

Parenting Approaches and Pupils' Classroom Reinforcement in Sagnarigu District, Tamale-Ghana

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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 approaches and pupil's classroom reinforcement/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 consistent 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 they 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.

Keywords: Parenting Style, Classroom Motivation, Mastery Motivation, Authoritarian Parenting, Permissive Parenting, Authoritative Parenting, Intrinsic Parenting, Family and Statistical Package for Social Sciences (S.P.S.S.)

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. 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.

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 consciousness and forms of understanding which enable persons to make sense of their experience (Whitfield 1980). According to 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 be 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. 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.

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 of knowledge. 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 (1988) believes that any discipline produces arousal on the child's part, he thinks that parents should use induction to 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 Handwerker (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)

Theoretical approach to parenting

Psychologists such as Ann Roe, Abraham Maslow, Sigmund 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. According to 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).

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 Sigmund Freud (1831-1939). As a neurologist by training, Freud noticed that many of his patients' nervous ailments appeared to be psychological rather than physiological in origin. (Morris and Maisto, 1999). According to Olson and Defrain (2000) Freud 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.

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 $B = f(P, E)$ 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). According to 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.

Parenting Approaches

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

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 do not 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).

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).

Permissive (Indulgent parenting)

Permissive parents typically display high levels of warmth and low levels of control in interactions 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 to 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 being in a 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).

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).

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 Baumrind's 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.

Astone and McLanahan (1991) studied the relationship between family structure, (whether both parents were present in the household) and children's educational attainment in the high school in the United State of America. Their study was based on the data from High School and Beyond study (HSB). Respondents were randomly selected members of either the sophomore or senior class at one of the nationally representative sample of over 1,000 United States of American high schools in 1980. A sub-sample of respondents was surveyed again in 1984 and 1986. The respondents were White (not Hispanic) Black, Mexican or Puerto Rican. They found that parental involvement had positive effect on the children's school achievement and attainment. Children from non-intact families reported lower educational expectations on the part of their parents, less monitoring of school work by mothers and fathers and less overall supervision of social activities than children from intact families. They also found that changes in the family structure were associated with declines in the

quality of parental involvement and concerns. High educational aspirations of parents were associated with high expectations of their children because parents transmitted their aspirations of their children through helpful participation, supervision, encouragement and closeness. Hence low educational aspirations were an indicator of early disengagement from school since high aspirations were a critical factor in predicting classroom motivation and educational achievement. They also found that differences in parenting styles between intact and non-intact families could account for the higher rate of school drop-out among children from non-intact families. This has been attributed to the economic positions of single-parent families. Mother-only families were more likely than other families to be poor.

In the same study, Astone and McLanahan (1991) showed how children whom grew up in single-parent families were less likely to complete high school or to attend college than children who grew up with both parents. They explained that children from single-parent families were less likely to finish high school because of precarious economic positions of their families and also limited time and attention given to such children. They indicated further that mother-only families were likely than other families to be poor and their poverty was more extreme than that of other groups. Even among single-income parents, insecurity was common place. These results were harmonized with other studies. Such studies showed that children who grew up in single-parent families were less likely to complete high school or to attend college than children who grew up in both parent homes. This is because both parent homes make time to monitor their children's academic opportunities and offer the needed parenting care. (Amato 1988, Coleman, 1988, McLanahan, 1985).

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. 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.

Mueller and Cooper's (1986) study was at least partially supported by that Acock and Kiecolt (1986) who used data from the 1972 – 1986 General Social surveys to investigate the long-term effects of family structure and parenting styles during adolescence on adult adjustment. When socio-economic status was not controlled, both men and women who lived in intact families at age 16 scored significantly higher than those from single-parent on all aspects of adjustment. However, when socio-economic status during adolescence was controlled, a few adverse effects of parental divorce, but no effect of a father's death was observed. 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.

Somewhat surprisingly, Milne et al (1986) did not find significant mediating effects of the other processes they examined, such as homework monitoring, and time use at home on the relationship between family structure and a child's academic achievement. Their results were partially replicated in a subsequent study by Astone and McLanahan (1991). Using data from the high School and Beyond Study, they found that children who lived with single-parent or step parents during adolescence received less encouragement and less help with school work than children who lived with both natural parents. The reason assigned to this trend was that in both natural parents, parents gave high support, care, affection and encouragement.

Singelmann and Wojtkiewicz (1993) also studied the effects of single parenthood on the educational attainment and vocational training of children in West Germany and the United States of America. They sought to find out whether growing up with a single parent had a negative effect on the educational and vocational attainment of children in West Germany and whether divorce affected the life course of German children as it did to American children. 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 research 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 a 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 curvilinear 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 (1988) 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.

