

**ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY  
SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES**

**IMPACT OF PARENTING PRACTICES ON  
SCHOLASTIC PERFORMANCE OF HIGH SCHOOL  
STUDENTS IN WOLAYTA AND AMHARA CULTURES**

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MAY, 1997**

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IN WOLAYTA AND AMHARA CULTURES**

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## ABSTRACT

This study examines the impact of parenting practices on scholastic performance of high school students, the relationship between ethnicity and parenting style, and the type of parenting style dominantly practiced among Ethiopian families. The subjects of the study were three hundred thirty five eleventh-grade students attending two Comprehensive Secondary Schools in Wolayta Soddo and Bahir Dar. Based on Maccoby and Martin's (1983) revision of Baumrind's conceptual framework, families were classified into one of four parenting groups (authoritative, authoritarian, indulgent, and neglectful) on the basis of the adolescents' ratings of their parents on two parental dimensions: acceptance/involvement and strictness/supervision. The students were then contrasted along their scholastic performance.

Results indicate that parenting practices have a significant impact on scholastic performance of high school students, explaining 13.14% of the variations in academic achievement. However, the impact of parenting practices is moderated by the effect of sex of the students. That is, male students who characterize their parents as authoritative score higher in scholastic performance than their counter parts who perceive their parents as non-authoritative and female students who come from all four parenting style families. Male students who come from authoritarian families perform better in school than their counter parts who are from neglectful homes and female students who come from indulgent and neglectful families. The scholastic performance of female students is not significantly different as a function of parenting style they have in their families. Moreover, the results also reveal that ethnicity and parenting style are not related and that authoritative parenting style is a type of parenting style dominantly practiced among Ethiopian families. The implications of the results to child-rearing practices and child socialization and the adaptability of Ethiopian families to modern patterns of child-rearing practices are discussed.

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# CHAPTER ONE

## 1. INTRODUCTION

### 1.1 BACKGROUND OF THE PROBLEM

With the widely held view that children are tomorrow's responsible citizens of a country and future builders of their society, due attention and care for children is almost more than a necessity for their all-round and harmonious development so that what is expected of them in the future is realized. Children should get ample opportunity for their fullest development in social, physical, psychological, emotional, moral, and cognitive aspects of their life.

The social development of children in modern societies increasingly occurs within an institutional context. Both school and family are the most known institutions for social and cognitive development of the children. Schools are environments that establish a series of developmental tasks for children. As some researchers indicated, the nature of these tasks varies: schools present children with a set of new interpersonal relationships that they must incorporate into their social world; schools demand cognitive performance; and schools demand socialization of the child to the student's role (Piaget et al., 1932, 1965; Sullivan, 1953; Youniss & Smollar, 1985, cited in Stevenson & Baker, 1987, p.1348). In all of these developmental tasks the family is an important and primary agent for the child (Stevenson & Baker, 1987).

It is a truism that among the family factors affecting the developmental outcomes of children the way parents rear their children has an important effect on the conduct of the children in everyday life, both in and out of the home. Parental efforts at child-rearing are certainly the most potent

influences in shaping the child's social, cognitive, and emotional behaviors. The specific events which affect the child are primarily the result of the actual behavior of parents. This does not mean to minimize the influence of schools, peers, or other social models and social reinforcing agents. However, the family, which in our society largely means the parents, is the most important influence shaping the child's behavior (Singer & Singer, 1969).

Research on the relation between families and schools has tended to focus on how and to what degree family actively creates an effective in-home learning environment for the child. The tendency of this line of research has been to examine the familial characteristics that may influence the child's cognitive development and subsequent school performance (Scott-Jones, 1984, cited in Stevenson & Baker, 1987, p.1348).

The study conducted on the family relations of bright high-achieving and under-achieving high school boys pointed that parents of high achievers give their children more praise and approval, show more interest and understanding, closer to their children, make their children feel more family "belongingness" and identification with parents; on the other hand, parents of under-achievers are more domineering and over restrictive and use more severe and frequent punishment, which is at the same time less effective (Morrow & Wilson, 1961). The investigators further noted that Parents of under-achievers are more likely either to baby their youngsters or to push them excessively and to present to their youngsters either low or extremely high (pressuring) demands for achievement. Moreover, the investigators revealed that homes of under-achievers show more tension and more parental disagreement as to standards of behavior expected of their youngsters.

Baumrind and Black (1967) indicated that parents of the most assertive, self-reliant, and self-controlled children are controlling, demanding, communicative, and loving; parents of the unhappy and disaffiliated children are relatively controlling and detached; and parents of the least self-reliant and self-controlled children are non-controlling, non-demanding, and relatively warm. The researchers pointed out that the socialization practices of parents have great influence on the dimensions of competence of children.

The study of Baumrind (1973), cited in Dornbusch et al. (1987, p.1244), attempts to link components of family interaction to cognitive competence. She postulates three family parenting styles (authoritative, authoritarian, and permissive) that have consequences for the development of cognitive and social competence. These three family types differ in the values, behaviors, and standards that children are expected to adopt; in the ways these values, behaviors, and standards are transmitted; and in parental expectations about the behavior of children.

Dornbusch and his colleagues (Dornbusch, Ritter, Liederman, Roberts, & Fraleigh, 1987) examined the relation between parenting style and adolescent school performance. Building on the classic studies of Baumrind (1971, 1973, 1978, cited in Steinberg et al., 1989, p. 1424), Dornbusch and his colleagues developed several indices designed to capture three prototypic pattern of parenting identified by Baumrind in her earlier studies of family interaction and its impact on children's competence-the authoritarian pattern, the permissive pattern, and the authoritative pattern. The results of Dornbusch et al.'s analyses indicated that authoritative parenting is positively correlated with adolescent school performance, whereas authoritarian and permissive parenting are negatively so. More specifically, the researchers found that

adolescents who describe their parents as behaving more democratically, more warmly, and more encouraging earn higher grades in school than their peers. This finding is consistent with an extensive literature linking authoritative parenting practices to children's psychosocial competence and well-being, virtually however indexed (see Maccoby & Martin, 1983).

In a study of authoritative parenting, psychological maturity, and academic success among adolescents, Steinberg et al. (1989) noted that authoritative parenting has a positive impact on scholastic performance which is mediated at least in part through the effects of authoritativeness on the development of a healthy sense of autonomy, and more specifically, a healthy psychological orientation toward work. More specifically, the researchers indicated that adolescents who describe their parents as treating them warmly, democratically, and firmly are more likely than their peers to develop positive attitudes toward, and beliefs about, their achievement, and as a consequence, they are more likely to do better in school (see also Steinberg et al., 1991).

An extensive literature on various socialization practices and their effects provides consistent evidence that parental warmth, inductive discipline, non-punitive punishment practices, and consistency in child-rearing are each associated with positive developmental outcomes in children (Maccoby & Martin, 1983). Since the early 1970s, this constellation of practices has come to be known as "authoritative" parenting, one of several prototypic styles of parenting identified in the seminal studies of Baumrind (1967, 1971), cited in Steinberg et al. (1994, p.754). Children who are raised in authoritative homes score higher than their peers from authoritarian, indulgent, or neglectful homes on a wide variety of measures of competence, achievement, social development, self-esteem and mental health (Maccoby & Martin, 1983).

In general, several recent studies have pointed out that adolescents who are raised in authoritative homes perform better in school than their peers (Dornbusch et al., 1987; Lamborn et al., 1991; Steinberg et al., 1992a, 1989, 1994, 1992b, 1991). These studies suggest that the link between authoritativeness and school success is (1) causal (Steinberg et al., 1989); (2) evident among both younger and older adolescents (Lamborn et al., 1991; Steinberg et al., 1989); (3) robust across different conceptualizations and operationalizations of authoritativeness (Dornbusch et al., 1987; Lamborn et al., 1991; Steinberg et al., 1991); and (4) generalizable across various ethnic, socioeconomic, and family structure groups (Dornbusch et al., 1987; Steinberg et al., 1991). Some additional researches, on school outcomes other than scholastic performance, indicate that authoritative parenting also is associated with increases in a number of attitudinal and behavioral indicators of academic orientation during adolescence, including a stronger work orientation, greater engagement in class room activities, higher educational aspirations, more positive feelings about school, greater time spent on home work and assignment, more positive academic self-conceptions, and lower levels of school misconduct, such as cheating or copying assignments (Lamborn et al., 1991; Steinberg et al., 1989, 1992b).

This work on authoritativeness and its beneficial effects builds on half a century of research on parenting and parenting style. Yet, despite some impressive consistencies in the socialization literature, important questions remain unanswered. As researchers have expanded beyond samples of White, predominantly middle-class families, it has become increasingly clear that the influence of authoritativeness, as well as other styles of parenting, varies depending on the social milieu in which the family is embedded. For example, Baumrind (1972) reported that authoritarian parenting, which is

associated with fearful, timid behavior and behavioral compliance among European-American children, is associated with assertiveness among African-American girls. Further more, recent studies in which the effects of authoritativeness have been compared across ethnic groups have consistently shown that authoritative parenting is most strongly associated with academic achievement among European-American adolescents and is least effective in influencing the academic achievement of Asian-and African-American youths (Dornbusch et al., 1987; Steinberg et al., 1992a, 1994, 1992b). Moreover, Darling and Steinberg (1993) noted that there is variability in the effects of parenting style as a function of the child's cultural background.

Although a profusion of studies have documented the impact of parenting practices on children's psychosocial development and scholastic performance, it has only been with in the past few years that some few researchers have begun to devote significant attention to the impact of parenting practices on children's psychosocial development in Ethiopia. For instance, Ringness and Gander (1974) made a study on the methods of child-rearing in rural Ethiopia and found that parents, particularly the fathers are authoritarian. Some other survey study on child-rearing practices at Bahir Dar points out that the dominant parenting style in Ethiopia is authoritarian and this style is not conducive for the development of the children with entrepreneurial characteristic (Habtamu, 1979).

Despite increasing interests in the area of parenting practices, systematic research concerned with specific parenting practices as they affect the psychosocial development and the scholastic performance of the children is only beginning to become available in Ethiopia. It is clear that, for the most part, all parents want their children to be intelligent and to do well in school. But parents may not know

what kinds of skills children need to do well in school, and what parenting practices will promote their children's scholastic performance. No previous studies seem to have dealt with the impact of parenting practices on the scholastic performance of high school students in different cultural contexts in Ethiopia. Thus, this and the existing views concerning the impact of parenting practices on the psychosocial development and scholastic performance of children in different cultural contexts has initiated the researcher to examine the same issue from the Ethiopia context-With particular reference to two cultural groups (Wolayta and Amhara cultures).

### **1.2. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM**

Only the most naive persons believe that a child's scholastic performance is a simple function of his or her innate ability. There are theorists who go so far as to question the very concept of intelligence saying that "even achievement behavior measured on intelligence tests is learned behavior reflecting the child's social environment" (Miner, 1968). According to Miner, it is assumed that environmental factors do play a large role in the child's scholastic performance obviously, the child's assimilation of a set of values regarding education and successful performance, in part, determines his or her motivation to perform and consequently, his or her actual performance. The type of behavior repertoire learned in home generalizes to the school environment thus providing a source of differential response to the academic setting. Exposure to different types of stimuli outside of the school environment similarly may produce different levels of performance independent of ability. Thus, all children do not have the same level of scholastic performance due to their socialization experiences in the home environment.

There is increasing recognition within developmental, educational and sociological theories that both school and home are important institutions that socialize and educate children. Within the frame work of home-school connections on the scholastic performance of children, much of the specific debate and hope for change focuses on the impact of parenting practices in their children's schooling.

Several studies examined the impact of parenting practices on scholastic performance of adolescent's demonstrated concurrent and predictive correlations between parenting styles and his or her scholastic performance (Dornbusch et al., 1987; Lamborn et al., 1991; Steinberg et al., 1992a, 1989, 1994, 1992b,1991).

Despite the extent of child development research on intellectual skills and learning, the answers to a parent who asks specifically "What can I do during my child's school years?" "How can I instill motivation and positive attitudes in my child?" and "What are the subsequent effects such characteristics have on school performance?" are thus far not answered fully in Ethiopia. In Ethiopia, when parents send their children to the school they assume that they have completed their responsibility and they do not know what is expected from them for their children's better scholastic performance.

Although a lot has been said about the impact of parenting practices on the scholastic performance of children by different educators and scholars, it is not surprising if one says that much work is still remaining untouched with reference to Ethiopian high school students. Even, many Western researchers have stressed this issue as an area of interest of detailed and comprehensive investigation. For instance, Dornbusch et al. (1987) emphasized the need for further

investigations that will help increase our understanding of the parenting styles and their consequences. Steinberg et al. (1992b) also call for further research examining parenting practices and adolescent development in various ethnic (cultural) groups.

The main purpose of this study is, therefore, to explore the familial roots of the scholastic performance of high school students in Ethiopia-With particular reference to two cultural groups (Wolayta and Amhara cultures) through examination of child-rearing behavior and attitudes.

Specifically, the study tries to answer the following questions:

1. Does scholastic performance of high school students vary as a function of parenting style?
2. Is there any relationship between ethnicity and parenting style?
3. Does ethnicity of student mediate the effect, if any, of parenting style on scholastic performance of high school students?
4. Which type of parenting style is dominantly practiced among Ethiopian families? (in Wolayta culture? in Amhara culture?)

### **1.3 OPERATIONAL DEFINITION OF IMPORTANT TERMS**

Terms can usually be interpreted or defined according to the context in which they are used. Hence, in this study, the terms below are used with the meanings to each of them as follows:

1. Ethnicity:- Refers to a group's of "people hood" based on a combination of race, religion, and cultural history. It encompasses those people who are united by their common ancestry or history. In this study the terms "ethnicity" and "cultural context" are used interchangeably.
2. Family structure:- Refers to who is living in the house hold with the child. That is, it refers to two natural parents (i.e., intact families) and single parent, stepparents, and others (i.e., non intact families).
3. Parent(s):- Refer(s) to natural father and mother, stepfather and mother, and step mother and father. The concept is synonymous with the term "guardian(s)".
4. Parental Education:- Refers to the highest level of formal education attained by parents in family.
5. Parenting practice(s):- Refer(s) to parents' specific and goal-oriented behaviors through which they perform their parental duties.
6. Parenting style(s): Refer(s) to the constellation of students' perception of their parents' attitudes toward them with respect to parental acceptance/ involvement and parental strictness/ supervision (i.e., authoritative, authoritarian, indulgent, and neglectful).

7. Scholastic performance:- Refers to performance of students on classroom teacher made examinations as indicated by the Grade-Point-Averages (GPA) or average scores on subject areas offered in grade 11 in Comprehensive Secondary Schools. In this study, the terms "scholastic performance," "School performance," and "academic achievement," are used interchangeably.

#### **1.4. OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY**

The study has the following objectives:

1. To examine the impact of parenting practices on the scholastic performance of high school students in Wolayta and Amhara cultures.
2. To investigate the mediating effect, if any, of ethnicity in the relationship between parenting style and scholastic performance of high school students.
3. To explore which type of parenting style is dominantly practiced among Ethiopian families (in Wolayta and Amhara cultures).
4. To develop an instrument for assessing parenting styles that are practiced in Ethiopia.

### 1.5. SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

One of the currently most important areas of study in the development of children focuses on parental socialization efforts directed toward their children. Parents are viewed as the major agents for assisting children in developing the knowledge and self-control to deal effectively with their world.

As pointed out by Ringness and Gander (1974), in Ethiopian culture parents consider that children are gifts of God; children are considered as the wealth of the family and hence, it is desirable to have many children as possible for economic reasons and because many children are needed to help their parents with their work. Many children are needed because children are expected to take care of the parents in their old age and to ensure that the family lineage will be carried on. Similarly, Teshome (1976) in his study on attitudes and values concerning children among the Menz in rural Ethiopia reported that having many children was perceived by the parents to provide social prestige and both economic and psychological security.

Some other recent studies also noted that traditionally in Ethiopia, the child is valued highly because he/she represents an insurance against the inevitable contingencies of old age (Atsede, 1994). She further revealed that many people regard children as God's blessings and some even go to the extent of believing that children are pre-destined to grow up regardless of human intervention and so, one does not have to worry much about their up-bringing.

Despite the fact that very much is expected when the children grow up, and that education is the only means to achieve at this expectation, but little is known, however,

about the socialization of the children and the impact of parenting practices on scholastic performance of the children. The present study, therefore, is expected to expand our knowledge of socialization processes of the children in general and the impact of parenting practices on the scholastic performance of children in particular. In addition, understanding whether parenting practices contribute to school success through education specific behaviors is important not only to those who study children's socialization in general, but to educational practitioners who are interested in developing family based programs to enhance children's school performance.

It is also hoped that as a result of this study some insights will be gained regarding the practices of child raising in some parts of Ethiopia which could help us to make curricula and teaching approaches more meaningful and relevant to learners.

Further more, the findings of this study is useful for parents in that they need to have knowledge about the impact of their parenting practices on their child's psychosocial development and scholastic performance to assist their child in his or her efforts to meet the demands of schools effectively.

