contrast, have an incremental model of intelligence. Again, she says intelligence is something that can grow as one learns and has new experiences.

Dweck (1999) junior high school children's theories about intelligence also include ideas about how effort is related to outcome. Some children according to her believe that academic success depends primarily on ability, which they believe to be a fixed category. Others also believe that academic success depends on effort, and that expanding effort can lead to increased intelligence.Dweck has found that children who develop the helpless pattern generally hold an entity view of intelligence. They believe that they the children fail because they lack ability and that nothing they can do will change this. Because they view intelligence as a fixed entity, they try to avoid situations that put them at risk for failure and feel hopeless when they are confronted with challenging tasks. Children who develop a mastery-orientation pattern adopt precisely the opposite way of interpreting challenging situations because they view intelligence as incremental. They believe that if they apply themselves, and try hard enough, they will succeed and become more intelligent. When these children fail, their response is to try harder the next

time. As children encounter the more challenging environment of Junior High, their particular ways of interpreting and responding to failure cause notable achievement gaps between students who adopt one or the other of the two motivational patterns. (Dweck, 1999).Dweck found high correlation between these motivational patterns and the types of parenting children receive at home. Uninvolved parents Dweck says produced they helpless motivational pattern of children while the authoritative parenting style brings about the mastery motivational orientation and parenting styles.

XVI.   INTRINSIC MOTIVATION

Intrinsic motivation can be defined as the degree to which a child's tendency to engage in classroom learning activities is driven by internal motivational factors (Harter, 1981). Gottfried el al (1998) defined it as "the performance of activities for their own sake in which pleasure is inherent in the activity itself" Santrock (2005) views it as internal factors such as self-determination , curiosity, challenges and effort. Intrinsic motivation is in contrast to extrinsic motivation which involves behaviours prompted by outside forces such as rewards and punishment. Some research has indicated that motivational orientation can change over time. In a seminal study of children across grades six through nine, Harter (1981) found a developmental shift from intrinsic to extrinsic motivation in the area of mastery motivation, which included curiosity, preference for challenge, and independent mastery. Additionally, this study indicated a developmental shift from extrinsic to intrinsic motivation in the area of judgment motivation, which included independent judgment and internal criteria for success or failure. This research indicated that as children grow older, their achievement orientations change depending upon the nature of the tasks in which they are engaged. Intrinsic motivation has been linked to several positive outcomes for children, particularly in the academic arena. Gottfried (1990) found intrinsic motivation to be positively related to children's achievement IQ, and perceptions of competence. Boggiano and Barrett (1985) found intrinsically oriented children to be more persistent after failure counterparts. They influence of parenting on the relationship liking intrinsic motivation to positive academic outcomes for children is the major tenant of the current study.

In a study of students and their parents, Ginsberg and Bronstein (1993) found results consistent with other recent research (Dornbussch, Ritters, Leiderman, Roberts and Fraleigh, 1987; Grolnick and Ryan 1989, Elmen and Mounts, 1989) that indicated that authoritative parenting styles lead to intrinsic motivation while authoritarian and permissive parenting styles lead to extrinsic motivation. Leung and Kwan (1998) examined motivational orientation as a mediator between parenting style and self-perceived academic competence in a style of adolescents using measures constructed for the purpose of their study. The results of this study indicate that authoritative parenting leads to intrinsic motivation while neglectful parenting leads to motivation, which the researchers define as a lack of motivation. The results also indicated that authoritarian parenting leads to extrinsic motivation and studies were found that used a myriad of variables to examine the relationship between home and school

(Boveja, 1998; Dornbusch et al; 1987; Leung, Lau, and Lam, 1998; Wentzel, 1998). Wentzel, (1998) examined how the home environment and other factors influenced classroom motivation. The results of this study indicated that parent support, clearly a concept related to warmth, was a positive predictor of school-related interest and goal orientations. Dornbusch et al (1987) examined the relationship between authoritarian, permissive, and authoritative parenting styles and adolescent school performance. This investigation found that authoritarian and permissive parenting styles were negatively associated with higher grades, while the authoritative parenting style was positively associated with higher grades. Leung et al (1998) examined the influence of parenting style on academic achievement. Their results revealed that academic achievement was negatively related to academic authoritarianism. In a study of adolescent minority students (Hispanic American, African American, and Asian American), Boveja (1998) found that adolescents who perceived their parents to be authoritative engaged in more effective learning and studying strategies.

XVII.   THEORIES OF MOTIVATION

Bandura's Socio cognitive theory (1986) student motivation is neither an innate concept nor a trait of personality, but rather a construct that is built out of individual learning activities, an experience, and that varies from one situation or context to another. Some psychologists also believe that behaviourists basically are right when they say development is learned and is influenced strongly by environmental experiences. Bandura (1986) and Mischel (1973) initially labeled the theory cognitive social learning theory. Bandura andMischel believe that cognitive processes are important mediators of environment behaviour connections. Bandura's early research programme focused heavily on observational learning. But his recent model of learning and development involved behaviour, the persona and the environment. To Bandura, behaviour, the person (cognitive) and environmental factors operate interactively. To him, behaviour can be influenced by personal factors and vice versa. The person's cognitive activities can influence the environment; the environment can also change the person's cognitive, and so on.

Educational motivation has been studied extensively by psychologist, educators, and other social scientists. Many theories have been advanced to explain how goals, interacting with external and internal factors influence motivation. Attribution theory, self-perception theory (self-esteem) and goal setting and mastery theory are considered amongst the leading theories within this realm. Baker, Kanan and Al-Misnad (2008), attribution theory explains the psychosocial reasons for the behaviour of individuals in social interactions. Furthermore, it explains whether individuals attribute their success or failure to causes within themselves or to event outside of their control.

To them, research findings both in the west and the Arab world on the relationship between locus of control and achievement motivation have been linked to parenting. Collins (2000)in a study on family configurations and socializations practices found that children who have internal attribution were positively traced to patterns of parenting where relationships between parent and child is reciprocal and high in bidirectional

communication. The study also indicated that children, who think they are personally responsible for their success have been found to spend more time on homework, try longer to solve problems and get higher grades than children who believe things are beyond their personal control. Baker et al (2008) further found parenting style which involves children in discussion, decision making and reasoning with children to be strongly associated with child who are internally-oriented. Kwan (1999) examined motivational orientation as a mediator between parenting styles and internal attribution.

The results of this study also indicated that authoritarian and permissive parenting lead to extrinsic motivation and intrinsic motivation while authoritative parenting leads to intrinsic motivation. Zhicheng and Stephen (1999) cited in Barker et al (2008) concluded in their study that; being academically motivated, preferring internal attributions for academic outcomes, and having confidence in one's ability to do well in college do not directly result in good academic performance. Also an increasing body of research is supporting the idea that both self-perception of competence and self-regulation direct motivation towards the attainment of an academic goal (Pintrich, 2000, Zimmerman, 1989) cited in (Barker et al 2008).

Effective self-regulation depends on holding an optimal sense of self efficacy (perceived competence) for learning, and on making attribution (perceived causes of outcomes) that enhances self-efficacy and motivation towards achieving certain goals. Similar to the case of research on attribution theory, other research has failed to provide conclusive links between mastery of goals, parenting styles and academic performance. While some studies found mastery of goals to be positively linked to positive childrearing practices which in turn results in higher academic achievement (Wolters 2004), others failed to establish this link (Pintrich, 2000; Zhicheng and Stephen, 1999). Closely related to attribution and goal achievement theory is self-worth theory which states that, in certain situation, students stand to gain by not trying and deliberately withholding effort. If poor performance is a threat to a person's sense of self-esteem, lack of effort is likely to occur most often after an experience of failure. Failure threatens self-estimates of ability and creates uncertainty regarding the individual's ability to perform well on a subsequent basis. If the following performance turns out to be poor, then doubts concerning ability are confirmed (Thompson, Dandson and Barber 1995).

XVIII. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK OF THE STUDY

The theoretical framework for the study is adopted from socio-cognitive theories (Bandura, 1986) and explains how parental characteristics such as level of education, marital status and socio-economic status indirectly influence their children's classroom motivation, i.e. academic locus of control through parenting styles i.e. Authoritative, Authoritarian and Permissive..