Parenting approaches 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). According to 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 indeterioration in parenting.

Hetherington (1998) in a study found that after a divorce, mothers tend to make few demands on their children and to communicate with them less effectively than do other parents. Their discipline becomes erratic, and they are harsh. They are also less likely to explain their actions or to reason with their children. Hetherington and Stanley-Hagen (1987) parents raising children alone are trying to accomplish by themselves what is usually a demanding job for two adults. To them both fathers and mothers who have sole custody of their children do complain that they are overburdened by the necessity of juggling child care and household and financial responsibilities. 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.

Impact of parent's socio economic status on parenting approaches

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. According to 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).

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.

Parenting approaches 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 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 Bronstein, 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 investigation 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 if I try harder next time". As a result of this kind of thinking, they tend to persist in the face of difficulties and to look 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.

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 et 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. The influence of parenting on the relationship linking 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 (Dornbusch, 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.

Theories of motivation

According to 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, behaviourist 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 and Mischel 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 amotivation 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)

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.

Theoretical approach to parenting

Psychologists such as Ann Roe, Abraham Maslow, Sigmund 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 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).

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). According to 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 design was considered the most appropriate for carrying out the study.

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 in their respective schools and would have had a wide range of experiences while 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.

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.

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 on a 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.

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, 1.50 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's alpha of .86, those of permissive had Cronbach's 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. The 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.

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.

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 most 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 showed their highest loadings after rotation on factor two which tapped the authoritarian parenting style construct which accounted for 28.2% of the total variance in the data 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 crossloaded on both constructs (challenge and curiosity). As a result it 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.

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 .1: Reliability statistics

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

Table .2

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

Table1 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: 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).

Correlational Analysis

It is necessary to ascertain the extent to which the variables are correlated by inspecting a correlation matrix. To do this, a one tailed hypothesis of the correlation of parenting style namely Authoritative, Authoritarian and Permissive, the challenge and curiosity was statistically tested using Pearson's correlational method. Table 4.2 below shows a correlation matrix of the variables in the model. The test revealed that there was a highly significant positive correlation between students with curiosity and students who like challenges ($r = .292$; $n = 230$; $p < 0.01$). This therefore confirms that, the more students are curious the more they like facing challenges. On the other hand, there was a significant negative correlation between students who like challenge and authoritarian parenting style ($r = -.167$; $n = 230$; $p < 0.05$). This means, the more parents are authoritarian the less their children like facing challenges.

Table 4: Correlation matrix of the variables of the model (n = 230)

	Authoritative	Authoritarian	Challenge	Curiosity
Permissive	.016	-.063	-.075	.049
Authoritative		.083	-.058	.014
Authoritarian			-.167*	.101
Challenge				.292**

*.Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (1-tailed).

**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (1-tailed).

Source: Author's Computations from Survey Data, February 2018.

For the description of authoritarian, permissive, and authoritative parenting styles, items were ranked according to the degree to which each item is practiced by the participating parents. The means and standard deviations for each item are presented below. Table 4.3: shows the descriptive statistics of authoritative style. Using the scale developed by the researcher, it was noted that all the items had a mean greater than 2.50 which is the mean score for agreement. Consequently, it could be concluded that parents are authoritative.

Table 5: Descriptive Statistics of Authoritative Parenting Style

	Mean	Std. Deviation
Scold and criticize my child to make my child improve	2.92	.859
Grab my child when my child is being disobedient	2.71	.811
Scold or criticize my child when my child's behaviour doesn't meet my expectation.	2.73	.805
Know the names of child's friends	3.11	.750
I am easy going and relaxed with my child	2.82	.814
Tell my child about my behaviour expectations before the child does an activity	2.96	.811
Respond promptly to my child's need or feelings	3.15	.748
Tell my child that they appreciate what my child tries to do or accomplish	3.08	.647
Respond promptly to my child's need or feelings	3.08	.678
Have warm and intimate time with my child	2.87	.791

Source: Author's Computations from Survey Data, February 2018

Similarly, the interpretative scale developed by the researcher was used in assessing items under authoritarian parenting style. The result of their mean scores and standard deviation are presented in the table 4.4: below. It was observed that items “Express strong anger towards my child”, “Use physical punishment (spanking, grabbing, punishment, slapping) to discipline my child” and “Slap my child when my child misbehaves” had mean scores less than 2.50 which is the cut point for acceptance. This therefore means that the respondents disagreed in respect to those statements. The highest rated authoritarian items for parents were: “Have to yell or shout when my child misbehaves (M = 2.53)” and “Think about what my child wants in making plans for the family (M = 3.02)”. Comparing this present result with the one above, the researcher concluded that parents were more authoritative than authoritarian.