More over, the results of this study may indicate future directions of research for those persons who are interested in this area.

#### 1.6. DELIMITATION OF THE STUDY

The study is limited to Wolayta and Amhara cultures. The main reason why these cultures are chosen is that to make the study manageable relative to the finance and time constraints, and because the researcher is familiar to one of these cultures-Wolayta culture.

There are many other factors (e.g., family size, birth order, spacing intervals between children, age of the children, etc) which influence parents' child-rearing practices and there by affect the relationship between parenting styles and children's scholastic performance. Hence, it is too difficult to include all elements in the area of this study. Therefore, this study focuses on demographic factors, such as ethnicity, parental education, family structure, and sex of the children which are known to influence parents' child-rearing practices and affect the relationship between parenting styles and children's scholastic performance.

Eventhough parental socialization is considered to be important during elementary school years, it continues to be influential even later (Maccoby, 1992). High school years are particularly periods of rapid changes which are accompanied by new behavioral manifestations and therefore it is difficult for high school youngsters to easily adjust themselves to the environment. Hence, family parenting practices do play important role during adolescent years in adjustment to high school environment and effective scholastic performance. Some studies have suggested that high achievement in the adolescent years is associated with at least one family process, high identification with parents (Kandel & Lesser, 1969; Morrow & Wilson, 1961). More over, many recent studies have applied the scheme of parenting practices to explain variations in patterns of adolescent development, including scholastic performance and

psychosocial development (Dornbusch et al., 1987; Lamborn et al., 1991; Steinberg et al., 1992a, 1989, 1994, 1992b, 1991). Thus, this study is limited to high school students- With particular reference to grade 11 students in two high schools (Soddo Comprehensive Secondary School and Tana Haik Comprehensive Secondary School).

## CHAPTER TWO

### 2. REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

An extensive body of research on socialization practices and their effects on children's developmental outcomes has contributed to our understanding of the impact of parenting practices on children's scholastic performance. It therefore becomes imperative to investigate how and to what extent children's scholastic performance is influenced by their family parenting practices. Thus, in this section attempts will be made to examine those available studies conducted by various socialization and developmental researchers which are related to the impact of parenting practices on children's psychosocial development and scholastic performance. To this end, family and school achievement; historical background of the development of the theoretical models of parenting styles; parenting styles; the overview of parenting practices; the relationship between parenting styles and scholastic performance; the mediators and moderators in the relationship between parenting styles and scholastic performance; and an overview of studies about child-rearing practices in Ethiopian context were assessed and treated.

#### 2.1. FAMILY AND SCHOOL ACHIEVEMENT

The importance of socializing agents in shaping and molding the psychosocial development and scholastic competence of children has received significant attention. To date there have been numerous empirical studies which have examined how socializing agents, such as family, peer, and school influence the psychosocial development and scholastic performance of children. Of the different types of the socializing agents, the family is both the earliest and most sustained source of

social contact for the child and within which the child learns appropriate and inappropriate interaction styles.

As Hurlock (1978) points out the contribution of the family to children's development comes from the type of relationships children have with different family members. These relationships are influenced by the attitudes and behaviors of different family members toward the children. This is why some other writers note that the functioning of the marital system, parent-child system, and sibling system are interrelated and have impact on children's adjustment (Hetherington & Parke, 1993).

Similarly, Miller et al. (1993) point out that although the direction of influence from child to parent or parent to child has not been clearly established, findings have been consistent in relating children's adaptive or maladaptive behavior to parent functioning in intrapersonal, parent-child, and marital domains. Therefore, the social behavior and attitude of children and their competence in school performance reflect the treatment and handling they receive in the home. From this stand point, Forehand et al. (1986) reveal that parent-child interaction in the home may influence children's behavior in the second major setting in which they function-the school.

A review of research on the family and school as educational institutions notes an increasing emphasis on "process" studies that seek to identify those features of the family environment through which socioeconomic and cultural background have an impact on mental development and school achievement. Hess and Holloway (1984) analyzed results from studies of pre-school, primary, and middle-school children and identified five processes linking family and school achievement: (1) verbal interaction between mother and

children, (2) expectation of parents for achievement, (3) positive affective relationships between parents and children, (4) parental beliefs and attributions about the child, and (5) discipline and control strategies. Among these various processes, as Hess and McDevitt (1984) indicate, discipline and control strategies appeared to have a major influence on school achievement.

The study which examined three familial factors-parental surveillance of home work, parental reactions to grades, and general family style-in relation to children's motivational orientation and academic performance found that higher parental surveillance of home work, parental reactions to grades that included negative control, uninvolved, or extrinsic reward, and over- and under-controlling family styles were related to an extrinsic motivational orientation and to lower academic performance; whereas parental encouragement in response to grades children received was associated with an intrinsic motivational orientation and higher academic performance (Ginsburg & Bronstein, 1993). Grolnick and Ryan (1989) found that parental support of children's autonomy (i.e., emphasizing independence over obedience, using reasoning as opposed to punishment, and including children in decision making) was positively related to children's self-initiated regulation in the classroom, perceived competence and academic achievement.

Although social scientists have often assumed that parental influence is curtailed at adolescence because of the rising counter influence of peer groups, over which parents have little control. The study which tested a conceptual model that challenged this view argued that parents retain a notable but indirect influence over their teenage child's peer associates (Brown et al., 1993). The results of this study indicated that specific parenting practices (i.e., monitoring, encouragement of achievement, joint decision making) were

significantly associated with specific adolescent behaviors, such as academic achievement and self reliance.

In sum, the studies presented above provide evidence to suggest that the family of the children in general and their parents in particular play a great role in psychosocial development and scholastic performance of the children. Both general parenting practices and specific parental behaviors and attitudes that are directly relevant to children's competence have influence on their academic achievement.

## 2.2. HISTORICAL BACKGROUND OF THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE THEORETICAL MODELS OF PARENTING STYLES

Socialization and developmental psychologists have been concerned with the development of a theoretical model of parenting styles by examining and analyzing the specific dimensions of parents' child-rearing practices because the ways in which parents treat their children affect the feelings, thoughts, and behaviors of the children. Over the years, researchers have examined many different kinds of parenting techniques. One prominent researcher, Baumrind (1971, 1989, cited in Owens, 1993, p.400), has characterized two aspects of parents' behavior toward children: parental responsiveness and parental demandingness. On the basis of her findings, Baumrind conceptualized parental discipline as being composed of two dimensions: warmth and control-and she developed three types of parenting style (authoritarian, permissive, and authoritative). The theoretical model of parenting styles developed by Baumrind in her series of studies is named as a threefold typology of parenting styles.

Although Baumrind's model has been used primarily to examine socialization consequences during early and middle child hood, several studies have applied the scheme to explain

variations in patterns of adolescent development, including academic achievement and psychosocial development (Dornbusch et al., 1987; Steinberg et al., 1989). The findings from these studies of adolescents corroborate findings from earlier age periods (i.e., adolescents benefit most from authoritative parenting and least from authoritarian and permissive parenting).

Family systems' theorists would argue that it is not the sum of individual dimensions of parenting but the configuration or combinations of dimensions that are important. Almost all influential theories of socialization in the family since the work of Sears, Maccoby, and Levin (1957), including Baumrind's, emphasize the need to consider the joint and interactive effects of different dimensions of parental behavior—most often combining an index of parental warmth, acceptance, or involvement with an index of parental control or strictness (Maccoby & Martin, 1983). Yet, despite the widespread acceptance of such interactive models, most empirical studies conducted to date on parenting practices and adolescent outcomes continue, surprisingly, to focus on single dimensions of the parent-child relationship.

Maccoby and Martin (1983) point out that examining the combined effects of warmth and demandingness yields four types of parenting style (authoritative, authoritarian, indulgent, and neglecting), rather than the three (authoritarian, permissive, and authoritative) emphasized in most discussions and empirical tests of Baumrind's model (e.g., Dornbusch et al., 1987). Although most of these empirical studies distinguish between demanding parents that are high versus low in warmth (i.e., authoritative versus authoritarian parents), many ignore variations in warmth among parents characterized by low levels of control, grouping these parents together into a single category labeled "permissive".

Unfortunately, the use of a single category for all parents low in control mixes together two types of families who have very different reasons for their laxity. On the one hand are families whose low level of control derives from an ideological orientation that has its foundations in trust, democracy, and indulgence (i.e., "indulgent permissiveness"); on the other are families whose low level of control reflects disengagement from the responsibilities of child-rearing (i.e., "neglectful permissiveness") [Lamborn et al., 1991]. These researchers further suggest that failing to distinguish between indulgent and neglectful permissiveness muddies findings on the consequences of permissive parenting for the child's development. Dornbusch et al. (1987) also note that the concept of permissiveness may be tapping two distinct and identifiable parental behaviors and attitudes. That is, permissiveness may refer to a parenting attitude that is essentially neglectful and uncaring, or it may refer to parenting that is caring and concerned but ideologically genuinely permissive.

Thus, Maccoby and Martin (1983) by examining the interactive or combined effects of the two dimensions of parenting (i.e., warmth and demandingness) developed a typology of four types of parenting style (authoritative, authoritarian, indulgent, and neglectful or neglecting). The theoretical model of parenting styles developed by Maccoby and Martin is named as a fourfold typology of parenting styles.

Several recent studies have applied the theoretical framework of parenting styles set forth by Baumrind in her earlier works and later elaborated and revised by Maccoby and Martin (1983) to examine the interactive effects of parental warmth and strictness on several aspects of adolescent development and explain variations in patterns of adolescent development, including academic achievement, psychosocial development,

behavior problems, and psychological symptoms (e.g., Lamborn et al., 1991; Steinberg et al., 1992b, 1994, 1991), and these reports find that adolescents, like their younger counterparts, benefit from authoritative parenting.

The study of Lamborn et al. (1991) suggests that whether the fourfold framework of Maccoby and Martin's (1983) typology of parenting styles is superior to the more commonly employed threefold classification scheme derived from Baumrind's early work depends on the outcome variable of interest, however. The results of Lamborn et al.'s study support distinguishing between nondemanding parents who are high versus low in responsiveness, especially the outcome of interest involves some aspect of youngsters' feelings about themselves. This suggests that if the outcome of interest is children's behavior rather than their feelings about themselves, parental "permissiveness" may be equally problematic whether it occurs in the context of indulgence or neglect.

Some other studies also suggested three specific components of authoritativeness which contribute to healthy psychological development and school success during adolescence: parental acceptance or warmth, behavioral supervision and strictness, and psychological autonomy granting or democracy (Steinberg et al., 1989, 1991). This trinity—warmth, control, and democracy—parallel the three central dimensions of parenting identified by Schaefer (1965) in his pioneering work on the assessment of parenting practices through children's reports. These components are also conceptually similar to dimensions of parental control proposed by Baumrind (1991a, 1991b, cited in Steinberg et al., 1992a, p.725) in her recent reports: supportive control (similar to warmth), assertive control (similar to behavioral supervision and strictness), and directive/ conventional control (similar to the antithesis of psychological autonomy granting).

Lamborn et al. (1991) note that from the three dimensions of parenting practices: acceptance/ involvement, strictness/ supervision, and psychological autonomy which were suggested by Steinberg and his associates (1989, 1991), the psychological autonomy dimension appears to be important in defining authoritative but less so in differentiating among authoritative, authoritarian, indulgent, and neglectful parents. For this very reason they employed Maccoby and Martin's (1983) framework, in which family groups are defined by responsiveness (comparable to their "acceptance/involvement") and demandingness (comparable to their "strictness/ supervision).

Baumrind's initial typology of parenting practices is well known. Compared with an authoritarian or permissive style, she regarded the authoritative style as optimal, and this style involved a combination of affection and attentive responsiveness to children's needs, along with parental imposition of clear requirements for prosocial, responsible behavior (to the degree consistent with child's mental level). For Steinberg et al. (1989, 1991), the optimal parenting cluster includes not only high acceptance-warmth and firm control (the two major Baumrind's elements), but also a quality which Steinberg and his colleagues call psychological autonomy or democracy.

However authoritative parenting is defined and whatever the age of the child, there appears to be a common core of meaning that defines the optimal cluster, and it has to do with inducting the child into a system of reciprocity. An authoritative parent assumes a deep and lasting obligation to behave so as to promote the best interests of the child, even when this means setting aside certain self-interests. At the same time, the parents insist that the child shall progressively assume more responsibility for responding to the

needs of other family members and promoting their interests as well as his or her own within the limits of child's capabilities (Maccoby, 1992).

Despite broad consensus about the effects of parenting practices on child development, many questions about the construct parenting style remain unanswered. Particularly pressing issues are the variability in the effects of parenting style as a function of the child's cultural background, the processes through which parenting style influences the child's development, and the operationalization of parenting style. Drawing on historical review, Darling and Steinberg (1993) proposed a model that integrates two traditions in socialization research, the study of specific parenting practices and the study of global parenting characteristics. They point out that parenting style is best conceptualized as a context that moderates the influence of specific parenting practices on the child. According to Darling and Steinberg, parenting practices and parenting styles are defined as follows:

- (1) Parenting practices:- Are parental behaviors defined by specific, goal-oriented behaviors through which parents perform their parental duties (e.g., attending school functions and spanking).
- (2) Parenting Styles:- Are the constellation of attitudes toward the child that are communicated to the child and that, taken together, create an emotional climate in which the parent's behaviors are expressed. These behaviors include both parenting practices and non-goal directed parental behaviors, such as gestures, changes in tone of voice, or the spontaneous expression of emotion.

Historically, researchers have applied both typological and dimensional approaches to the study of socialization in the family. As Darling and Steinberg (1993) have argued, the two approaches have different theoretical orientations and are based on different assumptions. In the typological tradition, the general pattern, organization, or climate of parenting is of primary interest, and the assessment of specific parenting practices or dimensions (such as acceptance or strictness) is done for heuristic purposes, as a means of providing a window on the overall parenting environment. In the dimensional tradition, in contrast, different aspects of the parent-child relationship are assessed in order to test specific hypotheses about their relation (separately and jointly) to child adjustment. Each tradition has merit, and a decision to use one versus the other should be made on theoretical grounds (Steinberg et al., 1994).

### **2.3. PARENTING STYLES**

Parents discipline their children in order to get them to behave in ways approved of by society. Because of this reason parenting practices are based on societal values. In connection with this, Ogbu (1988, cited in Owens, 1993, P. 400) argues that child-rearing techniques depend to some extent on the nature of the instrumental competence that parents are expected to have in a given population. Thus, consciously or unconsciously, parents try to inculcate through various techniques cognitive, motivational, and social competencies that are appropriate to their cultural milieu. Hurlock (1978) also notes that the type of parenting style parents use in their training methods depends partly on their own upbringing and partly on what they have found from personal experience or the experience of their friends, and that will produce the result they desire in their children.

A variety of parenting dimensions has been identified in the literature of Maccoby and Martin (1983), often through empirically means. However, because of differing methods, theoretical approaches and developmental foci, there has been no general consensus on the most significant axes along which to compare parents in their child-rearing practices.

Baumrind in her earlier works delineated two relevant dimensions, namely firm versus lax control and psychological autonomy versus psychological control and based on these two parental dimensions she identified a threefold typology of parenting styles (authoritative, authoritarian, and permissive) which varied around the degree of parental control, clarity of parent-child communication, parents' maturity demand and nurturance. Later after elaborating and revising Baumrind's framework, Maccoby and Martin (1983) identified a fourfold typology of parenting styles (authoritative, authoritarian, indulgent, and neglectful) based on two important parental dimensions-responsiveness and demandingness.

TABLE 1: A Two-Dimensional Classification of Parenting Patterns

	Accepting, Responsive, Child- Centered	Rejecting, Unresponsive, Parent-Centered
Demanding, Controlling, Restrictive	Authoritative- reciprocal High in bidirectional communication	Authoritarian Power-assertive
Undemanding, Low in Control, Attempts Permissive	Indulgent	Neglecting, Ignoring, Indifferent, uninvolved

Source: Adapted from Maccoby and Martin (1983)

### 2.3.1. AUTHORITATIVE PARENTING STYLE

Authoritative parenting, a style of child-rearing first identified in Baumrind's seminal studies of the socialization of competence (1967, 1978, cited in Steinberg et al., 1992b, p.1267), is defined by the combination of high levels of parental responsiveness and high levels of demandingness (Maccoby & Martin, 1983). According to Baumrind, authoritative parents are warm but firm. This pattern contains the following elements: an expectation of mature behavior from the child and clear setting of standards by the parents; firm enforcement of rules and standards, using commands and sanctions when necessary; encouragement of the child's independence and individuality; open communication between parents and children, with encouragement of verbal give-and take; and recognition of the rights of both parents and children. Authoritative parents deal with their child in a rational, issue-oriented manner, frequently engaging in discussion and explanation with their children over matters of discipline (also see Baumrind, 1966).

As pointed by Steinberg et al. (1989), authoritative parents manifest their investment in many ways. Authoritative parents actively shape their children's sense of efficacy and self-esteem, and enhance their scholastic performance by producing situations in which their child is effective and by imparting positive messages about their child's qualities and competencies.