The authoritative parenting style is associated with numerous positive child outcomes such as self-regulation, high social competence and high intellectual achievement. Baumrind (1978) believes that children here are more self-controlled, self-reliant and willing to explore. In the authoritarian style children rarely take initiative, have low level of self-concept and poor

academic adjustment. (Baumrind 1978). With Permissive Style, children generally express high levels of self-confidence but are prone to delinquency and a lack of interest in academic work during adolescent (Cole and Cole 2001). The Model further hypotheses that these parenting styles will in turn directly influence children's academic motivation in terms of their academic locus of control. The locus of control construct was proposed by Rotter (1966). According to Rotter, people are motivated according to whether they believe that they have control on whatever happens to them in life or that whatever happens to them in life is by chance or controlled by external forces. Rotter calls people who believe that they are responsible for what happens to them in life or have control on life events 'Internals'.

People who believe that what happens to them in life is by chance or they have no control on life events he calls 'External'. The locus of control construct has been applied in the area of health (Wallston and Wallston 1990) and education (Palenzuala, 1988). Studies by Wallston and Wallston (1990) have shown that patient who are intrinsically motivated recover quicker from surgery than those who are Extrinsically motivated. In the educational context, studies by Ofori and Charlton, (2002); Plalenzuala, (1990); Pintrich and DeGroote (1990) have shown that internally oriented students perform academically better than their externally oriented counterparts. This is because the internal student believes that for example, thether he or she fails an examination will depend on him or herself and will not blame others for it. Such internal beliefs then motivate the students to learn in order to avoid failure. On the other hand, the externally oriented students are ready to blame others for his or her failure and therefore will not be motivated to learn.

XIX. RESEARCH DESIGN

The study is intended to examine the relationship between family processes, more specifically parenting styles and children's classroom motivation. This invariably involves a close scrutiny of how the various styles of parenting affect children's classroom motivation. The design involves an independent variable parenting styles (i.e authoritative, authoritarian and permissive) and one dependent variable that is children's classroom motivation. Against this background, the descriptive survey using the quantitative approach was chosen for the study. A quantitative approach is the use of statistical methods of data analysis to study samples so that findings can be generalized beyond the sample to the population (Wallen and Fraekel 1993).Cohen and Manion (1991) descriptive surveys gather data at a point in time with the intention of describing the nature of existing conditions or identifying standards against which existing conditions can be compared, or determining the relationship that exists between specific events.

Cohen and Manion explained that in descriptive survey, the collection of information typically involves in or more of the following data gathering techniques; structures or semi-structures interviews, self-completed or total postal questionnaire, standardized test of attainment or performance and attitude scales. The descriptive design was chosen because; it has the advantage of providing good response from a wide range of people. At the same time, it provides a meaningful picture of

events and seeks to explain people's opinion and behaviour on the basis of data gathered at a point in time. Further, it can be used with greater confidence with regard to particular questions of special interest or value of the researcher. Also in-depth follow-up questions can be asked and items that are unclear can be explained using the descriptive design (Wallen and Faenkel, 1993).

On the contrary, there are the difficulties of ensuring that the questions to be answered or statements to be responded to using the descriptive design are clear and not misleading because survey results can vary significantly depending on the exact wording of questions or statements. To address this problem, items on the questionnaire that were found to be culturally biased during the pre-test stage were reviewed and modified. The suggestions offered by supervisors of the work and other experts in research methodology after they had reviewed the research instruments assisted in this direction. It may also produce untrustworthy result because they delve into private matters that people may not be completely truthful about. Questionnaire require subjects who can articulate their thoughts well and sometimes even put such thoughts in writing (Seifert and Hoffnung, 1991). These disadvantages notwithstanding, the descriptive survey deign was considered the most appropriate for carrying out the study.

XX.   POPULATION

The target population for the study was all Junior High School (JHS) students in the Tamale Metropolis. The accessible population however was all JHS two students in the Tamale Metropolis. The choice of the Junior High School two students as the accessible population was based on the assumption that this group of students shared similar characteristics in terms of age, length of time spent I their respective schools and would have had a wide range of experiences wile interacting with their teachers and parents. Again, it was assumed that the JHS two students would be able to read and respond appropriately to the items on the questionnaire with little or no guidance. Furthermore, the decision to use Junior High School two students was influenced by the fact that they are in the age group of 11 – 14 years. They are adolescents, a transitional period in which parenting is very critical because of the needs and perception of the adolescent – they are easily influenced and venturesome too.

XXI.   SAMPLE SIZE

Twenty Junior High Schools out of sixty-one in the Metropolis were randomly selected and used for the study. From the twenty schools, one hundred and thirty (130) students, one hundred and thirty (130) of the student's parents and a hundred and thirty teachers of the students were randomly selected for the study.

XXII.   SAMPLING PROCEDURE

A simple random sampling technique; was used to select the schools, students, parents and teachers. The researcher wrote names of the sixty one Junior High Schools in the metropolis of

piece of paper and mixed them up and allowed an officer at the Metro Education Office to select twenty schools. Then at each of the schools chosen, the same process was used to select the students. Parents and teachers were purposively sampled. This was to make sure that data gathered will represent parents and teachers whose children are in school and are being used for the study.

XXIII.   RESEARCH INSTRUMENT

The instrument used (see Appendix 'A') for the collection of data was an adapted questionnaire from Harter (1978). The questionnaire is a formally organized set of written items presented in a uniform manner to a number of persons or respondents to elicit responses from them on a specific subject matter. The first part of the items on the questionnaire was open-ended while the second part of the items on the questionnaire was close-ended. The 4 – point Likert Scale was used in eliciting responses from the respondents (1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = agree and 4 = strongly agree). To rate the behaviour of the respondents, an interpretative scale for reporting the results of the participants responses was developed thus: 3.50 or greater = strongly agree, 2.5 to 3.49 = agree, i.50 to 2.49 = disagree, and less than 1.5 = strongly disagree.

There were 17 items measuring authoritarian parenting style, 11 items measuring permissive parenting style and 24 items measuring authoritative parenting styles type. The reliability of the questionnaire has been assessed by Harter (1980) and found that authoritarian items had a cronbach alpha of .86, those of permissive had cronbach alpha .75 and authoritative had a cronbach of .91. the questionnaire has been validated in U.S.A., Russia, South Africa and India. (Robinson et al, 1995).

Classroom motivation was assessed using a scale of motivational orientation in the classroom. The scale includes two subscales containing the following variables to be examined; preference for challenge and curiosity. They reliability of the scale from 1 to 4; a score of 4 indicates the maximum motivational orientation in the classroom.\the first part of the questionnaire for students dealt with the demographic variables of respondents. It sought to find out, the sex, age, location of residence and who they stayed with. The second part dealt with items concerning academic effort of children in the classroom that is children's classroom motivation. Issues emphasized in this section included the grades they make depended on how capable they were preparing for assessment.The questionnaire for the parents had items such as 'I state punishment for my child but don't actually do them' and 'I respond promptly to my child's needs or feelings' to elicit the type of parenting style parents exhibited at homes. Items on the teacher's questionnaire sought to find out whether their children were motivated to learn in class on their own.

XXIV.   PILOT STUDY

The pilot study involved conducting factor analysis to assess the construct validity and reliability of the questionnaire used in the research. The schools the pilot was conducted were Zogbeli JHS, Tamale International JHS, Choggu Demonstration

JHS, KanvilliPresby JHS and SDA JHS. Respondents were subjected to the same conditions as planned for the main study. As a result of the pattern of responses, statements felt to be ambiguous or misleading were revised for clarity.