Table 6: Descriptive Statistics of Authoritarian Parenting Style

	Mean	Std. Deviation
Have to yell or shout my child misbehaves	2.53	.900
Express strong anger towards my child	2.07	.900
Use physical punishment (spanking, grabbing, punishment, Slapping) to discipline my child	2.22	.898
Slap my child when my child misbehaves	2.07	.864
Think about what my child wants in making plans for the family	3.02	.715

Source: Author’s Computation from Survey Data, February, 2018

Educators and instructional designers recognize that instilling curiosity in students encourages their disposition to learn. When students are magnetized by a new idea or a new situation and are compelled to explore further, regardless of external rewards, they can be said to be truly motivated. In each new project, they discover seeds for a future project or a new question to examine. Curiosity is a heightened state of interest resulting in exploration. Curiosity is also a critical component of creativity, and fostering curiosity and creativity in today’s learners is a challenge faced by educators and instructional designers alike. Before presenting instructional design strategies for fostering curiosity, it will be helpful to provide some background. Not all students are highly curious, and what might stimulate curiosity in some students might result in anxiety for others. Curious people have an ongoing, intrinsic interest in both their inner experience and the world around them. Curious people tend to be attracted to new people, new things, and new experiences, and therefore new challenges. Therefore curiosity brings about new challenges. Table 4.5: below confirmed the above relationship between curiosity and challenge since all the items under curiosity and challenge are above 2.50 the cut point for agreement.

Table 7: Descriptive Statistics of Challenge

	Mean	Std. Deviation
I do my school work because the teacher tells me to	2.63	1.072
I like to do my school work without help	2.65	1.002
I like the teacher to help me plan what to do after a lesson	2.97	.988
Descriptive Statistics of Curiosity		
My own effort is the only decisive thing n the kind of grades I will get in my assessments	2.94	.971
The grades I get in my assessments will be closely related to what I do	3.05	.852

Source: Author’s Computations from Survey Data, February 2018

Motivating students to learn is a struggle that all teachers face. The truth is motivating students to learn is one of the key components of effective teaching and classroom management. If students are not motivated to learn then they are most likely not involved in the lesson and if they are not involved in the lesson they are much more likely to cause classroom management problems. Therefore, it is critical for teachers to increase student motivation to learn and the best way to do this is for teachers to spark student interest at the beginning of every lesson. A good student-teacher relationship is a sharing relationship of something unique that no one else may experience in quite the same way. The student experiences an acceptance of ideas and contributions that may be unequalled in previous life experience. It has been shown that student relations with teacher are regarded by most students as the most important aspect of quality of their graduate experience. Beyond simply holding students to high standards, it is essential to fold into the conceptualization of the problem in education the

dynamics and importance of caring relationships and student autonomy support. When relatedness and autonomy support are present, the intrinsic motivation and self-regulation that follows improves student learning and success. Self-regulation is the process by which individuals make their plans, act upon those plans, and self-evaluate the results. According to Demo and Cox (2000), the more autonomous the individual the more intrinsic their self-regulation. Student achievement also improves when students are intrinsically motivated.

Test of Study Hypothesis

The researcher sought to find out the level of parenting style among and fathers. The researcher then used an independent t-test. Table 4.7 presents the result of the independent samples t-test performed on the permissive parenting style of two independent groups of randomly selected respondents. The two groups (Male parents and Female parents) were presented with the same permissive 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 Female Parents were more permissive (Mean = 2.35) than male parents (Mean = 2.01). To test whether the difference in mean scoring between the two groups was statistically significant, independent t-test was performed. The results of this test (Table 4.7) revealed that there was a significant difference in the mean scoring the groups ($t = 2.057$, $df = 128$, $p = 0.021$ one tailed). Therefore the study hypothesis that the Female parents were more permissive than the Male parents could not be rejected.

Hypothesis 1

There is a significant effect of level of educational attainment on parenting styles

Similarly a one-way ANOVA of educational level and the three parenting styles (Authoritative, Authoritarian and Permissive) was conducted. The result is shown in Table 4.12 below. The P-value of the test revealed that there was no significant difference between educational level in relation to Parenting Style (Authoritative $df = 4$, $F = .633$, $p > 0.05$ Authoritarian $df = 4$, $F = 1.965$, $p > 0.05$ Permissive $df = 4$, $F = 1.451$, $p > 0.05$).