Also, Steinberg and his colleagues (1992b) note that authoritative parenting is but one of several means through which parents exert an impact on their youngsters' school performance. According to the researchers, parents also influence children's achievement through their direct involvement with school activities, such as helping with homework or courses selection or attending parent-teacher

conferences, and through the specific encouragement of school success, both explicitly and implicitly, by setting and maintaining high performance standards. To these researchers, authoritative parenting is treated as a general style of child-rearing that characterizes the parents' behavior toward the child in a wide variety of situations, whereas parents' encouragement of school success and their participation in school activities are seen as particular parenting practices with education-specific goals.

In general, high warmth and moderate restrictiveness, with the parents expecting appropriately mature behavior from their children and setting reasonable limits but being responsive and attentive to their children's needs, are associated with the development of self-esteem, adaptability, competence, internalized control, popularity with peers, and low levels of antisocial behavior. Children from authoritative homes show greater social responsibility (achievement orientation, friendliness toward peers, cooperativeness toward adults) and independence (social dominance, nonconforming behavior, purposiveness) [Hetherington & Parke, 1993; Owens, 1993].

### 2.3.2. AUTHORITARIAN PARENTING STYLE

Authoritarian parents, according to Baumrind (1971, cited in Owens, 1993, p.402), place a high value on obedience and conformity. They tend to favor more punitive, absolute, and forceful disciplinary measures. Verbal give-and-take is not common in authoritarian households, because the underlying belief of authoritarian parents is that the child should accept without question the rules and standards established by the parents. They tend not to encourage independent behavior and, instead, place a good deal of importance on restricting the child's autonomy. Baumrind's study of pre-school children found that such a model of family interaction was associated

with low levels of independence and social responsibility. Baumrind later described the authoritarian pattern, some what more formally, as being high in demandingness on the part of the parents and low in parental responsiveness to the child (Baumrind, 1971, 1973, cited in Dornbusch et al., 1987, p. 1245).

### 2.3.3. INDULGENT PARENTING STYLE

Indulgent parents are parents who are very responsive but not at all (low in) demanding (Maccoby & Martin, 1983). This parenting style is equivalent to Baumrind's permissive parenting style-in which parents are tolerant and accepting toward the child's impulses, use as little punishment as possible, make few demands for mature behavior, and allow considerable self regulation by the child (Baumrind, 1966).

Indulgent parents behave in an accepting, benign, and some what more passive way in matters of discipline. They place relatively few demands on the child's behavior, giving the child a high degree of freedom to act as he or she wishes. Indulgent parents are more likely to believe that control is an infringement on the child's freedom that may interfere with the child's healthy development. Instead of actively shaping their child's behavior, indulgent parents are more likely to view themselves as resources that the child may or may not use (Baumrind, 1971, cited in Owens, 1993, p.402).

In the study of pre-school children, Baumrind found the children of permissive parents were immature, lacked impulse control and self-reliance, and evidenced a lack of social responsibility and independence. In the follow-up studies at 8-9 years of age, these children were low in both social and cognitive competence (cited in Dornbusch et al., 1987, p.1245).

#### 2.3.4. NEGLECTFUL PARENTING STYLE

Neglectful parents are disengaged parents who are "motivated to do whatever is necessary to minimize the costs in time and effort of interaction with the child" (Maccoby & Martin, 1983). According to Maccoby and Martin, neglectful parents are parents who are low in both levels of responsiveness and demandingness. Such parents are motivated to keep the child at a distance and focus on their own needs rather than the needs of the child. They are parent-centered rather than child-centered. With older children this is associated with the parents' failure to monitor the child's activity, to know where the child is, what the child is doing, and who the child's companions are.

Adolescents and young children from neglecting homes are more likely to have drinking problems, be truant, spend time on the streets with friends who are disliked by their parents, be precociously sexually active, and have a record of arrests (Baumrind, 1991; Pulkkinen, 1982; cited in Hetherington & Parke, 1993, p.433). Lack of parental monitoring is strongly associated with the risk of delinquent behavior (Patterson, DeBarsyshe, & Ramsey, 1989). It is not just that children with disengaged parents are socially incompetent, irresponsible, immature, and alienated from their families. They also show disruptions in peer relations and in cognitive development, achievement, and school performance (Patterson et al., 1989).

The categorization of parenting styles proposed by Baumrind's seminal studies and later set forth by Maccoby and Martin's (1983) review provides a useful way of summarizing and examining some of the relations between parenting practices and psychosocial development and scholastic performance. Baumrind noted that children who are most responsible and mature tend to value parents who establish consistent standards of behavior,

negotiation with their children concerning those standards, use explanations, and have warm relationships with their children-authoritative parents. Generally speaking, children raised in authoritative house holds are more psychosocially competent than children raised in authoritarian, indulgent, or neglecting (indifferent) homes.

The authoritative parent expects mature behavior from the child. They exhibit a high level of demandingness and a high level of responsiveness to their children. Such parents encourage children to be independent, but still place limits, demand and control on their actions. Authoritarian parents exhibit high levels of demandingness and low levels of responsiveness to their children. Rules in these homes are not discussed in advance or arrived at by any consensus or bargaining process. They are decided up on by the parents. Parents attach strong value to the maintenance of their authority and suppress any efforts by their children to challenge it.

Whereas authoritarian parents make all the decisions, permissive parents (indulgent-permissive) allow children to make all the decisions; they do not feel in control and do not exert control. Little or no parental control is associated with impulsive behavior in children. In addition, these children tend to be immature, dependent, regressive, the least self-reliant, and the poorest in self control. Children raised by neglectful (indifferent) parents are often impulsive and more likely to be involved in delinquent behavior and in precocious experiments with sex, drugs, and alcohol. In general, the effects of neglectful (indifferent) parents tend to be slightly worse among boys than girls (Owens, 1993).

To summarize, authoritative parents are controlling, but affectionate, and encourage autonomy in their children;

authoritarian parents are controlling but less affectionate; indulgent parents are minimally controlling but affectionate; and neglectful parents are neither controlling nor affectionate.

#### 2.4. THE OVERVIEW OF PARENTING PRACTICES

As some writers in socialization process of children indicate, the process of child-rearing undergoes important changes as children grow up. During each phase of children's development, different problems become foci for parental concern and subsequent action (Owens, 1993). According to Owens, a major influence regulating parenting behavior may be parents' beliefs and attitudes about children and children's behavior at different ages. That is, parents' disciplining techniques are apt to reflect their inferences about children's competence and responsibility for misconduct. Some other studies indicate that enormous advances in social skill occur across age and parents should therefore think that, in general, older children are more responsible (Dix, Ruble, & Zambarana, 1989).

For these very facts, Butterworth and Harris (1994) note that the transition to parenthood involves further changes and personal adaptation both in the father and mother. In relation to this, Rutter and Rutter (1992, cited in Butterworth & Harris, 1994, p.247) list six key elements in parenting practices:

- (1) Parenting requires skills for providing an environment conducive to the adaptive development of the child, in relation to the child's needs and demands. These include knowing how to play and talk with children and the appropriate use of disciplinary techniques.

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- (1) Parenting requires skills for providing an environment conducive to the adaptive development of the child, in relation to the child's needs and demands. These include knowing how to play and talk with children and the appropriate use of disciplinary techniques.

- (2) Parenting requires not only skills but also positive social relationships, both between parents and child and more generally within the family.
- (3) Parenting reflects the quality of psychosocial functioning of the mother and father and is likely to be affected by the state of mental health of the parents.
- (4) Parenting is the outcome of learning. Previous experience of bringing up other children may be important as well as the experience of one's own upbringing.
- (5) Parenting a particular child is influenced by earlier experiences of the same child.
- (6) Parenting occurs in a broader nexus, influenced by whether the parent is alone, with the other parent, or with other children.

Parenting practices therefore involve many factors which culminate in the successful or unsuccessful up-bringing of children. parenting is a series of life events that offers the mother and father many new challenges and responsibilities. These responsibilities may be held solely by one parent, or be shared with others in the family, or with the larger community (Butterworth & Harris, 1994).

From this stand point, Maccoby (1980) proposes that children's social-psychological development will be fostered if their parents:

- (1) Are committed to their children's welfare and responsive to their needs.
- (2) Make age-appropriate demands on their children for socially mature behavior, enforce these demands with consistency and firmness and do not give into children's attempts at coercion.

- (3) Create structure in their children's lives, in the form of reasonably predictable environments and schedules of daily events.
- (4) Allow the children a role in family decision making, insofar as this is compatible with efficient family functioning.
- (5) Listen to their children's points of view and explain parental actions in a way that the children will understand. Where possible, avoid imposing restrictions and demands arbitrarily ("because I said so") and avoid relying on simple parental power and authority to enforce decisions. Call children's attention to the effect of their actions on others and on the children's own future relationships with others.
- (6) Allow children to solve their own problems whenever possible, but set up situations that facilitate success.
- (7) Show affection; notice and give approval for good behavior.
- (8) Foster the development of a system of joint values.

## 2.5 THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PARENTING STYLES AND SCHOLASTIC PERFORMANCE

Researches on socialization processes report consistent findings in a relationship between parenting styles and psychosocial development and scholastic performance of the children. Two early studies of Baumrind (1967, 1971, cited in Ginsburg & Bronstein, 1993, p.1462) linked parenting styles with children's self-reliant and explorative behavior. Her research, which focused on pre-school children suggested that children with authoritative parents, as compared with authoritarian and permissive parents, were more sociable and self-motivated in the nursery school setting. Baumrind has followed her authoritative, authoritarian, and permissive parents and their children from the pre-school period through adolescence in a longitudinal study (Baumrind, 1991, cited in Hetherington & parke, 1993, p.432). She found that authoritative parenting continued to be associated with positive outcomes for adolescents as with younger children and that responsive and firm parent-child relationships were especially important in the development of competence in sons. Moreover, authoritarian child-rearing had more negative long term outcomes for boys than for girls. Sons of authoritarian parents were low in both cognitive and social competence. Their academic and intellectual performance was poor. In addition, they were unfriendly and lacking in initiative, leadership, and self-confidence in their relations with their peers.

Nuttall and Nuttall (1976) reported that parents' accepting, firm, and nonuse of hostile psychological control methods in their child-rearing practices lead their children to, or at least associated with, higher academic achievement. Dornbusch et al. (1987) found that authoritative parenting was positively related to adolescent school performance, whereas

authoritarian parenting and permissive parenting were negatively so. More specifically, the researchers reported that adolescents who describe their parents as behaving more warmly and more encouraging earn higher grades in school than their peers (see also Steinberg et al., 1991).

Grolnick and Ryan (1989) sought to identify relevant dimensions of parenting styles believed to be associated with children's competence in school. It was found that children's academic performance is enhanced when parents hold reasonable expectations for their children, offer general, facilitating assistance, expect and accept independent behavior when the child is ready.

The purpose of Steinberg and his colleagues' (1989) study was to "unpack" authoritativeness into its constituent components-acceptance, psychological autonomy, and behavioral control-and examine the independent contribution of these components to adolescent school performance. The results indicated that aspects of authoritative child-rearing, including parental warmth and acceptance, made both direct and indirect contributions to the child's academic achievement over time. This parenting style affects children's academic achievement primarily through the development of "psychosocial maturity" (e.g., aspirations for performing competent work, experiencing pleasure in one's work, and development of initiative and a sense of control over events).

The study of Lamborn et al. (1991) examined the patterns of competence and adjustment among adolescents from authoritative, authoritarian, indulgent and neglectful families. In this study, the families of approximately 4,000 ages of 14-18 year-olds were classified into one of four groups (authoritative, authoritarian, indulgent, or neglectful) on the basis of adolescents' ratings of their parents on two

dimensions: acceptance/involvement and strictness/supervision. Analysis of adolescents' scores on four sets of outcomes- psychosocial development, school achievement, internalized distress, and problem behavior-indicated numerous differences among adolescents from authoritative, authoritarian, indulgent, and neglectful homes. Specifically, adolescents from authoritative homes scored highest, and adolescents from neglectful homes lowest, on the majority of indices of adjustment. Adolescents in either the authoritarian or the indulgent group showed a mixture of positive and negative traits, with adolescents from authoritarian homes scoring reasonably well on measures of school achievement and deviance but relatively poorly on measures of self-reliance and self-conceptions, and adolescents from indulgent homes scoring relatively poorly with respect to school engagement, drug and alcohol use, and school misconduct but relatively well on measures of social competence and self-confidence. The researchers pointed out that these patterns did not vary as a function of adolescent age, gender, ethnicity, or family background (see also Steinberg et al., 1991)

Steinberg and his colleagues (1992b) found that authoritative parenting has a significant impact on adolescent school performance and engagement during the high school years. That is, high school students who describe their parents as authoritative have better school performance and school engagement than their counterparts from non-authoritative homes. The results of this study indicate that the impact of authoritative parenting on adolescent school success is attributable to the greater likelihood of authoritative parents to be involved in their youngsters' schooling and encouraging their youngsters to succeed in school. The researchers further indicate that authoritative parenting in deed leads to school success (i.e., authoritative parenting leads to, and not simply accompanies (or follows from), higher achievement). This

investigation links the study of authoritative parenting with research on parental school involvement and scholastic encouragement. In general, studies indicate that students whose parents are more involved in their education earn higher grades in school, all other factors equal (e.g., Stevenson & Baker, 1987).

The home-environment, parenting practices, and achievement motivation research areas provide empirical support for a link between parent involvement intervention components and children's motivation to achieve and positive self-concept. Estrada et al. (1987) found that a positive responsive relationship between parent and child was associated with academic persistence and exploration.

According to Grolnick and Slowiaczer (1994), parents can manifest their involvement in their children's schooling in at least three ways: through their behavior with regard to school, through the child's perception of their effective and personal availability, and by exposing the child to cognitive and intellectual activities. Exposure of children to cognitively stimulating materials would, presumably, bring home and school closer together and helps the children practice skills useful for school. Authoritative parents are more likely to be involved in school and more likely to encourage academic excellence (Bogenschneider, 1990, cited in Steinberg et al., 1992b, p.1268). Similarly, Patterson and Yoerger (1991, cited in Steinberg et al., 1992b, p.1268) note that the positive effects attributed to the authoritative style of parenting may be mediated by a number of more concrete and education specific behaviors in which authoritative parents are more likely to engage.

Steinberg and his colleagues (1992a) found that children exposed to authoritative parenting at home evidenced higher

self-esteem and fewer behavior problems when compared with other children. The researchers further noted that this parental pattern of behaviors (i.e., parental warmth and responsiveness) provides children with a supportive environment to internalize both their parents' high expectations of academic goals and their parents' belief that they can reach these goals.

The study conducted by Steinberg and his associates (1994) examined the over time changes in adjustment and competence among adolescents from authoritative, authoritarian, indulgent, and neglectful families. These researchers in their previous report (Lamborn et al., 1991), demonstrated that adolescents' adjustment and competence varies as a function of their families parenting style (e.g., authoritative, authoritarian, indulgent, and neglectful). This one year follow-up study was conducted in order to examine whether the observed differences in adolescents' adjustment and competence are maintained over time. The results of this study indicated that differences in adjustment and competence associated with variations in parenting were either maintained or increased over time. However, whereas the benefits of authoritative parenting were largely in the maintenance of previous levels of high adjustment and competence, the deleterious consequences of neglectful parenting continued to accumulate. The links between authoritative parenting and both psychosocial development and academic achievement appeared to be strongest than that of other types of parenting style (i.e., authoritarian, indulgent, and neglectful). Accordingly, the investigators concluded that the combination of parental aloofness and disciplinary laxity appears universally harmful to adolescents. Conversely, parental authoritativeness—the combination of responsiveness and demandingness—carries many benefits and few disadvantages for adolescents from different walks of life.

In general, the studies dealt above indicate that young children as well as adolescents who are raised in authoritative homes perform better in school than their peers who are raised in other types of family (i.e., authoritarian, indulgent, and neglectful).

## **2.6. THE MEDIATORS AND MODERATORS IN THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PARENTING STYLES AND SCHOLASTIC PERFORMANCE**

Several studies on socialization process indicate that there are some important factors in which parents can differ in their child-rearing practices and note that these differences affect the scholastic performance of their children. From this stand point, one may ask some important questions : (a) Why parents behave the way they do in their child-rearing practices? (b) What factors influence the effectiveness with which parents care for and guide their children. As noted by Maccoby (1980), certain characteristics of the child and certain social and economic influences on parents have an impact on child-rearing practices. These factors are the third variables which mediate and moderate the relationship between parenting styles and the developmental outcomes of children. Thus, it is important to understand the factors within and beyond the family that act up on parents and affect their behavior in child-rearing practices and in turn affect children's scholastic performance.