XXV.   CONSTRUCT VALIDITY

After administering the questionnaires, the data collected were fed into SPSS version 16. First, the data were screened to meet one of the assumptions underlying parametric test which says that data should be normally distributed. This involved examining the skewness of the distribution on each of the variables. Each distribution was judged using the z-statistic of +/- 3.29. According to Ofori and Dampson (in prep), a distribution with resulting z-score of more than +/-3.29 after dividing its skewness value by its standard error (SE) of skewness indicate that the distribution is abnormally skewed. Using this criterion of +/-3.29, it was found that the distribution of Thirteen (13) of the items on the parenting questionnaire were abnormally skewed. These items were statements 1, 3, 4, 6, 8 and 10 on permissive parenting styles; 6 and 12 on Authoritarian parenting style and 12, 5, 6, 3, 16, 22 and 4 on the Authoritative style. Statements 1, 3, 5, 8 and 12 on the students did not equally meet the criteria. The statements on the teachers' questionnaire that did not meet this criterion included Q4 and Q6. For instance item number 6 of the Authoritarian parenting style had 0.79331 and 0.21241 for skewness and kurtosis respectively. This is well beyond the P = 0.01 criterion of +/-3.29 indicating that it was abnormally positively skewed. On examining this particular item which involved a statement thus "I use threat as punishment with little or no justification" it was found that it suffered heavily from a ceiling effect that is mort of the respondents went for the maximum score on the scale. As a result of that it was excluded from the analysis.

Some other items such as authoritative item 3 which states "I give praise when my child is good" was abnormally negatively skewed indicating that most of the respondents went for the minimum score on the scale and therefore such items were also excluded from the analysis as they did not meet the P = 0.001 criterion of +/-3.29. The remaining items were further subjected to factor analysis using the principal component (PC) with varimax rotation using SPSS version 16 to check or ascertain the appropriateness of the 3 factor model. The factors were confirmed using loading based on the content of the items. Factor loadings exceeding 0.3 was used as the limit for accepting the variable's status as a pure measure of the factor. (Kline 2002 cited in Ofori and Dampson in prep).

The inspection of the anti-image correlation matrix was conducted. The initial run indicated that twenty (20) items comprising of items 1, 2, 4, 7, 9, 14 and 19 of the authoritarian, items 1, 4, 9, 15 and 19 of the authoritative item 9 of the permissive, items 2 and 9 of students and items 7, 8, 10, 12, and 14 in the teachers questionnaire had KMO (Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin) value below 0.50 cutoff point indicating that the construct validity of these statements were questionable and therefore eliminated because the values obtained were unacceptable (George and Mallery, 1999); (Ofori and Dampson in prep).

The authors are of the view that the KMO values should be equal or above 0.50. The statements were therefore discarded and analysis re-run for the remaining statements. After 6 iterations, rotation converged with the extraction of two (2) factors (challenge and curiosity for children's classroom motivation with eigenvalue above 1.0. in total, factors for parenting styles accounted for 66.24% of the variance in the data; the students' accounted for 79.4% after 3 iterations. This was realized after the re-run of the rest of the statements left. The rotated factor matrix or rotated components matrix using the orthogonal or varimax is shown I appendix 'C'. The two tables show 3 factor and 2 factor loading for parenting styles and students respectively.

Ten items (items 4, 5 and 15 of authoritarian and items 2, 7, 8, 10, 13, 20 and 21 authoritative) show their highest loadings after rotation on factor one. This tapped the authoritative parenting style construct which accounted for 32.71% of the total variance in the data rotated. Items 3, 10, 11, 13 of authoritarian and item 23 of authoritative shoed their highest loadings after rotation on factor two which taped the authoritarian parenting style construct which accounted for 28.2% of the total variance in the date rotated. Item 1 of permissive parenting style was the only item that showed a loading on the permissive parenting construct. It accounted for 10.2% of the total variance in the data rotated.

Item 5 permissive parenting did not show any loading on any of the three factors. With item 7 of permissive parenting, it crossloaded on both factor 2 and 3. Two of the items (items 8 and 16) intended to tap the authoritarian construct loaded highly on factor 3 instead of factor 2 whose construct is permissive construct. Items 11, 14, 17, 18 which should have loaded highly on the authoritative construct did so by showing their highest after rotation loadings on factor three and accounted for 23.22% of the total variance. Based on the conceptual grounds it was difficult to work out the underlying structure of factor 3 based on these statements that it purports to tap. So these statements were eliminated from the pool of statements comprising the questionnaire.

Three items (Q6, Q11, Q13) of the students questionnaire had their highest loading after rotation on factor 1 (challenge) this accounting for 38.91% of the total variance in the data when loaded. Two items (Q10 and Q7) showed their highest loadings after rotation on factor 2 which tapped the curiosity construct on the students' questionnaire. However, one item Q4 of the students' questionnaire cross loaded on both constructs (challenge and curiosity). As a result if was eliminated from the pool of statement comprising the questionnaire. The final 16 items for parenting styles and 5 for students with their loadings and communality values (representing the variance in each variable accounted for by the factors) for the 3 – factor and 2 – factor respectively PC solution are presented in appendix 'C'. So in conclusion it can be said that the remaining statements constituting the questionnaire affords the questionnaire a high construct validity.

XXVI.   RELIABILITY ANALYSIS

To check the reliability of the questionnaire, the final 16 items on the parenting styles questionnaire and 5 items on the

students' questionnaire were subjected to analysis using Cronbach's alpha.

Table 3.1: Reliability statistics

Parenting styles	Number of items	Cronbach's Alpha
Authoritative	10	.677
Permissive	1	-
Authoritarian	5	.642
Overall reliability	10	.563

Table 3.1

Students	Number of items	Cronbach's Alpha
Challenge	3	.424
Curiosity	2	.429
Overall reliability	5	.524

Table 3.1 above shows the reliability statistics of the various constructs of the questionnaire. The authoritative parenting style had 10 items with a cronbach's alpha of .677; authoritarian style had 5 items with .642 cronbach's alpha. Finally the permissive had 1 item with 1.0 cronbach's alpha. The overall reliability is .563, this indicates that the items are reliable and proves that the factor analysis and alphas in the 16 items, three-factor model of parenting styles to child rearing is a reasonable representation of the data. Table 3.1 above indicates 5 items, two-factor model of students. Classroom motivation. The challenge subscale with 2 items produced .424 cronbach's alpha and the curiosity subscale, with 3 items also produced .480 cronbach's alpha. Overall reliability was .524 (see table 3.2 below). This is well over the .50 reliability cut off point indicating a high reliability. (Ofori and Dampson in prep).

Table 3.2: Overall reliability statistics

Overall Reliability	Number of items	Cronbach's alpha
	16	.563
	5	.524

Data Collection Procedure

The revised instrument after analysis was administered personally by the researcher. At each of the schools used for the study, the researcher sought permission from the Headmaster/Headmistress and all the students selected for the study were gathered in a classroom. The purpose of the study was explained to the respondents after which the research instruments were distributed to them. Each of the items on the questionnaire was the painstakingly explained to respondents. Respondents, after the explanation of the items were allowed to respond to them. While the respondents responded to the items, the researcher made himself available to clarify any doubts and misunderstanding that the respondents encountered. In each

school the completed questionnaires were collected back at the end of the exercise by the researcher on the same day. The researcher followed the children to their various homes for their parents to fill the questionnaire after their parents were told that the questionnaire was only for research purposes. This ensured a hundred percent return rate.

Data analysis procedure

The respondents were expected to respond to all items on the questionnaire. All the items were assigned weight of 4, 3, 2, and 1 for strongly agree, agree, disagree and strongly disagree respectively. The responses were edited, coded and scored. The scores for each respondent were totaled to obtain their final raw score. Data entry and analysis were done by using Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) version 16. The data was analyzed in two sections. The first analysis was done to justify the representativeness of the characteristics of the samples. This involved frequency distributions and partial correlations. A logistic regression using the Enter entry method was also used. The forced entry method was used in order to consider all the variables regardless of significance levels. (George and Mallery, 1999).

Hypothesis 1
The first hypothesis for the study was that there is a significant effect of parents' gender on parenting styles.

Table 4.7: Summary Statistics and independent samples t-test on permissive parenting style

		Mean	Standard Deviation	N	t	df	Sig (1-tailed)
Groups	Female Parents	2.35	.849	46	2.057	128	.021
	Male Parents	2.01	.912	84			

Source: Author's Computations from Survey Data, February 2010

Table 4.8 below presents the result of the independent samples t-test performed on the authoritative parenting style of two independent groups of randomly selected respondents. The two groups (Male parents and Female parents) were presented with the same authoritative items for their grading. As can be seen in this table, comparison of the mean item scores from the two independent groups would suggest that Male Parents were more authoritative (Mean = 2.9548 than Female parents (Mean = 2.9196). To test whether the difference in mean scoring between the two groups was statistically significant, independents t-test was performed. The results of this test (Table 4.8 :) revealed that there was no significant difference in the mean scoring between the two groups (t = -.508, df = 128, p = 0.306 one tailed). Therefore the study hypothesis that the Male parents were more authoritative than the Female parents is rejected.