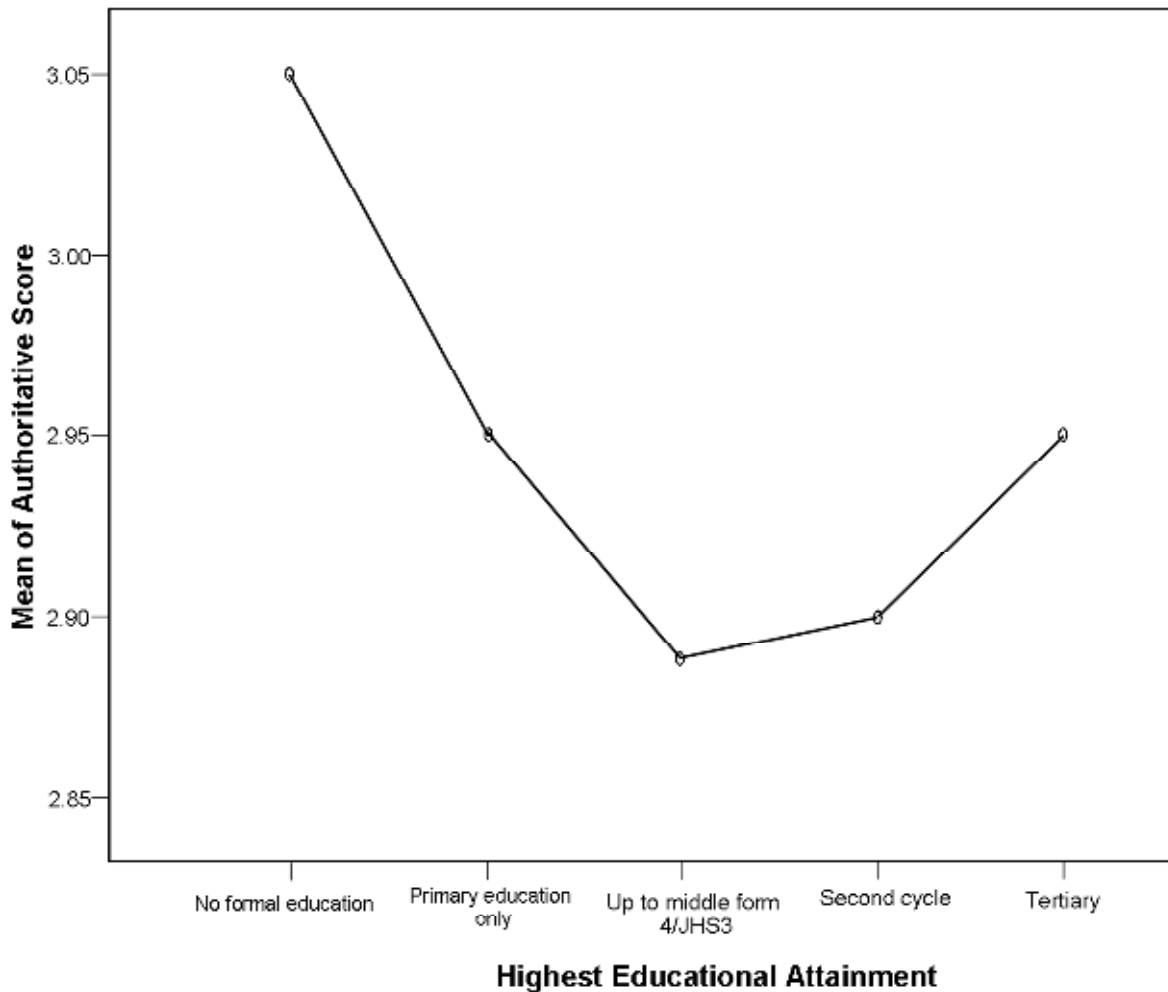
Table 8: One Way ANOVA test between Parenting Style and Educational level

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Authoritative score	Between Groups	.364	4	.091	.633	.64
	Within Groups	17.953	125	.144		
	Total	18.317	129			
Authoritarian score	Between Groups	1.708	4	.427	1.965	.10
	Within Groups	27.160	125	.217		
	Total	28.868	129			
Permissive score	Between Groups	4.648	4	1.162	1.451	.22
	Within Groups	100.129	125	.801		
	Total	104.777	129			

Source: Author's Computations from Survey Data, February, 2018

However, one can observe in chart 4.4 below that parents with no-formal education were more authoritative followed by those with primary, tertiary, second style and up-middle form 4/JHS3 level. In general it was realized that parents' irrespective of their educational level had a mean score greater than 2.5 indicating that parents were authoritative