### **2.6.1. THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ETHNICITY, PARENTING STYLES, AND SCHOLASTIC PERFORMANCE**

No culture is entirely homogeneous in child-rearing practices. The standards, goals, and methods of socialization vary among societies, within subgroups in the same society, and within a society. Behavior regarded as desirable and encouraged in one society would be regarded as undesirable or

even pathological in another. Even within the same culture, there might be dramatic differences in the goals of socialization and the methods used to mold the values and behavior of children (Hetherington & Parke, 1993). The writers also note that subgroups within our culture have both divergent and different problems with which to cope. These may have an impact on the goals and methods of socialization parents choose. Thus, Hetherington and Parke point that social class and ethnicity are related to differences in child-rearing practices.

Several studies indicate that parents from different cultural backgrounds-both within a single country and across nations-vary in their implicit theories of parenting and child development (Goodnow, 1988; Miller, 1988). For example, parents have different beliefs about the ages at which children can be expected to perform certain tasks (Rosenthal & Gold, 1989), the traits or values parents want to develop in their children (Hoffman, 1988; Pomerleau, Malcuit & Sabatier, 1991, cited in Okagaki & Sternberg, 1993, p.37), what parents can do to affect their children's development (Laosa, 1982), and their expectations for their children's schooling (Hess, Chang, & McDevitt, 1987).

The study of Dornbusch et al. (1987) by comparing the mean on each parenting index for each ethnic-sex group to the appropriate mean for Whites found that there were differences among ethnic groups in parenting practices. That is, Asian, Black, and Hispanic families were higher on the authoritarian index for both sexes than were White families. Families of Asian, Hispanics, and Black females were lower on the authoritative index than were White families. For Permissiveness, the ethnic differences were more complex. Compared to Whites, Blacks were lower on permissiveness, Hispanics were higher, and Asians were slightly higher.

Seminal work on the relations among social context, parental beliefs, and child outcomes was conducted by Kohn (1969, cited in Okagaki & Sternberg, 1993, p.36), who posited that: (a) elements in parents' social context influence the goals and values parents have for their children, (b) these values will result in differences in parenting practices, and (c) differences in parenting practices ultimately will result in child outcome. Similarly, Okagaki and Sternberg (1993) indicate that differences in cultural contexts lead to differences in parenting practices and these differences in parenting practices in turn result in differences in children's scholastic performance.

Although psychologists have only recently begun examining ethnic differences in adolescent development (Spencer & Dornbusch, 1990, cited in Steinberg et al., 1992a, p.724), interests among developmentalists in the relation between parenting practices and youngsters' school performance has quite a length history (Maccoby & Martin, 1983).

One of the most consistent and disturbing finding in studies of adolescent achievement concerns ethnic differences in school performance. Despite the widely held assumption that ethnic differences in achievement are accounted for by group differences on other variables, such as socioeconomic status and family structure, research indicates quite clearly that these patterns of ethnic differences in achievement persist even after important third variables are taken into account.

Although there is considerable agreement that these ethnic differences in school performance are genuine, there is little consensus about the causes of these differences, and a variety of explanations for the pattern have been offered. Among the most familiar are that (a) there are inherited differences between ethnic groups in intellectual abilities, which are

reflected in differences in school performance (Lynn, 1977; Rushton, 1985, cited in Steinberg et al., 1992a, p.723 ); (b) that ethnic differences in achievement-related socialization practices in the family lead youngsters from some ethnic groups to develop more positive achievement-related attitudes and behaviors (Mordkowitz & Ginsburg, 1987, cited in Steinberg et al., 1992a, p. 723); (c) that there are ethnic differences in cultural values and especially in the value placed on educational success (Sue & Okazaki, 1990); and (d) that there are ethnic differences in perceived and actual discrimination within educational and occupational institutions (Mickelson, 1990; Ogbu, 1978, cited in Steinberg et al., 1992a, p.723).

Because the genetic hypothesis has received so little support in studies of school achievement (Sue & Okazaki, 1990), researchers are tended to focus instead on the various environmental accounts of the phenomenon. Can ethnic differences in school performance be explained by ethnic differences in the use of authoritative parenting? According to Dornbusch et al.'s earlier work (Dornbusch et al., 1987) and Steinberg and his colleagues' recent works (Stinberg et al., 1992a, 1994, 1992b,1991), the answer is no. For example, although Asian-American students have the highest school performance, their parents are among the least authoritative. Although African-American and Hispanic parents are considerably more authoritative than Asian-american parents, their children perform far worse in school on average. Given the strong support for the power of authoritative parenting in the socialization literature, these findings present some what of a paradox.

Dornbusch et al. (1987) provide an explicit example of this paradox. They asked high school students to rate their own parents according to the three parental control styles originally derived by Baumrind - "authoritative,"

"authoritarian," and "permissive". The Asian student sample rated their parents higher on the authoritarian style and lower on the more "optimal" authoritative style, the opposite of the European-American student sample. Therefore, across the sample as a whole, Asians were the highest on authoritarian parenting style, but they had the highest grade point averages. Thus, the researchers concluded that "Asian children in our public schools can not be adequately explained in terms of the parenting styles we have studied."

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In a large follow-up study to Dornbusch et al. (1987), Steinberg et al (1992a), by examining three widely held explanations for the superior school performance of Asian-American adolescents, and the inferior performance of African- and Hispanic-American adolescents: group differences in (a) parenting practices, (b) familial values about education, and (c) youngsters' beliefs about the occupational rewards of academic success, and proposed as a solution to this paradox, that the parental influences are not appropriate predictors of school success for Asian youngsters. Their study indicates that White youngsters benefit from the combination of authoritative parenting and peer support for achievement, whereas Hispanic youngsters suffer from a combination of parental authoritarianism and low peer support. Among Asian-American students, peer support for academic excellence offsets the negative consequences of authoritarian parenting. Among African-American youngsters, the absence of peer support for achievement undermines the positive influence of authoritative parenting. More specifically, the researchers note that parental influences are effective in predicting school success among White and Hispanic youngsters, whereas peer influences are more effective for Asian youngsters. However, to conclude that Asian parental influences are not as important for predicting school success may be hasty.

Some other studies found that several of the effects of parenting style appeared to be moderated by the adolescent's ethnicity (Steinberg et al., 1994). These investigators found that the links between authoritative parenting and both psychosocial and academic competence appeared to be strongest among European-American youth and the putative deleterious consequences of parental authoritarianism were evidently not as severe among minority youngsters as among their European-American counterparts. One explanation, Steinberg and his co-workers (1994), give for these findings is that "in light of the fact that authoritativeness is a characteristically Western and middle-class approach to child-rearing, the fact that it may have greater advantages in these groups is not surprising, since the style may be more consonant with other elements of family life." Some other researchers have speculated that parental authoritarianism may be more beneficial than authoritativeness for poor minority youth-minority youngsters especially those from economically disadvantaged backgrounds may benefit from a relatively more authoritarian style of parenting (Baumrind, 1972; Dornbusch et al., 1987).

Steinberg and his associates (1994) also hypothesized that (a) authoritarianism may be more beneficial among families whose living circumstances warrant stricter, more vigilant control, and (b) the meaning of authoritarianism-or any parenting style, for that matter- is moderated by the cultural context in which it occurs and, consequently, interpreted differentially by children from different ethnic or socioeconomic groups. Accordingly, what may be experienced by the adolescent as parental intrusiveness in some cultural groups may be experienced as parental concern in others (see Darling & Steinberg, 1993). Similarly, Chao (1994) notes that the concepts of authoritative and authoritarian parenting styles are some what ethnocentric and do not capture the important features of child-rearing practices of different

cultural contexts especially for explaining their children's school performance due to their different cultural systems.

On the whole, several studies point that children from different socio-cultural niches whose parents are authoritative-that is, both firm disciplinarians (demanding) and warm, receptive care givers (responsive) tend to be well adjusted and competent in school performance, however (Dornbusch et al., 1987; Lamborn et al., 1991; Steinberg et al., 1992a, 1989, 1994, 1992b, 1991).

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#### 2.6.2. THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SOCIOECONOMIC STATUS, PARENTING STYLES, AND SCHOLASTIC PERFORMANCE

Among the most powerful and least understood influences on child-rearing practices and scholastic performance of children are the parents' education, income, and occupation. As noted by Maccoby (1980), these three factors are usually related, and since their effects are hard to separate, most studies have used a combined index of socioeconomic status. Thus, a high-SES parent is well educated, has relatively high income, and a high-status occupation (professional, managerial, business-owner); a low-SES parent is poorly educated, has a low income, and has unskilled or semiskilled job.

Parental behaviors and attitudes in terms of patterns of discipline and child-rearing practices tend to vary mainly according to social class (SES) of the family and these variations in patterns of discipline and child-rearing practices in turn tend to affect the scholastic performance of children. Studies indicate that an SES index does describe meaningful differences in parents' child-rearing practices. For example, some studies which made comparisons between high and low SES families have revealed some consistent differences (Hess, 1970, cited in Maccoby, 1980, p.400):

- (1) Lower-SES parents tend to stress obedience, respect, neatness, cleanliness, and staying out of trouble. Higher-SES parents are more likely to stress happiness, creativity, ambition, independence, curiosity, and self-control.
- (2) Lower-SES parents are more controlling, power-assertive, authoritarian, and arbitrary in their discipline, and they are more likely to use physical punishment. Higher-SES parents are more democratic and tend to be either permissive or authoritative. They are more likely to use induction (i.e., point out the effects of a child's actions on others, or ask the child how he or she would feel in the other's place) and to be aware of and responsive to their children's perspectives.
- (3) Higher-SES parents talk to their children more, reason with them more, and use more complex language.
- (4) Higher-SES parents tend to show more warmth and affection toward their children.

Similarly, Ogbu (1988, cited in Owens, 1993, p.400) points out that the parents' position in the social structure has an important impact on how they discipline their children. Trickett et al. (1991) pointed out that greater use of authoritarian punishment, lower parental involvement and nurturance and lower emphasis on independence are related to families with lower socioeconomic status.

The study of Luster and McAdoo (1994) on factors related to the achievement and adjustment of young African-American children found that children's chance of being successful was related to the extent to which they experience advantage circumstances (adequate income and psychologically healthy and well educated parents).

Some other studies have documented that differences in parents' occupational status contribute to differential academic achievement (Chopra, 1967; Miner, 1968). The study of Chopra on parental occupation and academic achievement of high school students in India found that the academic achievement of the students from the professional families was significantly higher than that of their counter parts from all other occupational families. Ginsberg and Bronstein (1993) reported that socioeconomic level of the parents was a significant predictor of motivational orientation and academic performance of children.

Compared to other social characteristics of families, such as income and occupation, the educational level of parents is a salient family determinant of a child's school achievement (Stevenson & Baker, 1987). Similarly, Taylor et al. (1993) note that the educational level of parents influences children's school performance more than the other variables (i.e., income and occupation). Parental education is probably the most stable component of the family's social class (see Steinberg et al., 1991). Hence, it seems important to give emphasis to the educational level of parents among the socioeconomic status factors in parenting style studies.

Dornbusch and his co-workers (1987) found statistically significant relationship between parental education and parenting styles. The researchers reported that within each sex, families with higher parental education tended to be some what lower in authoritarian and permissive parenting styles and higher in authoritative parenting style. This finding is consistent to previous works of many other researchers (e.g., Laosa, 1982; Maccoby & Martin, 1983; Valencia et al., 1981).

Laosa (1982) noted that parental education exerts a powerful, pervasive, and enduring influence on the family,

perhaps more so than any other experience. Laosa proffered a twofold general hypothesis: (a) among the enduring effects of education on the individual are certain behavioral dispositions that determine how he or she will behave as a parent and (b) in turn, parental behavior will have important consequences for a child's development of specific cognitive skills, learning strategies, and personality characteristics. Laosa indicated that there is a strong connection between the amount of education that individuals received and how they as parents interact with their children and thus, parental education mediates the relationship between parenting styles and children's scholastic performance. Laosa had the following to say regarding the impact of parental education on children's scholastic performance:

Children from more highly educated families excelling in school, might the reason for this be that the teaching, learning, and assessment processes in school are like those they have learned to master at home; whereas, conversely, children from lower educated families failing in school, might the reason for this be that the form and content of the teaching, learning, and assessment processes in school are different from those they have learned to master at home.

Parental educational level is important to children's scholastic performance because it is linked to parental interest in and attitudes toward education. Parents who are well educated generally give high value to education and expect their children to become well educated too. They usually show interests in their children's progress and in meeting and collaborating with teachers in issues concerning their children's schooling.

Maccoby and Martin (1983) in their review noted that parental education is negatively predictive of authoritarian

and permissive parenting styles and positively predictive of authoritative parenting style, and positively associated with children's scholastic performance. Similarly, Valencia et al. (1981) revealed that parental education has a direct influence on the school performance of the children being socialized in that context.

DeBaryshe et al. (1993) found that parental education was directly related to parenting practices and children's scholastic performance. They indicated that parental education has mediating effect in the relationship between family parenting styles and children's scholastic performance.

Although ample evidence exists from industrial societies which would lead one to believe that children of lower socioeconomic status background might perform less well on tests of academic achievement, evidence from less industrialized societies appears more equivocal.

In a review of the literature, Alexander and Simmons (1974, cited in Heyneman, 1976, p.43), go so far as to suggest that the influence of socioeconomic status on academic achievement may be smaller in the lesser developed societies. Although Silvey (1963, cited in Heyneman, 1976, p.43), in a small Uganda study, reports a "marked tendency for sons of high socioeconomic parents to perform well on a test of mental alertness," he later asserts that parental education was not related to scholastic achievement performance in "any meaningful way." To test this paradox further, Heyneman (1976) conducted a study on the relationship between socioeconomic status and test performance among Uganda primary school children and found that there was no relationship between any measures of a child's socioeconomic background and his or her total academic achievement score on the National Primary School Leaving Examination. Thus, Heyneman suggested

that a child comes from a "privileged" background in which his/her parents have received more formal education, or in which his/her parents have a better paying, more secure income, or in which his/her parents' home contains a greater number of modern possessions, does not necessarily mean that a child will score better on a test of academic achievement.

Although the evidence from Africa is the most deviant from what one would expect given the findings from industrialized societies, there is a general agreement among researchers in that socioeconomic status of parents' have a powerful and pervasive influence on children's scholastic performance.

In sum, the aforementioned studies provide evidence that socioeconomic status of parents', in general and parental education, in particular have enduring influence on family parenting styles and in turn significantly affect children's scholastic performance, perhaps more so than any other factors.

### 2.6.3. THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN FAMILY STRUCTURE, PARENTING STYLES, AND SCHOLASTIC PERFORMANCE

Several studies indicate that there are significant differences in parenting styles dominantly practiced in intact and nonintact families (Clingempeel & Segal, 1986; Dornbusch et al., 1987; Hetherington, 1989; vuchinich et al., 1991; Zimiles & Lee, 1991).

Dornbusch and his colleagues (1987) found that single mothers showed a higher level of permissive parenting than did two natural parents. For their sons only, single mothers showed lower level of authoritarian parenting style when compared to house holds containing both natural parents. Single fathers were also more permissive for both sexes, while they were less authoritarian for females and less

authoritative for males than families with two natural parents. Step-families compared to families with two natural parents, tended to be more authoritarian and more permissive, and for males only, less authoritative.

Some of the developmental outcomes differences in children may be attributable to the parenting they receive. Problems with parenting in step-families are well documented and include ineffective discipline and poorly defined family roles (Bray, 1988; Furstenberg, 1987, cited in Vuchinich et al., 1991, p.619). Similarly, many studies reveal that the reconstituted family (stepparent) serves as a healing environment, one in which children are some how rescued from the adversity of family dissolution (Chapman, 1977; Oshman & Manosevitz, 1976; Santrock, 1972). However, other studies (Clingempeel & Segal, 1986) point out that the distinctive patterns of stress experienced by children in step-families. From this stand point, Zimiles and Lee (1991) speculated that adjustment to step-family life will be particularly stressful during adolescence, when youngsters are struggling to achieve greater autonomy and may resist the imposition of authority whose legitimacy may be questioned.

Many earlier comparative studies of the effects of variation in family structure have shown a gradient effect, with children from intact families scoring highest in academic achievement and those from nonintact families (i.e., single parent and stepparent families) scoring lowest (Chapman, 1977; Oshman & Manosevitz, 1976; Santrock, 1972).

In their extensive review, Emery, Hetherington, and Dilalla (1984, cited in Marsh, 1990, p.328) reported that children in single-parent families performed more poorly on a variety of academic achievement indicators like school grades. The researchers also found that boys from single parent

families generally showed greater academic deficits than did girls. Similarly, Kurdek and Sinclair (1988) indicated that children living with only one parent perform more poorly on measures of intelligence and school achievement. The researchers explained the disadvantage of living in a single parent family by associating it with the decline in both financial resources and with unsatisfactory quality of child supervision and acceptance.

In their classic review, Herzon and Sudia (1973, cited in Marsh, 1990. p.327), examined the effects of father absence on juvenile delinquency, academic achievement, and adjustment. The researchers revealed that "it seems unlikely that father's absence in itself would show significant relationship to poorer school achievement if relevant variables (including type of father less and socioeconomic status) were adequately controlled."