Table 4.8: Summary Statistics and independent samples t-test on Authoritative parenting style

		Mean	Standard Deviation	N	T	df	Sig (1-tailed)
Groups	Female Parents	2.9196	.40586	46	-.508	128	.306
	Male Parents	2.9548	.36186	84			

Source: Author's Computations from Survey Data, February 2010

Table 4.9 represents the result of the independent samples t-test performed on the authoritarian parenting style of two independent groups of randomly selected respondents. The two groups (Male parents and Female parents) were presented with the same authoritarian items for their grading. As can be seen in this table, comparison of the mean items scores from the two independent groups would suggest that Male Parents were more authoritarian (Mean = 2.416) than Female parents (Mean = 2.3130). to test whether the difference in mean scoring between the two groups was statistically significant, independents t-test was performed. The results of this test (Table 4.9) revealed that there was no significant difference in the mean scoring between the two groups (t = -1.196, df = 128, p = 0.117 one tailed). Therefore the study hypothesis that the Male parents were more authoritarian than the Female parents is rejected.

Table 4.9: Summary Statistics and independent samples t-test on Authoritarian parenting style

		Mean	Standard Deviation	N	t	Df	Sig (1-tailed)
Groups	Female Parents	2.3130	.45734	46	-1.198	128	.117
	Male Parents	2.4167	.48017	84			

Source: Author's Computations from Survey Data, February 2010

A one tailed hypothesis of the correlation of parenting style namely Authoritative, Authoritarian, Permissive, Income level, Highest educational attainment and Motivation was statistically tested using Pearson's correlational method. Table 4.10: shows a correlation matrix of the variables in model.

Table 4.10: Correlation Between Predictors and Students' classroom motivation

	Authoritarian	Authoritative	Permissive	Motivation
Highest Educational	-.079	-.047	-.121	.035
Income level	-.015	.066	.081	.022
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (1-tailed).				

Source: Author's Computations from Survey Data, February 2010

Hypothesis 2: There is significant effect of marital status on parenting styles

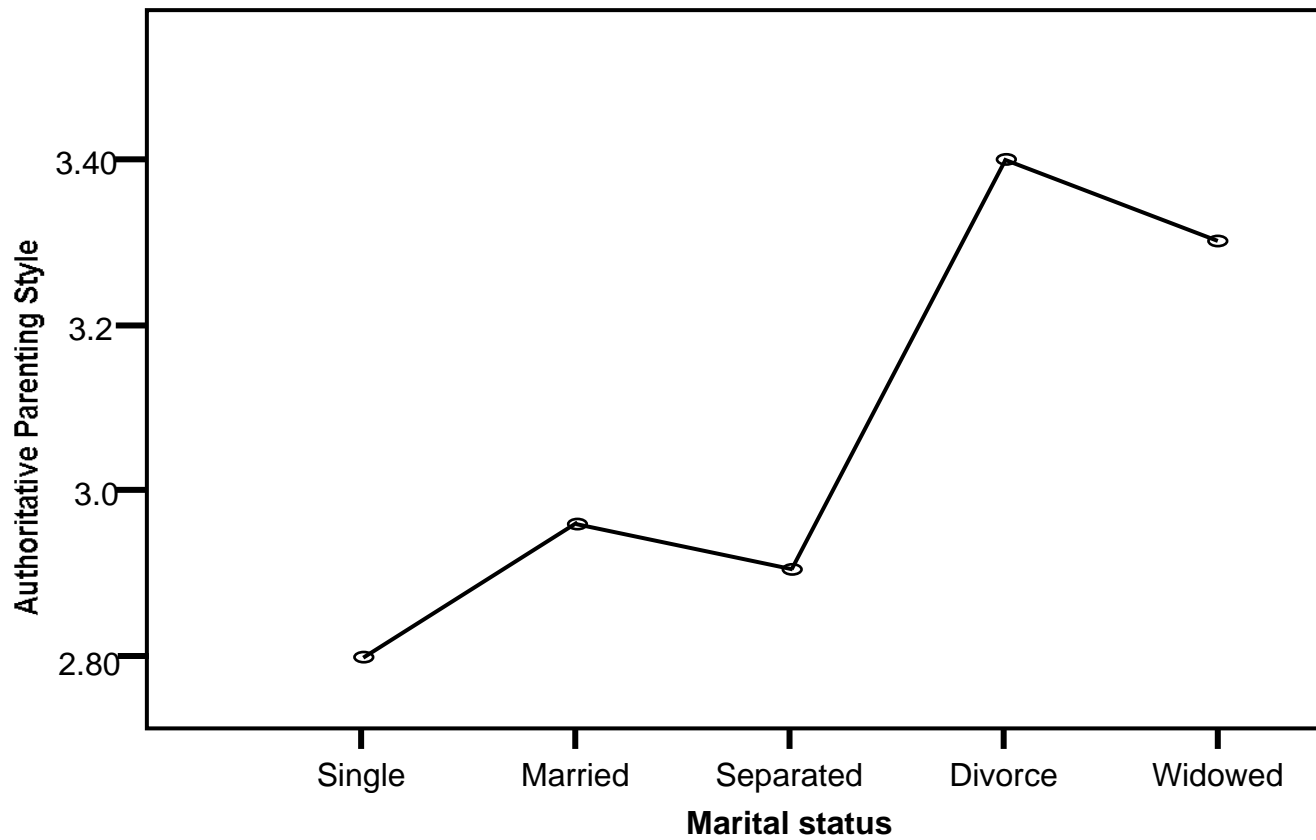**Table 4.12: One Way ANOVA test between Parenting Style and Marital Status**

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Permissive score	Between Groups	6.318	4	1.579	2.005	.098
	Within Groups	98.459	125	.788		
	Total	104.777	129			
Authoritarian score	Between Groups	1.417	4	.354	1.613	.175
	Within Groups	27.451	125	.220		
	Total	28.868	129			
Authoritative score	Between Groups	1.345	4	.336	2.476	.048
	Within Groups	16.972	125	.136		
	Total	18.317	129			

Source: Author's Computations from Survey Data, February, 2010

A one-way ANOVA of marital status and the three parenting styles (Authoritative, Authoritarian and Permissive) was conducted. The result is shown in Table 4.11a: the P-value of the test revealed that there is a significant difference between marital status in relation to Authoritative Parenting Styles (df = 2.476, p < 0.05). on the other hand, the P-values of the other parenting styles (Permissive df = 4, F = 2.005, P > 0.05 and Authoritarian df = 4, F = 3.54, P > 0.05) were greater than 0.05 which is an indication of no significance. In order to verify which marital status was significant at the Authoritative parenting style, a multiple comparison analysis was conducted using the Least Significant Difference (LSD). See table 4.11b:Chart 4.1 below indicated that divorced parents

are one more authoritative followed by widowed, married, separated and single. Looking at our 2.5 mean cut-off point, it was realized that parents, irrespective of their marital status, practice Authoritative parenting styles.