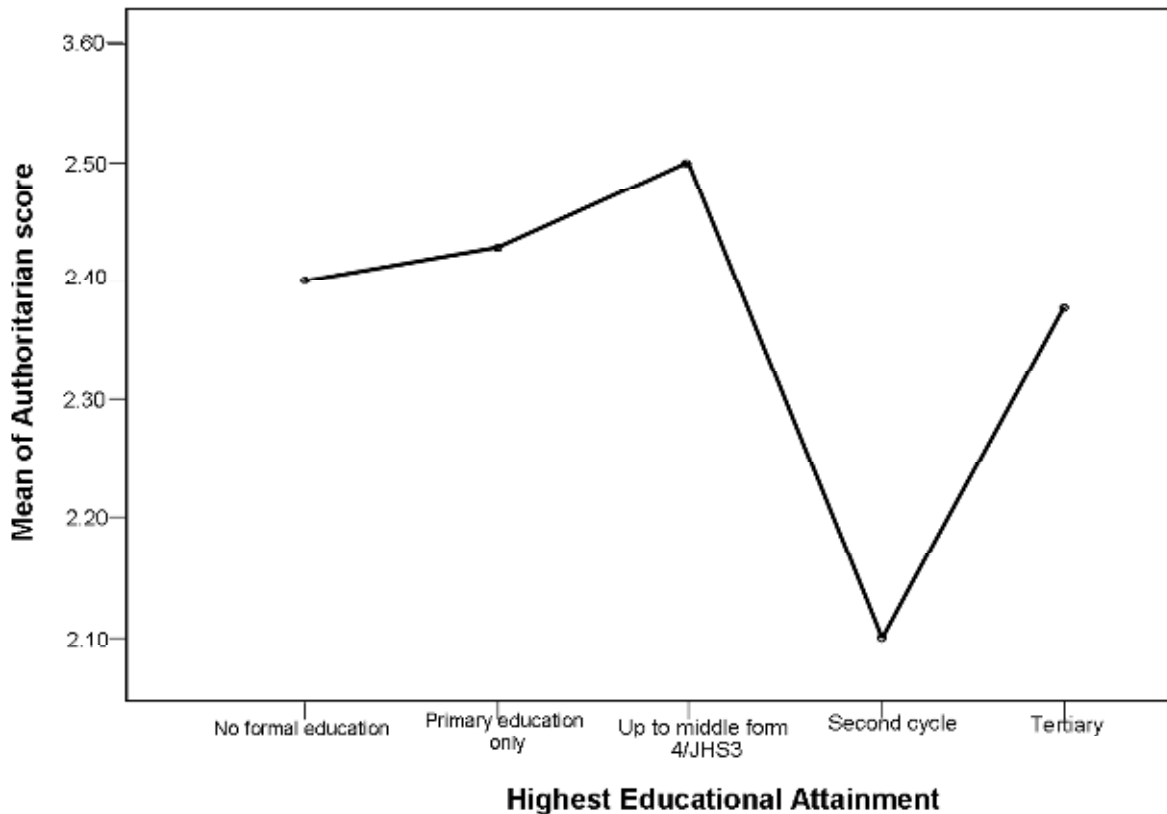
Chart 1: Means plot of authoritative style versus Level of education



Source: Author's Computations from Survey Data, February, 2018

On the other hand, Chart 4.5 below indicated that parents with up-middle Form 4/JHS3 level were more authoritarian followed by those with primary, no-formal, tertiary and second cycle level. It was also observed that apart from the middle form 4/JHS3 level parent who had a mean score greater than 2.5 the remaining level were below the cut-off point. This therefore means that only middle form 4/JHS3 level parents were authoritarian.