Svanum et al. (1982) examined the effect of father absence on cognitive performance for a large representative sample of 6 to 11 year old children and found that father absence was weakly associated with lower cognitive performance. After correcting for SES, however, there were no decrements and in some instances small but statistically significant increments associated with father less families. Some other studies also reported that differences in family structure had little discernible effect during the last two years of high school (e.g., Marsh, 1990). According to Marsh, the disruption of a stable family structure may be responsible for lower academic achievement rather than the family structure.

The study of Zimiles and Lee (1991) on adolescent family structure and educational progress by comparing high school sophomores from intact, single-parent, and remarried (step parent) families with respect to academic achievement, high

school grades, and educational persistence found that differences among the three groups with regard to achievement test scores and high school grades were slight, though statistically significant.

In sum, the studies treated above provide evidence to suggest that family structure effects on the relationship between parenting styles and children's scholastic performance are small and much less pervasive than frequently assumed.

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2.6.4. THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SEX OF THE CHILDREN, PARENTING STYLES, AND SCHOLASTIC PERFORMANCE

Several studies indicate that there are sex differences in parenting practices and these differences result in differences in scholastic performances of the children. For instance, Dornbusch et al. (1987) found small sex differences in the parenting styles reported by the students. That is, females, compared to males, reported a slightly lower level of authoritarian parenting, a difference that was statistically significant. The researchers also noted that there was no gender differences in the reports of permissive parenting style.

There is more consistent evidence that parents in Western countries are more controlling and punitive toward sons than daughters (Berndt et al., 1993; Block, 1983 ). However, some studies have suggested that levels of parental control depend jointly on the sex of the child and the sex of parent. For instance, Block (1983) reported that fathers describe them selves as more strict toward their sons than mothers do, and mothers describe them selves as more restrictive toward their daughters than fathers do (Lytton & Romney, 1991).

The study conducted by Nuttall and Nuttall (1976) reported that for both sexes, parents who were perceived as being more acceptant and as using less hostile psychological control tended to have children with higher achievement traits in general and for the traits of obedient and low abiding, works hard and effectively in school performance, and ambitious. Further more, the researchers noted that there were no statistically significant differences in the correlations observed between same-sex and opposite-sex parent-child relationships and the achievement traits.

Over all, the studies examined above note that parents' child-rearing practices vary depending up on sex of the children and this variation in parenting styles in turn influences the scholastic performance of children.

#### **2.7. AN OVERVIEW OF STUDIES ABOUT CHILD-REARING PRACTICES IN ETHIOPIAN CONTEXT**

Although many Western researchers have given great attention in studying the impact of parenting practices on children's psychosocial development and scholastic performance, research literature on child-rearing practices in Ethiopia is rare. However, there are a few general preliminary studies which provide some insights about the issue. Among these, the studies of Birhanu (1996); Cox (1967); Habtamu (1979); Haile (1971); Levin (1965); Markos (1996); and Ringness and Gander (1974) are the main ones.

The study conducted by Cox (1967) by collecting questionnaire data from 137 Addis Ababa University students of different ethnic composition found that sixty-five percent of the respondents believed that their parents had been too strict and had not allowed them enough freedom. The respondents also reported that they have to accept rules that were established

by parents with out argument and that they experienced excessive control in the home. The researcher concluded that Ethiopian parenting style was authoritarian. Similarly, Haile (1970) found that children in Ethiopia were culturally restricted not to exercise self assertion, self-esteem, and self-reliance. Haile indicated that parents defined their position by invoking their religious belief that a child should be obedient and should comply with the wishes of elders. Haile had the following to say:

Our society deprives the individual of the decision making in a number of very intimate questions where the decisions arrived at are of enormous consequence to individual to whom the decisions are made...society assumes that young men and women do not know what is good for them, but what the senior members of the society choose for them is necessarily good. The judgement of young is totally discounted, while the elders are credited with omniscience.

Haile's study also implies that the parenting style dominantly practiced in Ethiopia was authoritarian.

Levine (1965) revealed that Amhara children were expected to be obedient, inconspicuous, respectful and they were expected to readily accept their parents' command. Parental authority and demands for obedience are heightened and greatly multiplied during adolescence eventhough this is a period for learning skills and norms related to adult self-sufficiency. Levine further reported that the Amhara senior school students of the time had the following to say about the value of obedience:

It is ones duty; things would not go right otherwise; the Bible says so; obedience is a virtue.

From this stand point, Levine concluded that child-rearing practice in Amhara culture was authoritarian. Similarly, some other studies also found that the type of parenting style dominantly practiced in Ethiopia was authoritarian (Habtamu, 1979; Ringness & Gander, 1974).

Although the findings of the studies presented above are consistent and note that the type of parenting style dominantly practiced in Ethiopia in the past-two decades was authoritarian, it is too difficult to arrive at firm conclusions about which type of parenting style is dominantly practiced in the country based on the findings of these studies for some reasons. First, the studies tend to make hasty generalizations with out examining the issue comprehensively and with out considering their methodological limitations; second, since child-rearing practices differ from one culture to another and from one community to another (See Ringness & Gander, 1974) and hence Ethiopia is made up of many people from different tribes often speaking different languages and having different cultures and different religions and there is clear variations in customs and traditional practices, the studies convey little or no specific information about the type of parenting style dominantly practiced in different cultural (ethnic) groups in Ethiopia; and third, it is likely that the rapid socio-cultural and political changes which have been induced in the country in the drive for modernization have resulted in some cultural changes. These are the very reasons why some other recent studies reported that the type of parenting style dominantly practiced in some cultural (ethnic) groups of the country was authoritative (Birhanu, 1996; Markos, 1996).

The study conducted by Birhanu (1996) on the relationship of parenting styles with academic achievement among senior secondary school students in Keffecheo Zone found that

authoritative parenting style was positively related to academic achievement; while authoritarian parenting style was negatively so; significant relation was not observed between either of indulgent or neglectful parenting style and academic achievement. He reported that parenting styles contributed 29.32% of the variance in academic achievement. Birhanu also noted that the contribution of parenting styles to differences in academic achievement was evident even after socioeconomic status (SES) contribution to academic achievement was controlled. Furthermore, Birhanu pointed out that authoritative fathers and authoritarian mothers were observed to be significant contributors to academic achievement. In Birhanu's study, from 260 intact families, 59% of mothers and 54% of fathers, 37% of mothers and 42% of fathers, 4% of mothers and 3% of fathers, and 0.38% of mothers and 1% of fathers were rated by their children as authoritative, authoritarian, indulgent, and neglectful parents, respectively.

Similarly, Markos (1996) in his study on the relationship between parenting style and school performance among high school students in Makalle found that parenting style had a significant contribution to the school performance of the students, explaining for 7.84% of the variance in academic achievement. Markos reported that high school students who characterized their parents as authoritative achieved higher in school than their counterparts who described their parents as authoritarian, indulgent, and neglectful. There was no noticeable difference in achievement between the students who described their parents as authoritarian, indulgent, and neglectful in the analysis that did not control for the effects of sex and ability of the students, but after controlling for the effects of sex and ability of the students, the academic achievement of students from authoritarian and indulgent families was considerably higher than that of the students from neglectful families. More over, he noted that the relationship

between parenting style and school performance was statistically significant when the effects of sex and ability were statistically controlled. In his study, from 454 subjects, 148 (32.24%), 96 (21.15%), 104 (22.91%), and 106 (23.35%) rated their parents as authoritative, authoritarian, indulgent, and neglectful, respectively.

The findings of both studies (Birhanu, 1996; Markos, 1996) are consistent with the findings of previous studies in Western countries linking authoritative parenting style to adolescents' scholastic performance (e.g., Dornbusch et al., 1987; Lamborn et al., 1991; Steinberg et al., 1992a 1989,1994,1992b 1991). But none of these studies have dealt with the type of parenting style dominantly practiced in different cultural or ethnic groups in Ethiopia and examined the impact of parenting practices on scholastic performance of high school students across cultural or ethnic groups. Because of this very reason it is too difficult to generalize that authoritative parenting style is the type of parenting style which is dominantly practiced in different cultural contexts of the country and as well as to conclude that the impact of parenting practices on scholastic performance of students from different cultural or ethnic groups in Ethiopia is similar.

## CHAPTER THREE

### 3. DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY OF THE STUDY

This section presents the subjects, instruments, procedure used and the variables considered in the study and the methods used for data analysis.

#### 3.1. SUBJECTS

The sample for the study is composed of three hundred fifty 11<sup>th</sup> grade students from the two government high schools - Soddo Comprehensive Secondary School in Southern Ethiopia Nations, Nationalities and people's Region (i.e., to represent students in Walayta culture) and Tana Haik Comprehensive Secondary School in Amhara Region (i.e., to represent students in Amhara culture). The selection of the sample was made as follows: In the first step, the selection was purposive (i.e., the students whose ethnicity is Wolayta and Amhara were purposely selected from the respective schools). Following this purposive sampling procedure in the second step, the sample consisting of three hundred fifty students (equal number of students from each school) were randomly selected. The average age of the subjects was 18.

Out of the three hundred fifty subjects, some subjects were absent during the day of questionnaire administration and some others failed to complete the questionnaire appropriately. These subjects, totally 15 (4.3%) were discarded from the analysis. Therefore, the analysis was based on the data provided by 335 (95.7%) students. Table 2 displays the characteristics of the study sample.

**TABLE 2: Demographic Characteristics of the Study Sample by Ethnicity, Parental Education, Family Structure, and Sex**

Ethnicity	Parental Education								Family Structure				Sex					
	Illiterate		Primary school		High school graduate		TTI(similar one year training) graduate and above'		Intact		Non-intact		Male		Female		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Wolayta	29	17.2	62	36.7	31	18.3	47	27.8	119	70.4	50	29.6	92	54.4	77	45.6	169	50.4
Amhara	28	16.9	54	32.5	35	21.1	49	29.5	93	56.0	73	44.0	83	50.0	83	50.0	166	49.6
Total	57	17.0	116	34.6	66	19.7	96	28.7	212	63.3	123	36.7	175	52.2	160	47.8	335	100.0

### 3.2. INSTRUMENTS

The measuring instruments include the first semester Grade-Point - Averages (GPA) of the academic year 1996/97 and students' self-report questionnaire.

#### 3.2.1. GRADE-POINT-AVERAGES (GPA)

Some researchers who have consulted with educators about the use of grades as a measure of scholastic performance found that their consensus was that grades, unlike scores on intelligence tests and measures based on standardized achievement tests provide the most appropriate measure of current school performance (e.g., Dornbusch et al., 1987). These researchers pointed out that grades have their difficulties as a measure of scholastic performance, for they often represent relatively arbitrary assessments by a teacher, but the typical grade, usual grade, or mean grade is the summation of many judgments about the extent to which a student is responding to the school curriculum. Because of this very reason, in the present study the scholastic performance measure was the first semester of 1996/97 academic year Grade-Point-Averages (GPA) of students which were collected from official school records.

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\*Teachers' training institute (or similar one year training) graduate and above.

### 3.2.2. QUESTIONNAIRE

There is also some controversy about the best way to measure parenting style: observation of parent-child interactions, parents' self-report, or children's self-report. Each approach has strengths and limitations, observations lack ecological validity, and both parents and children seem to distort reality some what in their reports of parenting behaviour.

As noted by some researchers, measures of paren-child relationships obtained from parents' self-reports are biased by many factors, among them their desire to portray themselves in the most favorable light (see Nuttall & Nuttall, 1976). As well, parental self-reports tend to exaggerate parental acceptance and firm discipline and have been criticized as unreliable (Schwartz, Barton-Henry, & Pruzinsky, 1985). Children, on the other hand, are more candid and able to act as knowlegeable informants about parental behaviours (Moskowitz & Schwartz, 1982). More over, some other researchers have argued that children's perceptions of their parents' behavior are as important influences on their development as are parents' actual behavior (see for review Schaefer, 1965).

The use of children's self-reports about their parents was justified on several grounds along with the aforementioned reasons. Given the size of the sample, it was necessary to rely on questionnaire data, and the difficulties in obtaining data from disengaged parents in particular have already been mentioned.

The major source of data for this study, therefore, was students' self-report questionnaire. The questionnaire contained two sets of items. The first set consisted of 14 questions regarding student background characteristics. The second part of the questionnaire consisted of 25 items

concerning parenting. Items on parenting practices were taken or adapted from existing measures (Dornbusch et al., 1987; Lamborn et al., 1991; Steinberg et al., 1992b). The items in the adopted scale were rated by two senior graduate students in the Department of Educational psychology at Addis Ababa University regarding their appropriateness to the children and parents in Ethiopia context. The inter-judge reliability index (pearson r) was .95.

The items on parenting practices required students to rate their parents interms of the two dimensions of parenting practices, namely, "acceptance/involvement," and "strictness/supervision." The acceptance/involvement subscale consists of 13 items on parental acceptance and closeness to children. It measures the extent to which the child perceives his or her parents as loving, responsive, and involved (sample items: "I count on my parents to help me out if I have some kind of problem"; "When my parents want me to do something, they explain why." For this sub-scale, the items are likert-scaled on a four-point scale, from "Strongly agree" to "Strongly disagree." The strictness/supervision subscale consists of 12 items assessing parental monitoring and supervision of the children (sample items: "How much your parent try to know where you go at night?"; "How much your parents know exactly where you are most after noons after school?" For this sub-scale, several of the items are likert-scaled on a three-point scale, from "know a lot" to "Don't know" or "Not allowed out."

It was belived that the respondents have considerable difficulty in the English language. So, the questionnaire was translated into Amharic language by the researcher with the help of two senior graduate students in the Departments of Amharic and English at Addis Ababa University. One of them translated the items from English version into Amharic while the other translated from Amharic back into English.

Very minor differences that appeared in the forward and backward translations were corrected out by the translators jointly.

### 3.2.3. TRY-OUT OF THE INSTRUMENT

For the try-out of the instrument, a sample consisting of 60 students (half males and half females) were randomly selected from 11th grade students in one of the target schools (Soddo Comprehensive Secondary School).

The questionnaire was administered to the students in December 1996. The responses of the respondents were scored and the reliabilities of the two sub-scales of parenting dimensions "acceptance/involvement," and "strictness/supervision" were computed. Previous studies in Ethiopia have reported reliabilities of alpha ( $\alpha$ ) .83 and .81 for the "acceptance/involvement" sub-scale and for the "strictness/supervision" sub-scale, respectively (Markos, 1996). Some other studies conducted in Western countries have reported reliabilities of alpha ( $\alpha$ ) .72 for the "acceptance/involvement" sub-scale and .76 for the "strictness/supervision" sub-scale (Lamborn et al., 1991; Steinberg et al., 1994, 1992b). In this study, reliabilities of alpha ( $\alpha$ ) .87 and .90 were obtained for the "acceptance/ involvement" sub-scale and for the "strictness/supervision" sub-scale, respectively. The highest reliabilities of the two sub-scales of the parenting style measures and the face validity of the questions in two parental dimensions enabled the researcher to finalize the 25 items concerning parenting as they were for the main study.

### 3.3. PROCEDURE OF DATA COLLECTION FOR THE MAIN STUDY

The subjects were explained the purpose of the study and instructed to complete the questionnaire. The questionnaire contained numerous items including student back ground characteristics, perceptions of parental attitudes and behaviors, and family communication patterns. From this questionnaire, perceptions of family processes on two parental dimensions were used to construct the family types.

The responses of the subjects to items in two parental dimensions were scored by using the following procedure: Responses to the items in the "acceptance/involvement" sub-scale- "Strongly agree," "Agree," "Disagree," and "Strongly disagree" - were scored 4,3,2, and 1, respectively. Responses concerning the items in the "strictness/supervision" sub-scale range from 3= "know alot" to 1= "Don't know" or "Not allowed out." At last composed scores were calculated on each of the two parenting dimensions to construct the two parenting indices - "acceptance/involvement" and "strictness/supervision" indices. Scores on these two parenting indices were used to assign families to one of four parenting groups.

Data on students' scholastic performance were collected from official school records with the help of the record officers of the two schools.

### 3.4. VARIABLES

#### 3.4.1. INDEPENDENT VARIABLES

The independent variables considered in this study were parenting style, ethnicity, parental education, family structure, and sex of the student.

### 3.4.1.1. PARENTING STYLE

The independent variable of main focus was parenting style. It included four categories - authoritative, authoritarian, indulgent, and neglectful groups.

By using the sample median of the two parenting indices ("acceptance/involvement" and "strictness/supervision" indices), examining the two parenting dimensions simultaneously, and based on previous works and the theoretical model set forth by Maccoby and Martin (1983), the four parenting categories were defined as follows:

- (1) Families whose students scored above or equal to the sample median on both "acceptance/involvement" and "strictness/supervision" indices- authoritative. Authoritative parents were assigned a parenting style score of "3".
- (2) Families whose students scored below the sample median on "acceptance/involvement" index but above or equal to the sample median on "strictness/supervision" index- authoritarian. These parents were assigned a parenting style score of "2".
- (3) Families whose students scored above or equal to the sample median on "acceptance/involvement" index but below the sample median on "strictness/supervision" index-indulgent. A parenting style score of "1" was assigned to this group of parents.
- (4) Families whose students scored below the sample median on both "acceptance/involvement" and "strictness/supervision" indices- neglectful. A parenting style score of "0" was assigned to this group of parents.