Chart 4.1: Means plot of authoritative style versus marital status

Source: Author's Computations from Survey Data, February 2010

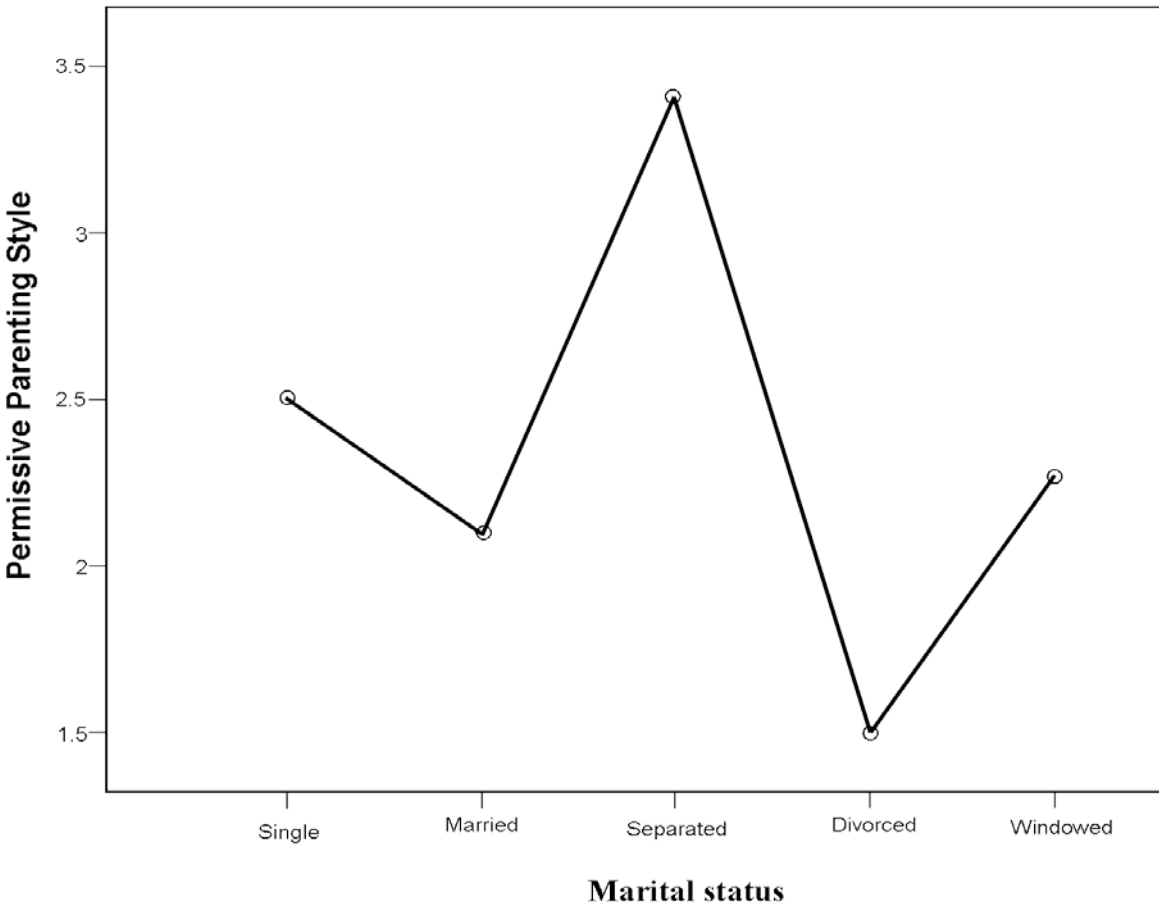## Table 4.11b: Multiple Comparisons

Authoritative score
LSD

Status	Status	J)	Std. Error	Odds ratio Sig.	95% Confidence Interval Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Single	Married	-.11862	.12771	.355	-.3714	.1341
	Separated	-.05556	.24566	.821	-.5417	.4306
	Divorced	-.63889*	.28806	.028	-1.2090	-.0688
	Widowed	-.48889*	.20553	.019	-.8957	-.0821
Married	Single	.11862	.12771	.355	-.1341	.3714
	Separated	.06306	.21560	.770	-.3636	.4898
	Divorced	-.52027	.26289	.050	-1.0406	.0000
	Widowed	-.37027*	.16846	.030	-.7037	-.0369
Separated	Single	.05556	.24566	.821	-.4306	.5417
	Married	-.06306	.21560	.821	-.4898	.3636
	Divorced	-.58333	.26289	.770	-1.2491	.0824
	Widowed	-.43333	.16846	.085	-.9659	.0993
Divorced	Single	.63889*	.28806	.028	.0688	1.2090
	Married	.52027	26289	.050	.0000	1.0406
	Separated	.58333	.33638	.085	-.0824	1.2491
	Widowed	.15000	.30829	.627	-.4602	.7602
Widowed	Single	.48889*	.20553	.019	.0821	.8957
	Married	.37027*	.16846	.030	.0369	.7037
	Separated	.43333	.26910	.110	-.0993	.9659
	Divorced	-.15000	.30829	.627	-.7602	.4602

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Source: Author's Computations from Survey Data, February 2010

      The above table 4.11b is the multiple comparison tables among marital status using the Least Significance Difference (LSD). The result in this table revealed that single parents performed significantly lower than divorced and widowed parents in relation to the authoritative parenting style. Single, married and separated do not statistically differ in average. This therefore means that divorced and widowed parents were more authoritative than single parents. Similarly, married parents performed significantly lower than widowed parents. This means that widowed parents ere more authoritative than married parents. The table also revealed that married and divorced parents do not statistically differ in average. The same can be inferred to separated and divorced parents.The means plot (see Chart 4.2 below) for the permissive parenting style revealed that single, married, divorced and widowed parents had a mean less than 2.5, indicating that they were not permissive; but it was observed that separated parents had a mean above 2.5. The chart therefore shows that separated parents are permissive.
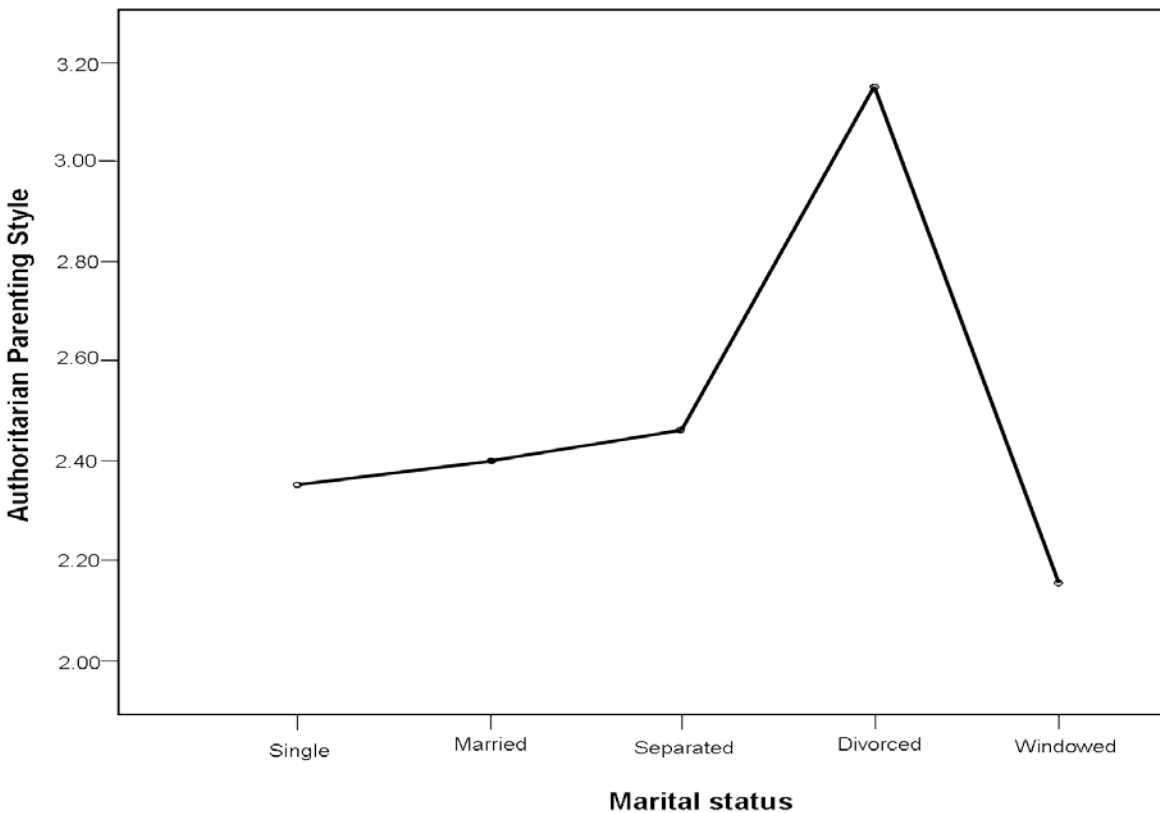
Chart 4.2: Means plot of permissive style versus marital status

Source: Author's Computations from Survey Data, February 2010

      The means plot (see Chart 4.3 below) of the Authoritarian parenting showed that single, married, separated and widowed parents had a mean value less than 2.50 indicating that they are not authoritarian. It was rather observed that the divorced parents were more authoritarian (Mean ore greater than 2.50). From the means plot it can be concluded that single, married and widowed parent tend to be authoritative while divorced and separated parents were authoritarian and permissive respectively

Chart 4.3: Means plot of authoritarian style versus marital status

Source: Authors' Computations from Survey Data, February, 2010

XXVII.   CONCLUSION

The parent findings showed that majority of respondents had their paternal and maternal parenting styles as authoritative. In addition, it was found that paternal and maternal parenting styles (permissive and authoritative) significantly correlate with students' Classroom Motivation. Future research needs to be conducted in order to verify the present findings by taking into considerations the recommendation which has been suggested. The findings of the present study should be seen as a guideline for future research rather than as definite answers.