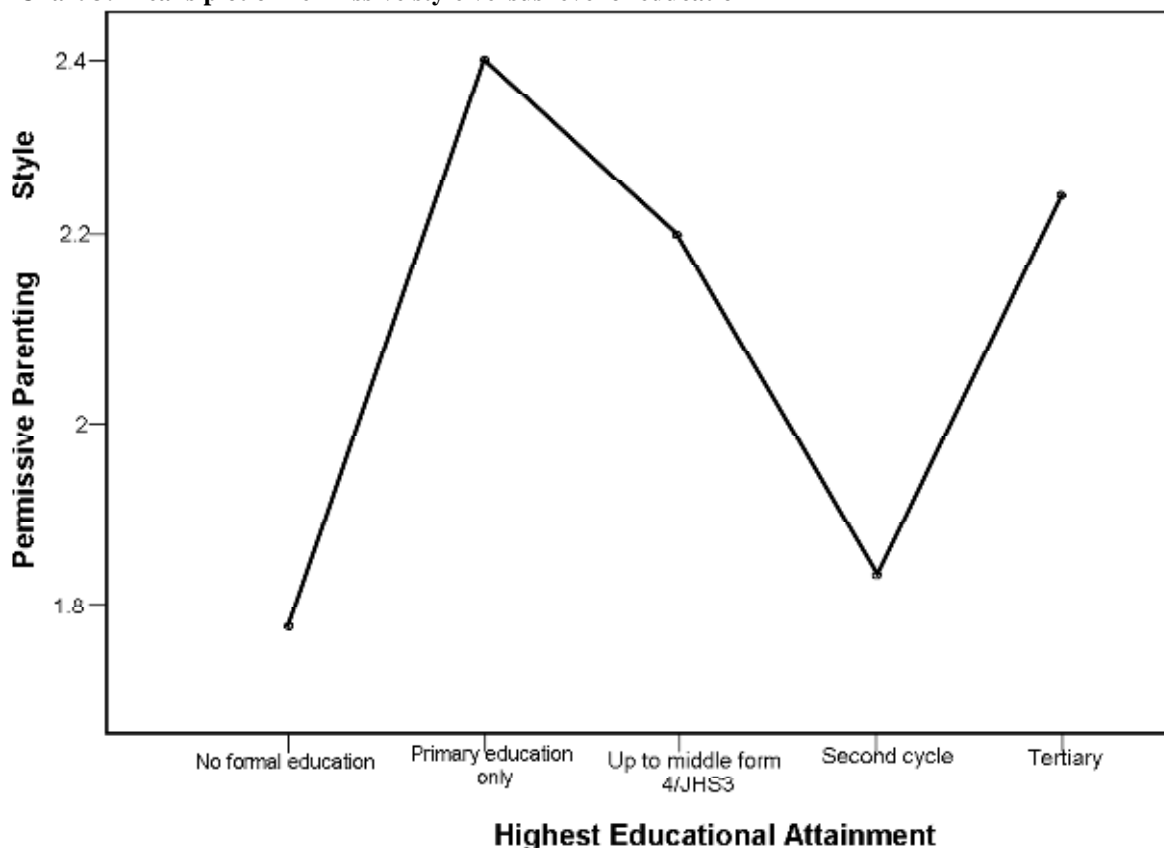
Chart 2: Means plot of authoritarian style versus Level of education



Source: Author's Computations from Survey Data, February, 2018

The means plot (see Chart 4.6 below) of the permissive parenting style revealed that irrespective of the parents' level of education, the mean score fell below the 2.5 cut-off point. The researcher can therefore conclude that level of education does not have any relationship with permissive parenting style. However, a critical look at the mean figures, assumed that primary education level had a more close relationship with permissive parenting style, followed by tertiary, up-middle form 4/JHS3, second cycle and lastly no-formal education level.

Chart 3: Means plot of Permissive style versus level of education



Source: Author's Computations from Survey Data, February, 2018

Hypothesis 2

The study is testing hypothetical model in which the parenting approaches were logistically regressed on children's classroom motivation.

Looking at the study hypothesis, the researcher decided to use a logistic regression analysis to identify the relationship and strength between the parental approaches and motivation. A direct logistic regression analysis was performed through SPSS BINARY LOGISTIC to access predictors of students who were motivated or not on the basis of the parenting approaches adopted by their parents. Seventy one (71) students who were motivated (a total of 130 students) provided data suitable for analysis. A test of the full model with the three predictors against a constant model was statistically reliable ($\chi^2 = 34.010, df=3, p < 0.01$), indicating that those who are not motivated and those who are motivated. The variance performance accounted for was high (Nagelkerke $R^2 = .721$), indicating 72% of shared variance between motivation and the set of predictor. Thus the gain in prediction is high.

Table 8: below shows the result of the direct logistic regression analysis predicting motivation from parenting styles. According to the Wald test, permissive ($\chi^2 = 7.32, df=3, p = 0.05$), authoritative ($\chi^2 = 11.53, df=3, p < 0.05$) and authoritarian ($\chi^2 = 6.67, df=3, p < 0.05$) reliably predicted motivation. Hosmer and Lemeshow's goodness of fit test which compared observed with predicted numbers of cases for the two categories of motivation, using all the predictors in the model just about showed a good fit with $\chi^2 = 10.947, df=8, p = 0.72$. Table 13 also shows that the most reliable predictor of students' classroom motivation is then followed by authoritarian and lastly authoritative. The odds of a student being motivated by a permissive parenting style decrease by a multiplicative factor of .845 for a unit change in permissive parenting styles, assuming that the effects of authoritarian and authoritative parenting styles are controlled for. Similarly, the odds of a student being motivated by an authoritarian parenting style decrease by a multiplicative factor of .901 for a unit change in authoritarian parenting style, assuming that the effects of permissive and authoritative parenting styles are controlled for. On the other hand, the odds of a student being motivated by an authoritative parenting style increase by a multiplicative factor of 1.039 for a unit change in authoritative parenting style, assuming that the effects of authoritarian and permissive parenting styles are controlled for.