The median split procedure used in this study to assign families to one of four parenting groups has been employed by some researchers (e.g., Markos, 1996; Steinberg et al., 1992b). Steinberg et al. noted that there was no considerable difference between the results obtained by using the median split and tertile split procedures. Markos also suggested that the median split procedure is preferred to tertile split procedure because it allows for an analysis that involves the whole sample of the study.

#### 3.4.1.2. ETHNICITY

The second independent variable of prime interest of this study was ethnicity. Ethnicity was categorical variable and dummy coded (1=Wolayta and 0=Amhara).

#### 3.4.1.3. PARENTAL EDUCATION

In this study, parental education was used as a measure of parental status or social class. Several previous studies have used parental education as a measure of socio-economic status of parents (e.g., Dornbusch et al., 1987; Lamborn et al., 1991; Steinberg et al., 1991).

The highest educational level attained by the parents in the family was used as a measure of parental education. The highest educational level attained by the parents in the family was determined and coded as follows:

- 0 = Illiterate (Non-educated)
- 1 = Primary school
- 2 = High school graduate (12 complete)
- 3 = Teachers' training institute (similar one year training) graduate and above

#### 3.4.1.4. FAMILY STRUCTURE

The measure of family structure came from student reports of who is present in the household with him or her. Students who live with both natural parents (intact families) were assigned a score of "1" and those who live in non-intact families were assigned a score of "0"

#### 3.4.1.5. SEX OF THE STUDENT

Sex of the student was dummy coded (1=male and 0=female).

#### 3.4.2. DEPENDENT VARIABLE - SCHOLASTIC PERFORMANCE

The dependent variable of this study was the scholastic performance of the students. It was measured by the Grade-point-Averages (GPA) or the average scores of all the subjects offered in 11th grade in Comprehensive Secondary Schools. That is, the average scores on the teacher made class room tests and examinations during the first semester of 1996/97 academic year. For the analysis the scholastic performance scores were transformed into T-scores.

#### 3.5. METHODS OF DATA ANALYSIS

The analysis in the first stage, involved correlation and multiple regression. The independent variables were parenting style, ethnicity, parental education, family structure, and sex of the student and the dependent variable was the scholastic performance. In addition, step wise multiple regression was conducted in order to select the predictor variables that best explain the variation in criterion variable (scholastic performance).

Following the regression analyses, a two-way ANOVA was also employed in order to compare the mean scores of scholastic performance of students in terms of the parenting style (four categories) and sex of the student (two categories).

To examine the interaction effect of parenting style and sex of the student pair-wise comparisons (Tukey/Kramer's (TK) test) were carried out.

Before proceeding with the aforementioned analyses, assumptions associated with the use of each of the analysis were checked by using the appropriate testing procedures. Since these preliminary tests indicated that none of the assumptions have been violated, thus permitted the use of the above analyses.

Alpha value of .05 was used for all significance tests carried out in this study. This alpha value was decided before analyses of data.

## CHAPTER FOUR

### 4. RESULTS

This section is mainly concerned with analysis and results of the study under question.

#### 4.1. PARENTING STYLES

Table 3 provides information on the sizes of each of the four parenting style groups as well as each group's mean scores and standard deviations on the "acceptance/involvement" and "strictness/supervision" scales.

**TABLE 3: Sample Sizes and Means and Standard Deviations on Parental Acceptance/Involvement and Strictness/Supervision for the Four Groups of Students by Ethnicity**

			Authoritative			Authoritarian			Indulgent			Neglectful			Total		
			Welayta	Amhara	Total	Welayta	Amhara	Total	Welayta	Amhara	Total	Welayta	Amhara	Total	Welayta	Amhara	Total
Frequency			73	78	151	33	32	65	30	16	46	33	40	73	169	166	335
Percent			43.2	47.0	45.1	19.5	19.3	19.4	17.8	9.6	13.7	19.5	24.1	21.8	50.4	49.6	100.0
Parental Dimension	Acceptance/ Involvement	Mean	47.99	47.47	47.73	38.23	39.06	38.64	47.24	45.84	46.77	36.30	35.23	33.71	43.93	42.74	43.34
		SD	2.63	2.84	2.74	7.99	3.35	6.13	2.71	1.66	2.48	7.08	5.74	6.36	6.43	6.46	6.46
	Strictness/ Supervision	Mean	34.89	33.86	34.36	34.02	34.11	34.06	28.48	28.06	28.34	26.12	25.73	25.90	31.85	31.39	31.62
		SD	1.37	1.62	1.59	1.18	1.68	1.44	3.03	3.76	3.26	4.23	4.99	4.64	4.41	4.70	4.56

**NOTE:** Score on the "acceptance/involvement" and "strictness/supervision" scales could range from 1 to 4 and from 1 to 3, respectively. The maximum possible scores for "acceptance/involvement" and "strictness/supervision" scales are 52 and 36, respectively. A full listing of the items appears in the Appendix.

As can be seen from Table 3, out of 335 subjects involved in the study, 73 (43.2 %) of Wolayta and 78 (47.0 %) of Amhara [i.e., 151 (45.1 %)], 33 (19.5 %) of Wolayta and 32 (19.3 %) of Amhara [i.e., 65 (19.4 %)], 30 (17.8 %) of Wolayta and 16 (9.6 %) of Amhara [i.e., 46 (13.7 %)], and 33 (19.5 %) of Wolayta and 40 (24.1 %) of Amhara [i.e., 73 (21.8 %)] parents were rated by their children as authoritative, authoritarian, indulgent, and neglectful, respectively.

One important question raised in the study was to investigate the type of parenting style dominantly practiced among Ethiopian families (i.e., Wolayta and Amhara cultures). Accordingly, the results in Table 3 indicate that authoritative parenting style is the type of parenting style dominantly practiced in both Wolayta and Amhara ethnicities (cultures). Moreover, it was observed that out of the entire sample of the study (N=335), 151 (45.1 %) and 73 (21.8 %) of the subjects perceived their parents as authoritative and neglectful, respectively. These results suggest that authoritative parenting style is the type of child-rearing dominantly practiced in Ethiopian families and neglectful parenting style is the second dominant type.

#### 4.2. RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PREDICTOR VARIABLES AND OUT COME VARIABLE

As pointed out earlier, the prime interest of this study was to examine the impact of parenting practices on scholastic performance of high school students. To this end, the relationship between parenting style and demographic variables-ethnicity, parental education, family structure, and sex of the children-and the relationship between parenting style, ethnicity, parental education, family structure, and sex of the student and scholastic performance were first explored.

Table 4 presents intercorrelations between predictor variables and out come variable.

**TABLE 4: Intercorrelations Between Predictor Variables and Out Come Variable**

Code No.	Variables	Intercorrelations					
		1	2	3	4	5	6
Predictor Variable							
1	Parenting Style	-	.0136	.1290 <sup>c</sup>	.0708	-.1366 <sup>c</sup>	.3170 <sup>a</sup>
2	Ethnicity		-	.0287	-.1328 <sup>c</sup>	-.0560	-.0035
3	Parental Education			-	.1819 <sup>b</sup>	-.0641	.0632
4	Family Structure				-	.0136	.0903
5	Sex of the Student					-	.3645 <sup>a</sup>
	Outcome Variable						
6	Scholastic Performance						-

**NOTE:** <sup>a</sup>p < .000

<sup>b</sup>p < .001

<sup>c</sup>p < .05

As could be observed from Table 4 the findings are clearest with regard to the relation between parenting style and the demographic variables (ethnicity, parental education, family structure, and sex of the children). That is, parental education has small positive relation with parenting style. Sex of the children has also small negative relation with parenting style. The results also indicate that there is no significant relation between parenting style and ethnicity as

well as between parenting style and family structure. With regard to scholastic performance, the findings of correlational analysis reveal that parenting style and sex of the student are significantly related with scholastic performance, where as ethnicity, parental education, and family structure do not have significant relation with scholastic performance. The direction of the relation of parenting style and sex of the student to scholastic performance is positive.

Following the correlational analysis, the next issue was to assess the relative importance of parenting style in explaining the variation in scholastic performance of high school students in comparison with other predictor variables- ethnicity, parental education, family structure, and sex of the student. Accordingly, attempts were made to determine the strength of the relationship between the outcome variable (scholastic performance) and the predictor variables (parenting style, ethnicity, parental education, family structure, and sex of the student) and to identify those predictor variables that best reduced the unexplained variance in the outcome variable by selecting the most important predictor variables in a stepwise multiple regression.

#### 4.2.1. THE STRENGTH OF OVERALL RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE OUTCOME AND THE PREDICTOR VARIABLES

The difference in scholastic performance that could be explained by the predictor variables - parenting style, ethnicity, parental education, family structure, and sex of the student - in combination was examined by employing multiple regression analysis. Table 5 presents the results of multiple regression analysis.

**TABLE 5: Multiple Regression Analysis of the Combined Contribution of the Predictor Variables to Outcome Variable**

Variable	Regression Weight (bi)	Standard Error (SE)	Beta Coefficient (B)	F
Parenting Style (X <sub>1</sub> )	3.01880	0.39755	0.36335	57.6536*
Ethnicity (X <sub>2</sub> )	0.49228	0.94965	0.02465	0.2683
Parental Education (X <sub>3</sub> )	0.30490	0.44704	0.03289	0.4651
Family Structure (X <sub>4</sub> )	1.21440	1.00318	0.05852	1.4665
Sex of the Student (X <sub>5</sub> )	8.33569	0.95094	0.41683	76.8428*

\*p<.0000

Constant = 38.53041

**NOTE:** - Multiple correlation coefficient (R) = 0.52355

- Coefficient of determination (R<sup>2</sup>) = 0.27410

- Regression equation is:

$$Y = 3.01880X_1 + 0.49228X_2 + 0.30490X_3 + 1.21440X_4 + 8.33569X_5 + 38.53041$$

The results of multiple regression analysis indicate that there is a significant relation between the scholastic performance of high school students and a linear combination of the predictor variables (parenting style, ethnicity, parental education, family structure, and sex of the student) [ $F_{5,329} = 24.84608$ ,  $P < .0000$ ] and 27.41 % of the variation in scholastic performance is explained by the linear combination of five independent variables.

4.2.2. PREDICTOR VARIABLES MORE IMPORTANT IN EXPLAINING DIFFERENCES IN SCHOLASTIC PERFORMANCE

The results of stepwise multiple regression analysis in which the predictor variables were identified interms of the order of their importance in explaining the variation in scholastic performance are presented in Table 6.

**TABLE 6: Stepwise Multiple Regression Analysis of the Predictor Variables More Important in Explaining Variation in Scholastic Performance**

Step	Variables Entered	R	R <sup>2</sup>	ΔR <sup>2</sup>	B	SE.B	Beta	F
1	Sex of the Student (X <sub>5</sub> )	0.36451	0.13287	-	8.30562	0.94743	0.41532	76.8428*
2	Parenting Style (X1)	0.51838	0.26872	0.13585	3.09114	0.39361	0.37206	61.9979*
All variables		0.52335	0.27410	0.00538				42.84608*

\* P<.0000

Constant = 39.91099

**NOTE:** The contribution of the predictor variables: ethnicity, parental education, and family structure to variation in scholastic performance is not significant thus these variables are dropped and a new predition equation is:

$$Y = 3.09114X_1 + 8.30562X_5 + 39.91099$$

The results in Table 6 reveal that sex of the student was found to be the first important variable in explaining the highest variation in scholastic performance of high school students, explaining 13.30 % of the total variation in school performance. The second important variable that entered into the regression equation was parenting style. Its inclusion in the regression equation increased the coefficient of

determination ( $R^2$ ) by 13.60 %. The contribution of the remaining predictor variables (ethnicity, parental education, and family structure) to the variation in scholastic performance tended to be very small. The increment in the multiple determination ( $\Delta R^2$ ) when the remaining predictor variables (ethnicity, parental education, and family structure) were entered was only 0.54 %. Table 7 presents a summary of the stepwise multiple regression analysis.

**TABLE 7: Summary of Stepwise Multiple Regression Analysis**

Source	df	SS	MS	F
Regression	2	8977.01900	4488.50950	60.99799*
Residual	332	24430.07086	73.58455	
Total	334	33407.08986		

\*  $P < .0000$

On the whole, the results of multiple and step wise multiple regression analyses revealed that the predictor variables: parenting style, ethnicity, parental education, family structure, and sex of the student jointly accounted for by 27.41 % of the total variation in scholastic performance of high school students. The remaining (72.59 %) variation in scholastic performance is explained by other predictor variables which were not explored in this study. The step wise multiple regression analysis further indicated that parenting style and sex of the student in combination explained 26.87 % of the variation in scholastic performance.

The prime objective of the analyses of multiple and step wise multiple regression was to examine the contribution of the predictor variables considered in this study and then to take into account the predictor variables that are identified as

having more contribution to the variation in scholastic performance. Along with parenting style, sex of the student is the most important variable in explaining the variation in scholastic performance of high school students. Sex of the student, therefore, was considered for the next analyses.

#### 4.3. THE EFFECT OF PARENTING STYLE ON SCHOLASTIC PERFORMANCE

It was expected that the results would vary as a function of student's ethnicity, parental education, family structure and sex along with parenting style. In a series of preliminary analyses it was reported that along with parenting style, sex of the student was the most important independent variable in explaining the variation in scholastic performance, where as ethnicity, parental education, and family structure (specifically, intact versus non-intact) were not as such important variables in contributing to the variation in scholastic performance.

Because we did not find significant relationship between scholastic performance and the predictor variables: ethnicity, parental education, and family structure, the results underlying the remaining analyses were based on analysis of the sample with subjects from different ethnicity, parental education, and family structure groups combined.

In examining the effect of parenting style on scholastic performance, the interactive effect of parenting style with sex of the student on scholastic performance was systematically examined.

**4.4. THE EFFECTS OF PARENTING STYLE AND SEX OF THE STUDENT ON SCHOLASTIC PERFORMANCE**

As pointed out earlier, students' scholastic performance scores vary as a function of sex of the student along with parenting style. In order to explore the particular parenting style groups that have better contribution to the scholastic performance of high school student, the mean scholastic performance scores and standard deviations of the parenting style and sex groups are presented in Table 8.

**TABLE 8: Means and Standard Deviation for Scholastic Performance Measure by Parenting Style and Sex Groups**

Overall			Parenting Style											
			Authoritative			Authoritarian			Indulgent			Neglectful		
N	Mean	SD	N	Mean	SD	N	Mean	SD	N	Mean	SD	N	Mean	SD
335	50.08	10.00	151	53.38	11.39	65	49.26	8.90	46	47.50	7.80	73	45.62	6.12
Sex of the Student	Male		72	60.38	10.08	29	52.35	9.05	29	49.37	8.61	46	46.21	6.68
	Female		79	46.99	8.40	36	46.76	8.06	17	44.32	4.91	27	44.61	4.94

**NOTE:** The maximum obtainable score for scholastic performance was 83.21 (T-score).

To investigate the effects of parenting style and sex of the student on variation in scholastic performance, a two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) [4 x 2] was employed. Results of ANOVA are presented in Table 9.

**TABLE 9: ANOVA Summary of the Effects of Parenting Style and Sex of the Student on Scholastic Performance**

Source	SS	df	MS	F
Parenting Style (A)	4606.701	3	1535.567	22.427*
Sex of the Student (B)	5600.662	1	5600.662	81.797*
Parenting Style x Sex of the Student (A x B)	1971.970	3	657.323	9.600*
Explained	11017.407	7	1573.915	22.987*
Residual	22389.683	327	68.470	
Total	33407.090	334		

\*P<.0001

As can be seen from Table 9, the main effects of both parenting style and sex of the student as well as the interaction effect of parenting style and sex of the student were statistically significant. In order to find out which parenting styles and sex of the student interaction contributed to over all significant difference in scholastic performance, cell mean differences were tested by using the post hoc Tukey/Kramer's (TK) method for pair-wise comparison. The results of Tukey/Kramer's tests of a simple effect are presented in Table 10.