The findings in this study showed that both paternal and maternal parenting styles significantly correlated with students' classroom motivation. The implication of the findings is that Baumrind's (1971) parenting typology seem to be applicable in the Ghanaian setting. The probable reason of this state of affairs is that in Ghana, children occupy a very delicate position in the family because of their dependence on adults for their maintenance and socialization. Again, access to essential resources is often dictated by adults who are committed to mobilizing and directing these resources to the welfare and upkeep of the child. Findings of this study indicated that indeed the socialization of children in most Ghanaian cultures,

especially in the Tamale Metropolis, is facilitated by their parents to ensure that children get access to support services.

In addition, the findings suggested that it is also important for educators to be aware of the findings that most books report and be careful in interpreting and generalizing the findings. The findings of the present study also draw researchers' attention on examining other factors such as peers, and access to learning materials which are related and may have direct influence on the classroom motivation of adolescents.The present findings found that there was relationship between perceived paternal and maternal parenting styles and students classroom motivation. This gives an indication that parenting, no matter where practiced, has an important influence on the child. Thus, it is critical for researchers to continuously examine the reliability and validity of the measures that are used to predict parenting concepts and develop theories specifically to suit these, for instance in the Ghanaian set up.

The study has been found to predict parenting styles being in the domains of social competence, academic performance, psychosocial development and problem behaviour. Research based on parenting consistently finds that how to raise a happy, healthy child is not something most parents are abreast with. Yet the United Nations admonishes parents in its Declaration of the rights of the should thus : the child shall enjoy

special protection and shall be given opportunities and facilities, by law and by other means to enable him to develop physically, mentally, morally, spiritually and socially in a healthy and normal manner and in conditions of freedom and dignity. The declaration further sates: the child, for the full and harmonious development of his personality, needs love and understanding.

XXVIII.   RECOMMENDATION FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

The findings of the present study should be seen as a guideline for future research rather than as a definite answer. It is important to note that the findings in the present study are not generalizable to all the Junior High Schools in Ghana.There is still a need to examine the relationship between paternal and maternal parenting styles and classroom motivation using different samples and in different settings before a definite conclusion can be made as there were some limitations in this study. These limitations needed to be addressed in future research.

In future research, researchers could consider using a larger random sample which are drawn from various schools so that the results can be generalized to all students in the country. It would be interesting for future researchers to compare parents' parenting styles based on the place of living – urban or rural.In addition, in future research, it is important to ensure that the classroom motivation of the group of students being considered have a higher variability whereby the sample consisted of students who are very smart, average and very weak in academics.Here were many direct and indirect effects on the variables that are being examined which the researcher did not take control of. For example, in this study, the researcher did not control for the effects of Students-Teacher relationship. Thus, it is important for future researchers to examine variables which could possibly moderate or confound the relationship between parenting styles and students' classroom motivation.

The researcher would like to suggest that further investigation be done using longitudinal studies. This can help reveal the causal relationship between parenting styles and student Classroom Motivation Researchers could also examine whether the influence of parenting styles would persist until adulthood.Future research may divide the parenting styles measure into more specific dimensions of each style such as warmth and support, democratic participation, reasoning/induction. Verbal hostility, dividing parenting style measure into more specific dimensions would allow for the examination of how specific parenting behaviours rather than global parenting styles many influence the development of children's cognitive development.

REFERENCES

[1] Abell, E, Clawson, M. Washington, W.W., Bost K.K., & Vaughn, B.E (1996). Parenting values, attitudes, behaviours, and goals of African American mothers from a low-income population in relation to social and societal contexts. Journal of family issues, 17, 593-613.

[2] Acock A.C &Kiecolt, K.J (1989). Is it structure or socio-economic status? Family structure during adolescent and adult adjustment. Social Forces, 68 (2) 327-337.

[3] Adedae-Mensah, I., Djangmah, J. S., &Agbanyega, C.O. (1973).Family background and educational opportunities in Ghana. Accra: Ghana university press.

[4] Ainsworth, M., Beegle, K. and Koda, G. (2005). The impact of adult morality and parental deaths on primary morality and parental deaths on primary schooling in North-Western Tanzania. The Journal of Development Studies. 41 (314 – 320).

[5] Akyeampong, D.A. (1991) "Mathematics and the current Educational reforms: Presidential address delivered on the occasion of the 23rd national conference of the Mathematical Association of Ghana", In Nkonsonkonson. 14, 10-16.

[6] Al Samarrai, S. and Peasgood, T. (1998). Educational attainments and household characteristics in Tanzania. Economics of Education Review, 17 (4) : 395 – 417.

[7] Amabile, T.M., Hill, K.G., Hennessey, B.A., &Tighe, E.M. (1994). The work performance inventory: Assessing intrinsic and extrinsic motivational orientations. Journal of personality and social psychology, 66, 950-967.

[8] Amato, P. R. & Keith, B. (1991).Parental divorce and the well-being of children. A meta-analysis. Bulletin, 110, 26-46.

[9] Amato, P. R (1998). Family processes in one parent, step parent and intact families; the child's point of view. Journal of marriage and the family. 49 (2) 327-337.

[10] Anderman, E. M., Griesinger, T., &Westerfield, G. (1998). Motivation and cheating during early adolescent. Journal of Education Psychology, 90, 84 – 93.

[11] Antwi, M. K. (1992). Education, society and Development in Ghana. Accra: Unimax   Publishing Limited.

[12] Anyawu, J. C. (1994). Women's education and the use of bank credit in Nigeria: challenges for the Twenty-first century. Journal of social development in Africa, 9, (2) 45-59.

[13] Arendell, T. (1997).Contemporary Parenting challenges and issues.Califonia: SAGE.

[14] Astone, N. &McLanahan, S. (1991). The family structure, parental practices and high school completion. American Sociological Review, 56, 309-320.

[15] Bandura, A. (1986). Social foundation of thought and action: A social cognitive theory.   Englewood Cliff, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

[16] Barker, A.M., Kanam, H.M., & Al-Misnad, A.S. (2008). Factors that discriminate best between   Students identified as motivated or not motivated to achieve academically. Educational research and review. Vol. 3(4) 128-136.

[17] Bloir, K. (1997). Parenting that promotes resilient urban African American families: scholars

[18] Described the characteristics of their parents' parenting behaviours. Retrieved November 13, 2001, Fromhttp://orders.edrs.com/members/sp.cfm? AN = ED419596.

[19] Baumrind, D. (1971). Current patterns of parental authority. Development psychology monographs, 4, 1 – 103.

[20] Baumrind, D. (1973). The development of instrumental competence through socialization. In A Pick (Ed.), Minnesota Symposia on Child Development. Minnesota: University of Minnesota Press.

[21] Baumrind, D. (1978). Parental disciplinary patterns and social competencies.Youth & Society,   9 (3), 239-251).

[22] Belsky, J., Robins, E., &Gambel, W. (1984).The determinants of parental competence:Toward a contextual theoty. In M. Lewis, & L. Rosenblum, (eds.). Beyond the Dyad:Social Connections. New York: Plenum.

[23] Belsky, J. (1984). The determinants of parenting: A process model. Child Development, 55,   83 – 96.

[24] Beyer, S. (1995). Maternal employment and children's academic achievement: Parenting styles as mediating variable. Developmental Review, 15, 212-253.