The ability of the model to correctly classify the students in terms of their motivation was found to be very high (79.2%) the models sensitivity was also very high (79.5% of the students with motivation were correctly classified) as well as its specificity (78.7% of students who were not motivated were correctly classified), as in classification table 9 below.

Table 9: Logistic regression analysis of students’ classroom motivation as a function of parenting styles

Variables	B	Wald	Sig.	Odds ratio	95.0% C.I. for Exp(B)	
				Exp(B)	Lower	Upper
Permissive	-.169	7.32	.002	.845	.574	1.244
Authoritative	.039	11.53	.023	1.039	.412	2.624
Authoritarian	-.104	6.69	.009	.901	.430	1.889
Constant	.680					

Source Author’s Computations from Survey Data, February 2018

Table 10: Classification Table

Observed	Predicted				Percentage correct
			Motivation		
			Not motivated	Motivated	
Step 1	Motivation	Not motivated	41	11	78.8
		Motivated	18	60	79.5
	Overall Percentage				79.2

a. The cut value is .500

Source: Author’s Computations from Survey Data, February, 2018

Discussion of the Results

The findings showed that majority of parent respondents were authoritative, followed by authoritarian and permissive. Second, the findings showed that mothers were more permissive than fathers. Lastly, it was found that perceived paternal permissive, authoritarian, and authoritative parenting styles were significantly correlated with Students’ classroom motivation.

Perception of Paternal and Maternal Parenting Style

The data obtained showed that majority of the respondents, both paternal and maternal parenting styles were authoritative. This finding is consistent with the finding by Cramer (2002) which found that majority of the samples perceived themselves as authoritative. This findings suggested that majority of students felt that both their father and mother provided clear and firm direction, often give rationale behind the rules set by them, controlling and demanding but are warm towards them. However, the present findings contradict with some studies. For example, it was found that among Asian and Asian American families, authoritarian parenting style was more common while authoritative parenting style was less common (Dornbusch, Ritter, & Leiderman, Roberts and Fraleigh, 1987). In addition, studies conducted in Malaysia in the state of Kelantan found that parents perceived themselves to be authoritarian (Krien and Beller, 1988). While, in another study conducted by Cohen and Rice, (1997) in the state of Kedah found that both paternal and maternal parenting styles were perceived to be permissive.

One possible reason that parents from the Sagnirigu area were perceived more as authoritative may be due to the fact that parents from Tamale area have higher educational level compared to those from the rural areas. It can therefore be argued that parents who have higher educational level may have been exposed to the knowledge that the best parenting style is authoritative. Thus, they are more likely to use authoritative parenting style compared to authoritarian or permissive parenting style. As according to Dornbusch, Ritter, Leiderman, Roberts and Fraleigh, (1987) the socio-economic status might have influenced parents’ style of parenting too.

Perception of Marital status on Parenting Styles

The data revealed that there was a significant difference between marital status in relation to Authoritative Parenting Style. Single, married and widowed parents tend to be authoritative; while divorced and

separated parents were more Authoritarian and permissive respectively. This confirms other research conducted by Zimiles and Lee (1991) which found that students from single parents and step families lagged behind those from both families in terms of children taking initiatives on their own. The explanation given to this was that in both families, the authoritative approach to parenting is used. In another study by Amato and Keith (1991), children whose parents are 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.

Perception of Educational Attainment on Parenting Styles

A one-way ANOVA test revealed from the data collected that there is no significant difference between educational levels in relation to Parenting Style. One possible reason for this state of affairs could be that parents in the Tamale Metropolis rear their children based on the cultural practices and not the level of education they have attained. However the data revealed that parents with no formal education were more authoritative followed by primary, tertiary, second cycle and up-middle form 4/JHS3 level. On the other hand, parents with up-middle form 4/JHS# level were more authoritarian followed by primary, no formal, tertiary and second cycle level. It was also observed that apart from the up-middle form 4/JHS3 level parents who had a mean score greater than 2.5, the remaining levels were below the cut-off point of 2.50. This therefore means that only up-middle form 4/JHS3 level parents with were authoritarian. The permissive parenting style revealed that irrespective of the parents level of education, the mean score fell below the 2.5 cut-off point. The researcher could therefore conclude that level of education does not have any relationship with permissive parenting style. However, a critical look at the mean figures assumed that primary level had a more close relationship with a Permissive parenting style, followed by tertiary, up-middle for 4/JHS3, second cycle and no formal education level.