**TABLE 10: Tukey/Kramer's (TK) Paired Comparison Simple Effect Test for Mean Scholastic Performance Scores**

Code No.	Parenting Style x Sex of the Student	Mean	Result of comparisons							
			1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1	Authoritative x Male	60.38	-							
2	Authoritative x Female	46.99	*	-						
3	Authoritarian x Male	52.35	*	NS	-					
4	Authoritarian x Female	46.76	*	NS	NS	-				
5	Indulgent x Male	49.37	*	NS	NS	NS	-			
6	Indulgent x Female	44.32	*	NS	*	NS	NS	-		
7	Neglectful x Male	46.21	*	NS	*	NS	NS	NS	-	
8	Neglectful x Female	44.61	*	NS	*	NS	NS	NS	NS	-

\*P<.05

**NOTE:** NS denotes not significantly different at .05 level.

The results of Tukey/Kramer's (TK) procedure of simple effect analysis revealed that male students who perceived their parents as authoritative scored significantly higher than their counter parts who described their parents as non authoritative and female students who came from all four parenting style families. The results also indicated that male students who characterized their parents as authoritarian performed significantly higher than their counter parts who perceived their parents as neglectful and female students who described their parents as indulgent and neglectful, but not significantly differed from their counter parts who characterized their parents as indulgent and female students

who perceived their parents as authoritative and authoritarian. Moreover, the results revealed that female students who came from all four parenting style families were not significantly different from one another in their scholastic performance (i.e., parenting style had no significant effect on scholastic performance of female high school students). However, the visual (or "eye-ball") inspection of cell means indicated that the trends of differences (that were not statistically significant) suggest that female students who came from authoritative and authoritarian homes scored higher in scholastic performance than their counter parts who came from indulgent and neglectful families. The visual (or "eye-ball") inspection also indicated that the trends of differences suggest that male students who came from authoritarian homes scored higher than their counter parts who came from indulgent families and female students who came from authoritative and authoritarian homes (but not statistically significant).

In all of these comparisons, the direction of group differences favored the authoritatively reared male students, and in no instance, in the outcome variable studied, do authoritatively reared male students performed significantly worse than students from any other parenting style group.

Over all, the different methods employed in the analysis of data enabled to answer the basic questions raised in this study.

First, the results of the analysis of percentage of subjects perceived their parents as authoritative, authoritarian, indulgent, and neglectful indicated that authoritative style was dominantly practiced in both Wolayta and Amhara cultures (ethnicities). Hence, question 4 was answered.

Second, the results of correlational analysis revealed that significant relation was not found between ethnicity and parenting style. The results answered question 2.

Third, the results of multiple regression analysis indicated that the amount of variation in scholastic performance explained by predictor variables (parenting style, ethnicity, parental education, family structure, and sex of the student). When full regression equation was considered, 27.41 % of the variation in scholastic performance was explained by the linear combination of parenting style, ethnicity, parental education, family structure, and sex of the student. The results of stepwise multiple regression analysis helped to find out the predictor variables which best explained the variation in scholastic performance. Sex of the student and parenting style were the variables identified as having significant relationship with scholastic performance of students.

Fourth, the results of a simple effect analysis in a two-way ANOVA revealed that for male students, the authoritative parenting category showed significantly higher scholastic performance than each of the other three parenting groups (i.e., authoritarian, indulgent, and neglectful). From these latter three parenting categories, male students who came from authoritarian families showed significantly higher scholastic performance than their counterparts who came from neglectful homes and female students who came from indulgent and neglectful families, but did not differ significantly from their counterparts who came from indulgent and female students who came from authoritarian and authoritative homes. There were no significant differences in scholastic performance of female students due to parenting style. Hence, questions 1 and 3 were also answered.

## CHAPTER FIVE

### 5. DISCUSSION

This section deals with discussion of the results of the study and focuses on the possible explanations for the results of the study.

#### 5.1. RELATIVE PREDOMINANCE OF PARENTING STYLE

One of the basic questions of this study was to examine the relative predominance of the parenting style among Ethiopian families (i.e., Wolayta and Amhara cultures). The findings of this study indicated that authoritative parenting, a style of child-rearing is dominantly practiced in both Wolayta and Amhara cultures (ethnicities). These findings are consistent with the findings of some recent studies in Ethiopia. For instance, Birhanu (1996) reported in his study that the type of parenting style dominantly practiced in Kaffecho culture was authoritative. Markos (1996) similarly reported that authoritative parenting style was the style of parenting dominantly practiced in Tigrawi culture.

The possible explanation for these findings could be that the child is valued highly in Ethiopia because he/she is needed to help parents with his/her work (Ringness & Gander, 1974), to provide social prestige and both economic and psychological security (Teshome, 1976), and he/she represents an insurance against the inevitable contingencies of old age (Atsede, 1994). For these very reasons, parents should be warm, firm, and democrat (authoritative) for their children. Another possible explanation is that the rapid socio cultural and political changes which have been induced in the country in the drive for modernization have resulted in some cultural changes (e.g., traditional cultural values and practices in

child-rearing). The awareness of the impact of parenting practices on children's psychosocial development and well-beingness and the harmfulness of the traditional cultural values, beliefs, and practices in child-rearing on psychosocial development of children by society in general and by parents in particular may be taken as an important explanation.

Moreover, the findings of this study could also be indicative of an observed trend that Ethiopian parents are distancing themselves from a traditional child-rearing orientation. That is, Ethiopian parents are seemingly adapting to the necessary changes in child-rearing practices, while holding onto certain traditional cultural values, beliefs, and practices.

In sum, the results of this study suggest that patterns of child-rearing practices are undergoing a change among Ethiopian families (Wolayta and Amhara cultures). However, traditional values, beliefs, and practices that are deeply rooted in non-scientific principles (i.e., children are predestined to grow up regardless of human intervention) still seem to have a great deal of influence on their child-rearing practices.

## **5.2. PARENTING STYLES AND SCHOLASTIC PERFORMANCE**

As in previous studies (e.g., Birhanu, 1996; Dornbusch et al., 1987; Lamborn et al., 1991; Markos, 1996; Steinberg et al., 1992a, 1989, 1994, 1992b, 1991), findings of this study revealed that parenting style had a significant impact on scholastic performance of high school students. The one exception to the general trend concerned the relation between parenting style and scholastic performance of female high school students. That is, differences in scholastic performance of male high school students of the type involved in this study

occur due to, among other variables, variations in parenting style they have in their families.

The results of the analysis of simple effect by employing Tukey/Kramer's (TK) procedure indicated that male students who characterized their parents as authoritative-warm (responsive), and firm (demanding)-scored significantly higher in scholastic performance than their counter parts who came from non-authoritative homes and female students who came from all four parenting style families. The results furthermore revealed that male students who came from authoritarian homes performed significantly higher than their counter parts who perceived their parents as neglectful and female students who came from indulgent and neglectful families, but not significantly differed their counter parts who characterized their parents as indulgent and female students who characterized their parents as authoritarian and authoritative. There were no significant differences in scholastic performance of female students due to parenting style. The proportion of variations in scholastic performance accounted for by parenting style was 13.14 %.

The findings of the present study both corroborate and extend those of previous research. Specifically, the results indicate that authoritative parenting likely facilitates adolescents' scholastic performance. Parents who affectionately encourage their children to work hard, to exercise autonomy in decision making, with reasonable control and supervision of children's activity are more likely to foster their children with the capacity to work hard and achieve better in school (e.g., Grolnick & Ryan, 1989; Morrow & Wilson, 1961). In connection to this, Steinberg and his co-workers (1989) concluded that the positive impact of authoritative parenting on achievement is mediated at least in part through the effects of authoritativeness on the

development of a healthy sense of autonomy and, more specifically, a health psychological orientation toward work.

According to Steinberg and his co-workers (1989), students who have parents who are treating them warmly, democratically, and firmly are more likely than their peers to develop positive attitudes toward, and beliefs about their achievement, and as a consequence, they are more likely to do better in school. Thus, one possible explanation for the positive impact of authoritative parenting can likely be that authoritative parents are warm (responsive), demanding, firm in their disciplinary measures, stimulating, and nurturing and these parental behaviors and attitudes foster an effective psychosocial development and a healthy psychological functioning in children which in turn facilitate the cognitive development of children.

Authoritative parents are likely to involve in their children's schooling by exposing them to cognitive and intellectual activities, encourage their children to succeed in school by providing with necessary educational materials. As a result of these parental activities, their children may perform better in school and be effective in their scholastic performance.

Several possible explanations can be given for poor scholastic performance of students from authoritarian, indulgent, and neglectful families.

Authoritarian parents are parents who emphasize conformity (strictness/supervision) and are likely to inhibit some aspects of cognitive development (e.g., Okagaki & Sternberg, 1993). Such parents emphasize receptiveness and obedience rather than reasoning and two-way communication, do not expose their children to cognitive and intellectual activities, and do not

involve in their children's schooling and do not encourage them to succeed in school. Authoritarian parents are parents who apply severe restriction and force towards their children without considering children's feelings are likely to thwart the development of children's self confidence, independence, achievement and goal directedness which in turn are the important predictors of academic achievement (see for review Gottfried et al., 1994).

Indulgent parents are parents who are very responsive but not at all or low in demanding, behave in some what more passive way in matters of discipline, and give the child a high degree of freedom to act he or she wishes (Maccoby & Martin, 1983).

Neglectful parents are parents who are low in both levels of responsiveness and demandingness. Such parents are disengaged parents who are motivated to keep the child at a distance and focus on their own needs rather than the needs of the child (Maccoby & Martin, 1983).

The aforementioned patterns of parental behaviors and attitudes towards their children have great impact on social and cognitive development of the children (see for review Baumrind, 1966). Therefore, it is not surprising if students from non-authoritative families perform poorly in school.

One of the disturbing findings of this study is the effect of parenting style on scholastic performance of female high school students. One possibility for this surprising finding may be that the scholastic performance of female high school students is especially influenced by their peers, and that these peer influences may overwhelm and undermine the positive effects of otherwise beneficial parental practices. Sue and Okazaki (1990) have explained that Asians obtain higher school marks than White Americans irrespective of parenting style they

have in their families. Steinberg et al., (1992a, 1992b) suggested that the school performance of Asian-American and African-American students are likely to be influenced by their peers, and less influenced by parenting style they have in their families. More specifically, they noted that among Asian-American students, peer support for academic excellence offsets the negative consequences of authoritarian parenting, where as among African-American students, the absence of peer support for achievement undermines the positive influence of authoritative parenting.

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Another possible explanation one may give is that our cultural and societal expectations for females are different than for males. One can expect a family composed of both girls and boys to favor boys in their emphasis on achievement. Thus, these cultural and societal influences may undermine the effect of parenting style on scholastic performance of female high school students. One can speculate on the reasons that parenting style is gender-specific in its impact on scholastic performance of high school students.

On the whole, the findings of this study suggest that parenting style has a significant effect on scholastic performance of male high school students. It is important to keep in mind, of course, that the information on parenting practices was obtained from adolescents and not through objective observations of parent-child interaction. Therefore, one can only conclude with certainty that male students who describe that their parents are authoritative perform better in school than students who feel that their parents are authoritarian, indulgent or neglectful. Because the data on scholastic performance were collected from official school records, however, which can help us to rule out the possibility that the students who describe their parents in more positive

light are simply more likely to describe their own behavior more positively as well.

### 5.3. THE MODERATING ROLE OF SEX OF THE STUDENT IN RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PARENTING STYLE AND SCHOLASTIC PERFORMANCE

The results of correlational analysis indicated that sex of the children had small (but statistically significant) negative relation with parenting style ( $r = -.1366$ ,  $P < .05$ ) and low positive (but statistically significant) relationship with scholastic performance ( $r = .3645$ ,  $P < .0001$ ). The results of multiple regression analysis revealed that among the five variables considered in the study, sex of the student was the first important variable in contributing to the differences in scholastic performance. That is, out of 27.41 % of the total variation explained by the linear combination of five predictor variables, 13.30 % (nearly half) of the variation in scholastic performance was explained by sex of the student. Similarly, the results of a two-way ANOVA showed that there were a significant main effect of sex of the student ( $F_1, 327 = 81.797$ ,  $P < .0001$ ) and interaction (simple) effect of parenting style and sex of the student ( $F_3, 327 = 9.600$ ,  $P < .0001$ ) on scholastic performance.

With respect to the effect of sex of the student on scholastic performance, these findings are consistent with the findings of previous studies in Ethiopia. For instance, Markos (1996) reported that student sex was the second most important variable (next to student ability) in explaining variation in academic achievement. Similar to the findings of this study, he found that boys achieved significantly higher than girls. Similarly, studies conducted in other developing countries have revealed that sex of the student was among the most powerful predictor of scholastic performance. For example, the study of

Heyneman (1976) in Uganda reported that 42 % of the variations in scholastic performance was accounted for by sex of the student.

With regard to the moderating effect of sex of the student on the relationship between parenting style and scholastic performance, the findings of this study are inconsistent with the findings of the previous studies in Ethiopia (e.g., Birhanu, 1996) and in Western countries (e.g., Dornbusch et al., 1987; Lamborn et al., 1991; Steinberg et al., 1994). Birhanu failed to find a significant interaction of parenting style and student sex on scholastic performance. Similarly, Dornbusch et al., Lamborn et al., and Steinberg et al. did not find a significant interaction effect of parenting style and sex of the student on scholastic performance. Lamborn et al. reported higher scholastic performance among female high school students, but Dornbusch et al. in most of their analyses relating grades (scholastic performance) to parenting style found no gender differences in the results.

The results of the analysis of interaction (simple) effect of parenting style and sex of the student on scholastic performance by using Tukey/Kramer's (TK) procedure indicated the moderating role of sex of the student in relationship between parenting style and scholastic performance. That is, male students who came from authoritative homes scored significantly higher in scholastic performance than their counter parts who were from non-authoritative homes and female students who came from all four parenting style families. Male students who were from authoritarian families performed significantly better in school than their counter parts who came from neglectful homes and female students who were from indulgent and neglectful families, but not significantly differed their counter parts who came from indulgent families and female students who were from authoritative and

authoritarian homes. Moreover, the results revealed that there were no significant differences in scholastic performance of female students as a function of parenting style they had in their families. The proportion of variation in scholastic performance explained by the interaction effect of parenting style and sex of the student was 5.30 %.

Several parsimonious explanations can be suggested for poor scholastic performance of female high school students. Since in Ethiopian culture the family lines and properties go from parents to the son and parents place central dependence on their sons for support in their old age, so parents are especially concerned that their sons are socialized properly, encouraged, and reinforced to be successful in life in general and effective in school in particular. Once a daughter is married, she is moved in with her husband's family and could give her parents little help or support. Because of these very reasons girls are not encouraged and reinforced equally as sons to work hard and to be effective in their schooling. In addition, in our culture girls are expected to help their parents with house hold chores and therefore they do not have ample of time to invest in their education. The predominance of traditional cultural values and beliefs placed on girls' schooling and the subordinate position given to females by society at large and by parents in particular, girls are reinforced to be shy and reserved both at home and school. Thus, these factors may overwhelm and undermine the effect of parenting style on scholastic performance of female students and might have affected their scholastic performance.

In sum, sex of the student was found to be the first potential predictor variable among the independent variables considered in the study in explaining a considerable variation in scholastic performance of high school students and it had the moderating role in relationship between parenting style and

scholastic performance. The existence of significant interaction between parenting style and sex of the student suggests that the effect of the four parenting style groups (authoritative, authoritarian, indulgent and neglectful) on scholastic performance of high school students is not the same for male and female students.

#### 5.4. PARENTING STYLE, ETHNICITY, AND SCHOLASTIC PERFORMANCE

One expectation of this study at the time of its inception was that the results would vary as a function of students ethnicity. However, the results revealed that the relationship between ethnicity and parenting style and between ethnicity and scholastic performance were not significant. That is, students from two cultural groups (Wolayta and Amhara) did not differ significantly both in parenting styles they had in their families and in their scholastic performances. These findings are not in harmony with the findings of previous studies in Western countries (Chao, 1994; Darling & Steinberg, 1993; Dornbusch et al., 1987; Lamborn et al., 1991; Okagaki & Sternberg, 1993; Steinberg et al., 1992a, 1994, 1992b, 1991; Sue & Okazaki, 1990). These studies reported that parents from different cultural backgrounds vary in their parenting styles and these variations in child-rearing practices affected the scholastic performance of high school students from these different cultural contexts (ethnicities).

These findings are very interesting by themselves, because no previous studies in Ethiopia on socialization process of the children and its impact on psychosocial development and scholastic performance of children considered ethnicity as an important factor. As a result, in examining patterns of child-rearing and impact of parenting practices on children's development, one could not generalize across cultural groups.

Thus, these findings widen our knowledge on patterns of child-rearing practices among Ethiopian families and increase our understanding of the impact of parenting practices on scholastic performance of students from different cultural contexts in Ethiopia.

One tenable explanation which can be given for these results is that the variations in child-rearing practices across cultural (ethnic) groups could be derived in part from different traditional cultural values, beliefs, and practices followed in child-rearing practices. However, now a days because of a rapid socio cultural and political changes which have been induced in the country in the drive for modernization have resulted in some, if not in all, cultural changes (i.e., traditional cultural values, beliefs, and practices in child-rearing and child socialization).

It is possible to find a simple explanation for the achievement levels of students from these two cultural groups (Wolayta and Amhara). For example, we know that educational achievements of students are directly related to social class of parents. Perhaps parents of students from these two cultures (Wolayta and Amhara) are not different interms of socioeconomic back grounds to provide their children with special resources and opportunities. That is, the educational facilities and some other factors which affect the scholastic performance may not be different for students from these two cultures.