[25] Bishop, G. 91989). Alternative strategies for education. London: Macmillan Ltd.

[26] Bluestone, C. &Tamis-Le Monda, S.C. (1999). Correlates of parenting styles in predominately

[27] working – and Middle Class African American Mothers. Journal of Marriage and the   Family, 61, 881-893.

[28] Bogenschnieder, K., Small, S.A., &Tsay, J.C. (1997). Child, parent and contextual influences and perceived parenting competences among parents of adolescents. Journal of marriage and the family, 59, 345-362.

[29] Boggiano, A.K., &Barrent, M. (1985). Performance and motivational deficits of helplessness: The role of motivational orientations. Journal of personality and social psychology, 49,   1753 – 1761.

[30] Boggiono, A.K, Main, D.S., & Katz, P.A. (1988). Children's preference for challenges: The role of perceived competence and control. Journal of personality and social psychology,   54, 134 – 141.

[31] Bornstein, P. (1998). Family and parenting behaviours predicting middle school adjustment: A Longitudinal study. Family Relations: Journal of Applied Family & Children Studies,   45, 415 – 426.

[32] Boveja, M. E. (1998).Parenting style and adolescents leaning strategies in the urban community.Journal of multicultural counseling and development 26,110-119 Brourn2002.

[33] Cardoso, A. R, and verner, D. (2007). School drop-out and push- out factor in Brazil: The role of early parenthood, child labour, and poverty. IZA Discussion paper No. 2515. Bonn:Institute for the study of labour (IZA).

[34] Capsi, A. (1998) Personality development across the life course. In Damon, N &   Eisenberg (Eds.), handbook of child Psychology (5th ed.), vol.3: Social, Emotional andPersonality development pp. 3-388. New York: Wiley.

[35] Choa, R.K (1995). Beyond authoritarianism: A cultural perspective on Asian American parenting practices. Retrieved July 13, 2009, from http://orders.com/members/sp.cfm?

[36] Cohen, L. &Manion, L. (1991).Perspectives on classrooms and schools. London:Cassell Education Ltd.

[37] Cohen, D. A., & Rice, J. (1997). Parenting Styles, adolescent substance, and academicachievement. Journal of Drug Education, 27, 199 – 211.

[38] Coleman, J. S. (1988). Social capital in the creation of human capital.American Journal ofsociology, 9, (Supp) S95-S125.

[39] Cole, M & Cole, S. R. (2001).The development of children. San Diego: WorthPublishers.

[40] Collins, N. (2000). Perspectives on classrooms and schools. London: Cassell EducationLimited.

[41] Connie, R. S. (1997). Families Today. (2nded). New York: McGraw-Hill Publishing Co.

[42] Cramer, K. E. (2001). Permissive parenting practice: Development of a new measure:Psychological reports, 77, 819 – 830.

[43] Cramer, K. E. (2002).Influences of Parenting Styles on Children's Outcome. Louisiana:University State University Press.

[44] Crouter, A. (1994). Process Linking families and work: implications both settings.

[45] Exploring family relationships with other social contexts. Hill State,NJ: Erlbaum.

[46] Darling, N. (1999).Parenting styles and its correlates. New York: Ork.

[47] Darling, N. &Steinberge, L. (1993). Parenting styles, adolescents, attributions, and educational outcomes in nine heterogeneous high schools. Child development, 68, 507 – 529 de Mause, L. (1976). The history of childhood. London: Souvenir Press.

[48] Dekovic, M. &Gerris, J.R.M. (1992). Parenting reasoning complexity, societal class, and child rearing behaviours. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 54, 675 – 685.

[49] Demo, D. H. & Cox, M.J. (2000). Families with young children: A review of research in the   1990s. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 62, 867 – 895.

[50] Dennis, N. &Erados, G. (1992).Families without fatherhood. London Institute of   Economic Affairs, London: Erlbaum.

[51] Deslandes, R. (2002). Direction of influence between parenting style and parental involvement in school practices, and students' autonomy: A short-term longitudinal design.

[52]   Retrieved   August   3,   2009   from http://orders.edrs.com/members/sp.cfm?

[53] Dornbusch, S.M., Ritter, P.L., Leiderman, P.H., Roberts, D.F., &fraleigh, M.J. (1987). The relation of parenting styles to adolescent school performance. Child Development, 58,   1244 – 1257.

[54] Dornbusch, S. M. (1987). Relationship of parenting styles, locus of control orientation, and self-concept among junior high age students. Psychology in the schools, 35, 381 – 392.

[55] Dornbusch, S. M. & Steinberg, L. (1997). Authoritative parenting, psychosocial maturity, and academic success and among adolescents. Child development. 60, 1424-1436. (Duncan)

[56] Dweck,C. S. (1999). Self –theories: Their roles in motivation, personality and development. Philadelphia, PA: Psychology Press.

[57] Elliot, E. S. & Dreck, C. S. (1988).Goals : An approach to motivation and achievement. Journal of personality and social Psychology, 54, 5-2.

[58] Elsenberg, N. & Murphy, S. (1995). The caring child. Cambridge, MA: HaevardUniversity Press.

[59] Emerry, R.E. & Forehand, R. (1994).Parental divorce and children's well-being: Afocus on resilience. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. Englewood cliff, NJ: prentice- Hill.

[60] Ersado, L. (2005). Child labour and schooling decisions in urban and rural areas: Comparative   Evidence from Nepal, Peru and Zimbabwe, World Development, 33 (3),   455-480.

[61] Filmer, O. (1999).Parenthood in a changing context. Oxford: Blackwell.

[62] Fox, N. A. (1994). The development of emotion regulation, biological and behavioralconsideration. Monograph of the society for research in child development series,59(24) 96-97.

[63] Funder, D. C. (2004).The personality puzzle. New York: W.W. Norton & company Inc

[64] Furstenberg, F. F., &Cherlin, A. J. (1991).Divided families: What happens to childrenwhen parent part. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University press.

[65] Gannotti, M. E. &Handweker, W.P. (2002). Puerto Rican understanding of the disability: Methods for the cultural validation of standardized measures of the child health; Social Science and Medicine, 55, 2093 – 2105.

[66] Geoge, D. &Mallery, P. (1999).SPSS for Windows, step by step: A simple guide and reference . London: Allyn and Bacon.

[67] Glasgow, K. L., Dornbusch, S. M., Troyer, L., Steinberge, L. & Ritter, P. L. (1997). Parenting   styles, adolescents' attributions and educational outcomes in nine heterogeneous high   schools.Child Development 68, 507 – 529.

[68] Ginsburg, G. S. & Bronstein, P. (1993). Family factors related to children's intrinsic/extrinsicmotivational orientation and academic performance. Child Development, 64, 1461-1474.

[69] Godfried, A. E. (1994). Academic intrinsic motivation in young elementary and junior high school students. Journal of Educational Psychology, 77, 631 – 645.

[70] Godfried, A. E. (1990). Academic intrinsic motivation in young elementary school children.Journal of Educational Psychology, 82, 525- 538.

[71] Greenberge, B. S. (1994). Minorities and the Mass Media: Media Effects: Advances in theory and research.Hallsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

[72] Grolnick, W. S. & Ryan, R. M. (1992).Parental Resources and the Development Child in School   . A Handbook for School Professionals. New York: Teachers College Press.

[73] Grolnick, W. S. & Ryan R.M. (1989). Emotional self-reguation in infancy and toddlerhood: A handbook of contemporary issues. Philadelphia, PA: Psychology Press.

[74] Hallman, K. (2006). Pregnancy Related School Dropout and Prior School Performance in   South Africa. Policy Research Division Working Paper No. 212. New York: PopulationCouncil.

[75] Harbison, F. H. (1973). Human resources as the wealth of nations. London: Oxford UniversityPress.

[76] Harris, J. R. (1998). The nurture assumption: Why children turn out the way they do.   New York: Free Press.

[77] Hart, C. H., Nelson, D. A., Robinson, C. C., Olsen, S. F., &McNeilly-Choque, M. K. (1998)overt and rational aggression in Russian Nursery-School-age children: Parenting styles and marital linkages. Developmental Psychology, 34, 687-697.