Relationship between perceived Paternal and Maternal Parenting Approaches and Students' Classroom Motivation

The findings revealed that perceived paternal permissive, authoritarian, and authoritative parenting styles significantly correlate with Student's classroom motivation. The findings of the present study contradicts with the findings obtained by Baumrind (1973) in which perceptions of both paternal and maternal parenting style did not correlate with children's classroom motivation, according to Baumrind, paternal and maternal parenting styles were unrelated with Student's classroom motivation and could be explained by the differences in influence of different parenting styles as the children grew older. In Cramer's (2002) view, Children's Classroom motivation in the early years of schools may be influenced by parenting style but not at the later years of schools. However, the study was consistent with a study by Hill (1995) which found that there was a significant relationship between paternal and maternal parenting style and Students' classroom motivation. The findings was also consistent with the results obtained by Deslandes (2000) which found that perceived maternal permissive, authoritarian, and authoritative parenting styles significantly correlated with Student's classroom motivation. The findings in this study fell in line with findings by Grolnick and Ryan (1989) which also reported that perceived paternal and maternal authoritative and maternal authoritarian parenting styles significantly correlated with organization, achievement, intellectual orientation and Student's classroom motivation.

Parenting styles may have more direct influence on children's social and emotional development rather than cognitive development (Cramer, 2002). The influence of parenting styles during childhood may have direct influence but the influence may change to indirect when the children become adolescents (Dornbusch and Steinber, 1997). According to Darling and Steinberg (1993) the influence of parenting style on adolescent is primarily indirect. As adolescents become mature, their parents were willing to step away from direct parenting and involvement in the aspects of their life such as in their academic performance. The relationship of adolescents and their parents tend to change and other factors such as peer relationships and teacher-students relationship may have a stronger influence on their classroom motivation as peers and teachers influence on their everyday behaviour in schools (Steinberg and Dornbusch, 1992).

Steinberg and Dornbusch, (1992) argued that even though adolescent perceptions of their parents' parenting styles are important than the actual parenting used by their parents, it is likely that the "time lapse" may have changed their perceptions because they might have different perceptions on their parents' parenting style as they grow older. In another study by Steinberg and Dornbusch, (2003) it was found that there was a significant relationship between the dimensions underlying the parenting styles – strictness and involvement – classroom motivation. This may be a sign that by looking at the parenting styles as a categorical variable may mask the underlying dimension of the influence parenting styles may have on classroom motivation. The results of the correlational analyses examining the parenting styles and motivation revealed significant relationships. Parents' authoritarian styles was found to be negatively related to their children's classroom motivation, which indicated that authoritarian parents rear children with lower levels of intrinsic motivation.

This relationship was in the direction expected by the researcher and identified by previous studies like Baumrind (1973) and Hill (1995), Schumow et al. (1998) who found that authoritarian parenting style has been negatively associated with the classroom motivation expressiveness and independence in children. In addition they argued that children of authoritarian parents show high level of obedience and produce negative outcomes in children's development such as low levels of self-concepts and poor adjustment at school. However, this finding was contradicting with the results of Cramer (2002) which found that mother's authoritarian parenting was positively related to children's classroom motivation.

On the other hand, authoritative and permissive parenting was found to be positively related to classroom motivation. This showed that the more parents are authoritative or permissive the more their children are motivated. This is consistent with a study done by Dornbusch (1987) and another by Bloir (1997) which 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. In Baumrind's view authoritative parents set high standards for their children, they explain why their children are being rewarded or punished. Such explanations improve children's understanding and acceptance of the social rules.

The findings showed that parents were authoritative, followed by authoritarian and permissive. Second, the findings also showed that mothers were more permissive than fathers. Third, it was found that permissive and authoritative parenting styles did significantly correlated with students' motivation. On the other hand authoritarian parenting styles did not significantly correlated with students' motivation (Challenge).

Conclusions

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.

Guidance and counseling over the years have focused mainly on school counseling yet parents need counseling not only in the area of parenting but also how to cope with the various problems associated with the growth and development of their children, unmet needs, communication between parents and their children, value conflict and how to deal with negative influences affecting their children. Every parent expects his or her child to leave school as an individual who is sensitive to human needs, has a sense of humor, has confidence and solid self-esteem, possesses the ability to focus on goals, possesses wisdom and decision making skills to make the right choices, displays honesty, integrity and commitment. If all these expectations are to be achieved then guidance and counseling must not focus at the school level alone but also on parents and their parenting styles. Teachers as well as parents need to be trained to acquire skills to handle children's problems in a caring and confidential manner. Raising children should be a joy and can be. In fact it can be one of the most rewarding of all human experiences. The application of psychological principles (guidance and counseling) on the bringing up of children can ensure that they are happy, loving and productive and that they become valued members of the society in which they live.

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.

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