[78] Harter, S. (1978).Parental authority questionnaire.Journal of Personality Assessment,57, 110- 119.

[79] Harter, S. (1996).Teacher and classmate influence on scholastic motivation, self-esteem and level of voice in adolescent. New York: Cambridge University Press.

[80] Harter, S. (1981). Effectance motivation reconsidered: Toward a developmental model. HumanDevelopment, 21, 34 – 64.

[81] Haveman, R., Wolfe, B. &Spauliding, J. (1991). Children events and circumstances influencing High completion. Demography 28, (1), 133 – 157.

[82] Herman, J. R. (1997). The nurture assumption: Why children turn out the way they do.   New York: Free Press.

[83] Hetherington, E. M. (1998). Parents, children and siblings: Six years after divorce.   Oxford: Oxford University Press.

[84] Hill, N. E. (1995). The relationship between family environment and parenting style: A preliminary study of African American families.Journal of Black Psychology, 21, 408 – 423.

[85] Hoffman, D. (1988). Maternal Power assertion in discipline and moral discourse contexts: Commonalities, Differences and implications for children's

[86] Moral conduct and cognition.Journal of American Psychological Association, 75, 20002 – 4242.

[87] Hokoda, A., &Fincham, F.D. (1995). Origins of Children's helpless and mastery achievement patterns in the family. Journal of Educational Psychology, 85, 375 – 385.

[88] Kalmijn, M. (1994).Mother's occupational status and children's schooling. American sociological review, 59, (2), 257 – 275.

[89] Kankam, G. &Onivehu, A. O. (2000).Principles and Practice of Guidance and Counseling. Accra: K 'N'm A. B. Limited.

[90] Krien, S. &Beller, H. (1988). Educational attainment of children from single-parent families-differences by exposure, gender and race. Demography, 25 – 234.

[91] Kwan, L. (1999). Child and adolescent development (2nded.). Boston: Houghton MifflinCompany.

[92] Kugh, G. (2000). Effects of socio-cultural context and parenting style on scholastic achievementamong Iranian adolescents. Social development, 16, 169 – 180.

[93] Lamborn, S. D., Mounts, N. S., Steinberg, L. &Dornbusch, S. M. (1991). Child development,   62, 1049 – 1065.

[94] Lange, G., Mackinnon, C. E., &Nida, R. E. (1989). Knowledge, strategy, and motivational contributions to preschool children's object recall. Development Psychology,   25, 772 – 779.

[95] Leung, K., Lau, S., & Lam, W. L. (1998). Parenting styles, motivational orientations, and self-   Perceived academic competence: A mediational model.   Merrill-Palmer Quarterly, 44, 1-19.

[96] Luthman, P. R. (2002). The Psychology of Adolescence (2nd Ed.) New York: Macmillan Company.

[97] Maccoby, E. E. & Martin, J. A. (1998).Socialization in the context of the family: Parent-child interaction. A Handbook of Child Psychology. New York: Wiley.

[98] Majoribanks, K.(1988). Families, Schools, and Aspirations.Journals of Experimental Education,   24, 52 – 70.

[99] Martin, R. (1984). Seen but not heard? Focusing on the needs of children of divorced parents in Gaberone and surrounding areas, Botswana: Childhood, 9:277 – 302.

[100] McLoyd, V. C. (1998). Socio-economic disadvantage and the child development.American Psychologist, 53, (2), 185 – 204.

[101] Milne, A. M., Myers, D. E., Rosenthal, A. S. & Ginsberg, A. (1986). Single parents, working Mothers and the educational achievement of school children.Sociology of Education, 59,125 – 139.

[102] Morris, W. &Maisto.Y. (1999). A cognitive effective system theory of personality: reconceptualizing situations, dispositions, dynamics, and invariance in personality structure. Psychological Review, 102, 246 – 268.

[103] Mueller, D. P., & Cooper, P. W. (1986). Children of single parent's families: How they fare as young adults. Family Relations, 35, 169 – 176.

[104] Nketsia, E. S. (2005). Effects of single parenting on the Basic School Child: A case study of Winneba Township.UEW.Unpublished.

[105] Nsamenang, A. B. (2002). Adolescence in Sub-Sahara Africa: an image constructed from Africa's triple inheritance in Brown.B. B., Larson, R.W., &Saraswathi, T. S.   (eds). The world's youth: adolescence in eight regions of the globe. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, pp 61 – 104.

[106] Ofori, W. (2001, April 12). Does the rod help kids? The mirror. Accra: Graphic Group of Companies.

[107] Ofori, R. & Charlton, J. P. (2002). A path model of factors influencing the academic Performance of nursing students.Journal of Advanced Nursing, 38, (5) 507-515.

[108] Ofori, R. &Dampson, D. (in prep).Research and Statistical Methods Using SPSS.

[109] Olson, D. H. &Defrain, J. (2000). Marriage and the family diversity and strength.USA: Mayfield Publishing Co.

[110] Opare, J. A. (1999). Academic achievement in private and public schools: Management Makes the difference. Journal of educational management, (2), 1 – 12.

[111] Santa Maria, M. (2002).Youth in Southeast Asia; in Brown B. B., Larson, R. W., &Saraswathi, T. S. (eds.). The world's youth: adolescence in eight regions of the Globe. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, pp 171-206.

[112] Santrock, J. W. (200). Adolescence (8th Ed.), University of Texas, Dallas: McGraw-Hill   Higher Education Companies.

[113] Schildkrout, E. (2002). Age and gender in Hausa Society: Socio-economic roles of children in urbankano; Childhood, 9:344 – 368.

[114] Seifert, K. L. &Hoffnung, R. J. (1991).Child and adolescent development (2nded).   Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company.

[115] Shumow, L., Vandell, D. L. & Posner, J. K. (1998). Hash, firm and permissive parenting in Low-Income families.Journal of family issues, 19, 438 – 507.

[116] Simpson, B., McCarthy, P. & Walker, J. (1995).Being there: Father after divorce.   United Kingdom: Association Press.

[117] Singelman, J. &Wojkiewicz, R. A. (1993). The effects of household structure on educational attainment and vocational training in West Germany and USA Center for lifecourse and population studies, Department of Sociology. Louisiana: Louisiana State University Press.

[118] Snow, D. W. & Hockings, J. E. (1999).Communication Research. New York: Addison-Wesley Educational Publishers Inc.

[119] Steinberg, L., &Dornbusch, S. M. (1992). Ethnic differences in adolescent achievement: an ecological perspective. American Psychologist, 47, 723 – 729.

[120] Stevenson, H. W. &Zusho, A. (2006).Adolescence in China and Japan: adapting to changing environment. Cambridge: Cambridge Press.

[121] Tamale Metropolitan Education Directorate. (2008). Annual performance report Tamale.

[122] Thompson, T., Dandson, J. A. & Barber, J. G. (1995). Self-worth protection in achievement motivation: performance effects and attribution behaviour. Journal of Education   Psychology 87, 598 – 610.

[123] Verna, S. &Saraswathi, T. S. (2002).Adolescence in India: Street Urchins or Silicon Valley Millionaire. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

[124] Wallen, N. E., &Fraenkel, J. R. (1993).Educational Research.A guide to process.New York: McGraw Hill Inc.

[125] Wallston, D. H. &Wallston, I. (1990). The development of achievement motivation; a developmental perspective. Educational Psychology Review 6, 49 – 78.

[126] Wentzel, K. R. (1998). Social relationships and motivation in middle school: The role of parents, teachers and pears. Journal of Education Psychology, 90, 202-209.

[127] Whitfield, R. C. (1980). Education for Family life – some new policies for child care.Britain :Biddles of Guildford Press.

[128] Wolters, H. & Lee, V. (1991).Educational single-parents remarried and intact families: Impact o academic performance and educational persistence. New Orleans: Plenum.

AUTHORS

First Author – James Kwame Mahama,   MPhil., Offinso College of Education, Ashanti Region of Ghana- West Africa

Second Author – Augustine Adjei, MEd./MPhil, Offinso College of Education, Ashanti Region of Ghana- West Africa

Third Author – Solomon Sukpen, MEd., Evangelical Presbyterian College of Education,Bimbila Northern Region of Ghana