#### **5.5. PARENTING STYLE, PARENTAL EDUCATION, AND SCHOLASTIC PERFORMANCE**

The results of correlational and multiple regression analyses indicated that the contribution of parental education

to scholastic performance of high school students was not significant, but the relationship between parenting style and parental education was significant ( $r = .1209$ ,  $P < .05$ ). The finding of this study with respect to the relationship between parental education and parenting style is not consistent with the findings of previous studies in Ethiopia (Markos, 1996) but consistent with the findings of previous studies in Western countries (Dornbusch et al., 1987; Maccoby & Martin, 1983). Markos in his study failed to find significant relationship between parental education and parenting style. With respect to the relationship between parental education and children's scholastic performance, the finding of this study is consistent with the findings of previous researches in Ethiopia (Markos, 1996) and in some developing countries (Heyneman, 1976), but inconsistent with findings of previous studies in Western countries (DeBaryshe et al., 1993; Dornbusch et al., 1987; Laosa, 1982; Maccoby & Martin, 1983).

The positive relationship between parental education and parenting style can be explained as such that educated parents know the effects of their parenting practices on their children's psychosocial development and psychological well-beingness, thus they follow the modern principles of child-rearing practices in raising and socialization of their children. In connection with this, Laosa (1982) proffered that among the enduring effects of education on the individual are certain behavioral dispositions that determine how he or she will behave as a parent.

The simple and possible reason for not finding a significant relationship between parental education and children's scholastic performance can be that a large majority [240 (71 %)] of the students involved in this study were from those families whose highest parental education in family did not reach high school graduate (12 complete) and some one year

additional training and because parental education is related with the socioeconomic status of parents which are known to affect the educational achievement of students. Thus, because of the restricted educational attainments of the parents of the subjects involved in the study, one may not expect a significant contribution of parental education to scholastic performance. As noted by Maccoby (1980), a high-SES parent is well educated, has relatively high income, and high-status occupation (professional, managerial, or business owner). Thus, parents having higher educational level are likely to create an advantageous environment and conducive atmosphere and also provide their children with special resources and opportunities which enhance their children's scholastic performance.

In general, the results of this study suggest that parental education did not significantly explain the variations in scholastic performance of high school students. The results also suggest that there was significant (but small) relationship between parental education and parenting style. However, to conclude that parental education does not at all explain the variations in scholastic performance of high school students may be hasty.

#### **5.6. PARENTING STYLE, FAMILY STRUCTURE, AND SCHOLASTIC PERFORMANCE**

The findings of this study revealed that the relationship between parenting style and family structure and the contribution of family structure to the variations in scholastic performance of high school students were not significant. These findings are consistent with the findings of the previous research in Ethiopia (e.g., Markos, 1996) and in Western countries (e.g., Marsh, 1990), but inconsistent with findings of some previous studies in Western countries

(e.g., Chapman, 1977; Clingempeel & Segal, 1986; Dornbusch et al., 1987; Hetherington, 1989; Kurdek & Sinclair, 1988; Zimiles & Lee, 1991). Unlike the findings of this study, most of the previous studies favored students from intact families both in parenting style they have in their families and in their scholastic performance.

As noted by Marsh (1990), one possible explanation for the results of the present study could be that it is the disruption of a stable family configuration which may be responsible for poor parenting style practiced in home and for lower scholastic performance rather than the family structure. Thus, children's beliefs and understanding of their present living conditions and the stability of the general conditions in their families may have more considerable effect on their scholastic performance than the nature of house hold in which they live.

On the whole, the results of this study suggest that students from intact and non-intact families did not differ significantly in their families parenting styles and in their scholastic performances.

## CHAPTER SIX

### 6. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

This section attempts to summarize and conclude the study and makes some recommendations based on the results of the study.

#### 6.1. SUMMARY

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The main objective of this study was to examine the impact of parenting practices on scholastic performance of high school students from different cultural contexts (ethnicities). To this end, the study investigated the relationship between parenting style and scholastic performance in general and the possible variations in the relationship between parenting style and scholastic performance due to other demographic variables-sex of the student, ethnicity, parental education, and family structure.

The study was designed to answer the following basic questions:

1. Does scholastic performance of high school students vary as a function of parenting style?
2. Is there any relationship between ethnicity and parenting style?
3. Does ethnicity (cultural context) of student mediate the effect, if any, of parenting style on scholastic performance of high school students?

4. Which type of parenting style is dominantly practiced among Ethiopian families? (in Wolayta culture? in Amhara culture?)

Data were collected from 335 randomly selected 11th grade students from the two government high schools-Soddo Comprehensive Secondary School in Southern Ethiopia Nations, Nationalities and people's Region (i.e. in Wolayta) and Tana Haik Comprehensive Secondary School in Amhara Region - by using a parenting style questionnaire developed based on the theoretical model set forth by Maccoby and Martin (1983) or adapted from previous studies (Dornbusch et al, 1987; Lamborn et al, 1991; Steinberg et al; 1992b), and the Grade-Point-Averages (GPA) or average scores of the first semester of 1996/97 academic year of the subjects offered in 11th grade in Comprehensive Secondary Schools. Scholastic performance scores of students were collected from official school records of the two schools involved in the study.

Data were analyzed by using mainly correlational analysis, multiple regression analysis, and analysis of variance (ANOVA). The following main results were found in the study.

1. The findings indicated that parenting style was significantly explained the variations in scholastic performance of male high school students. It was found that there were no significant differences in scholastic performance of female high school students as a function of parenting style-a finding that is quite surprising, given the strong association between parenting style and scholastic performance of high school students. The proportion of variance in scholastic performance accounted for by parenting style was 13.14 %.

2. Sex of the student was observed to be a significant moderator of the effect of parenting style on scholastic performance. The interaction effect of parenting style and sex of the student accounted for by 5.30 % of the variations in scholastic performance. That is, male students who characterized their parents as authoritative scored significantly higher in scholastic performance than their counter parts who perceived their parents as non-authoritative and female students who were from all four parenting style families. Male students who came from authoritarian families performed significantly better than their counter parts who perceived their parents as neglectful and female students who described their parents as indulgent and neglectful, but not significantly differed from their counter parts who characterized their parents as indulgent and female students who described their parents as authoritative and authoritarian.
3. The linear combination of parenting style, sex of the student, ethnicity, parental education, and family structure accounted for by 27.41 % of the variations in scholastic performance of high school students. Relatively, sex of the student was the first and parenting style was the second variable in explaining the highest variations in scholastic performance of high school students. The other predictor variables-ethnicity, parental aduction, and family structure did not significantly contribute to scholastic performance of high school students.
4. The relationship between ethnicity (cultural context) of the adolescent and parenting style was not significant (i.e., adolescents from Wolayta and Amhara ethnicities were not significantly different in their parents child-rearing practices).

5. Ethnicity (cultural context) of the student was not a significant mediator of the effect of parenting style on scholastic performance of high school students.
6. Authoritative parenting style was found to be the type of parenting style dominantly practiced in both Wolayta and Amhara cultures.

## 6.2. CONCLUSION

The findings of the present study indicate that parenting practices have great impact on scholastic performance of high school students. Specifically, the results reveal that authoritative parenting-operationalized in terms of parental behaviors and attitudes in child-rearing practices (i.e., both high in acceptance/involvement and strictness/supervision) - likely facilitates adolescents' scholastic performance. These findings cut across ethnic, social class, and family structure groups, but not across sex groups.

This study has provided evidence that Baumrind's typology of parenting style, originally formulated to explain social and cognitive development among young children and later elaborated and revised by Maccoby and Martin (1983), was successfully applied with the exception for female students to examine the general patterns of parental behaviors and attitudes in child-rearing practices among Ethiopian families and related to adolescents scholastic performance in high school. Female students appear to be the sex group for whom the theoretical model of parenting style developed or adapted from previous studies (Dornbusch et al., 1987; Lamborn et al., 1991; Steinberg et al., 1992b) applies least well. Thus, this study concludes with more question than answers in examining parenting practices and scholastic performance of female high school students.

The results of this study have important practical implications for child-rearing and child socialization practices. If parents are authoritative (i.e., both responsive and demanding), then they are facilitating the psychosocial development and psychological well-beingness of their children which inturn have great impact on effectiveness of children in their scholastic performance. On the contrary, if parents are authoritarian (i.e., demanding but not responsive), indulgent (i.e., responsive but not demanding), and neglectful (i.e., not responsive and not demanding), then they are affecting the psychosocial development and effectiveness of their children's in scholastic performance because these parenting styles have deleterious consequences in children's psychosocial development and scholastic performance.

Although the data on parenting practices derived from adolescents' reports, the comparability of the present results with findings of previous studies, despite different methods and procedures, lends additional support to the contention that the self-report data used in this study have not resulted in unusual biases in the findings. Indeed, this replication suggests that researchers interested in studying the impact of parenting practices on psychosocial development and scholastic performance of adolescents may be able in some instances, to use adolscent self-report measures of parenting practices. Among other advantages, self-report measures enable the researchers to include substantially large and more heterogeneous samples in their research than is typically case in observational study, and larger samples may permit the detection of theoretically important findings that may go un noticed in smaller-scale research.

### 6.3. RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the results of this study, the following recommendations are made:

1. Raising effective children is not only the responsibility of the parents but also the society. Thus, society in general and parents in particular should be made aware of the impact of parenting practices on children's psychosocial development, psychological well-beingness, and scholastic performance and should be reoriented with the modern concepts of child-rearing-the significance of warm, relaxed, responsive, demanding, involved and encouraging families in children's over all development.
2. By changing traditional cultural values and beliefs placed on girls' schooling, society at large and schools and parents in particular should give special attention to female students to work to their ability by encouraging and providing them with moral and material support.
3. The implementation and evaluation of intervention aimed at enhancing scholastic performance of students should include attempts to modify parenting practices.
4. To date, the benefits of parental authoritativeness have been most consistently demonstrated (Birhanu, 1996; Dornbusch et al., 1987; Lamborn et al., 1991; Markos, 1996; Steinberg et al., 1992a, 1989, 1994, 1992b, 1991). Although there is certainly room for more systematic study of the impact of authoritative parenting, or any parenting style for that matter, on psychosocial development and scholastic performance of adolescents, it would seem far more important, to see whether patterns of socialization effect observed in this specific population hold true in

other groups. Thus, it remains to be examined whether the same parenting style has similar effect in other population. Nonetheless, this and other caveats raised in this study certainly call for more work that involves members of various social and demographic categories, particularly sex and ethnic groups and work that uses culturally refined instrument to measure parenting practices.

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## APPENDIX

**ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY**  
**SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES**  
**DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY**

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### QUESTIONNAIRE FOR STUDENTS

The purpose of this questionnaire is to get some information about family parenting practices in rearing their children. The information obtained from the responses of the items will be used for only research and discussion purposes.

The study can be successfully accomplished only when you complete all the items honestly and frankly. Please feel free and be genuine. Your response will be kept confidential. Do not write your name at any place in the questionnaire.

Thank you in advance for your kind cooperation!

**PART I: BACKGROUND INFORMATION**

**DIRECTION:** Here are some items about students' background information and family characteristics. In some of the items you are required to write the necessary information in the blank space provided. When the questions are in the form of choices, you are required to indicate your response by encircling the number of appropriate answer (s).

1. Sex (1) Male (2) Female
2. Age\_\_\_\_\_
3. Ethnicity\_\_\_\_\_
4. First language\_\_\_\_\_
5. With whom are you living now?
  - (1) With both father and mother
  - (2) With mother
  - 3) With father
  - (4) With mother and stepfather
  - (5) With father and stepmother
  - (6) With other relatives (grand parents, aunts, uncle, etc).
  - (7) With foster parents who are not relatives
  - (8) Others (specify)\_\_\_\_\_
6. Are your parents alive?
  - (1) yes, both mother and father
  - (2) Yes, only mother
  - (3) Yes, only father
  - (4) No, none of them

7. How many elder brothers and sisters do you have?  
 (A) Brothers\_\_\_\_ (B) Sisters\_\_\_\_
8. How many younger brothers and sisters do you have?  
 (A) Brothers\_\_\_\_ (B) Sisters\_\_\_\_
9. Where do your parents or guardians reside?  
 (1) In urban area (2) In rural area
10. What is the main source of your parents' or guardians' income?  
 (1) Agriculture (2) Trading (3) Daily wage  
 (4) Salary (5) Specify if any other\_\_\_\_\_
11. Your parents or guardians are:  
 (1) Farmers (2) Merchants (3) Government employees  
 (4) Others like barber, carpenter, craftsmen, etc  
 (5) None of the above (specify)\_\_\_\_\_
12. What is your parents' or guardians' job?  
 (A) Father's (male guardian's) job is:\_\_\_\_\_  
 (B) Mother's (female guardian's) job is:\_\_\_\_\_
13. Under which one of the following categories is your parents' or guardians' educational level grouped? Write the number of your choice for both your father (male guardian) and mother (female guardian).  
 (A) Educational level of my father (male guardian) is:  
 \_\_\_\_\_  
 (B) Educational level of my mother (female guardian) is:  
 \_\_\_\_\_



Items related to (describing) parents' or guardians' attitudes and behaviors in rearing their children:

No.	Items	Father (male guardian)	Mother (female guardian)
1	I can count on my parents or guardians to help me out, if I have some kind of problems.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
2	My parents or guardians keep pushing me to do my best in what ever I do.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
3	My parents or guardians allow me to tell them If I think my ideas are better than theirs.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
4	My parents or guardians always speak to me with a warm and friendly voice.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
5	When my parents or guardians want me to do some thing, they explain why.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
6	When I get good grades in school, my parents or guardians praise me.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
7	When I get poor grades in school, my parents or guardians encourage me to try harder.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
8	My parents or guardians are interested in what I am learning at school.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
9	My parents or guardians are involved in my schooling (e.g., helping with home work when asked, attending school programs for parents, watching me in sports or other extracurricular activities, and helping me in selecting courses or streams).	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
10	My parents or guardians know who my friends are.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
11	My parents or guardians spent time just talking with me.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
12	My parents or guardians enjoy staying home with me more than going out with friends.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
13	My parents or guardians give me a lot of care and attention.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4

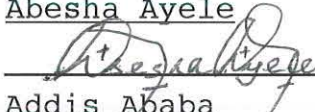
- Encircle the number that indicates the alternative which best describes your parents' or guardians' attitudes and behaviors toward you. Do not forget responding for both your father (male guardian) and mother (female guardian).
14. In a typical week, what is latest time your parents or guardians allow you to stay out on school nights (Monday-Friday)?
- (A) Your father (male guardian):
- |                          |                       |
|--------------------------|-----------------------|
| (1) Doesn't allow me out | (5) 11:00P.M.         |
| (2) 8:00P.M.             | (6) Midnight          |
| (3) 9:00P.M.             | (7) As late as I Want |
| (4) 10:00P.M.            |                       |
- (B) Your mother (female guardian):
- |                          |                       |
|--------------------------|-----------------------|
| (1) Doesn't allow me out | (4) 10:00P.M.         |
| (2) 8:00P.M.             | (5) 11:00P.M.         |
| (3) 9:00P.M.             | (6) Midnight          |
|                          | (7) As late as I want |
15. In a typical weekend what is the latest time you can stay out during the night (Friday, Saturday or Sunday night)?
- |                          |               |
|--------------------------|---------------|
| (1) I am not allowed out | (5) 11:00P.M. |
| (2) 8:00P.M.             | (6) Midnight  |
| (3) 9:00P.M.             | (7) 1:00 A.M. |
| (4) 10:00P.M.            | (8) 2:00A.M.  |
16. How much do your parents or guardians try to know exactly where you are and what you are doing?
- (A) Your father (male guardian):
- |                    |                 |
|--------------------|-----------------|
| (1) Doesn't try    | (3) Tries a lot |
| (2) Tries a little |                 |
- (B) Your mother (female guardian):
- |                    |                 |
|--------------------|-----------------|
| (1) Doesn't try    | (3) Tries a lot |
| (2) Tries a little |                 |
17. How much do your parents or guardians try to know whether you go to school or not?
- (A) Your father (male guardian):
- |                    |                 |
|--------------------|-----------------|
| (1) Doesn't try    | (3) Tries a lot |
| (2) Tries a little |                 |

22. How much do your parents or guardians really know whether you go to school or not?
- (A) your father (male guardian):
- (1) knows a lot      (3) Doesn't know
- (2) knows a little
- (B) Your mother (female guardian):
- (1) knows a lot      (3) Doesn't know
- (2) knows a little
23. How much do your parents or guardians really know what you do with your free time?
- (A) your father (male guardian):
- (1) knows a lot      (2) knows a little
- (3) Doesn't know
- (B) Your mother (female guardian):
- (1) knows a lot
- (2) knows a little
- (3) Doesn't know
24. Do your parents or guardians really know where you are most afternoons after school?
- (A) Your father (male guardian)
- (1) knows a lot
- (2) knows a little
- (3) Doesn't know
- (B) Your mother (female guardian):
- (1) knows a lot
- (2) knows a little
- (3) Doesn't know
25. Do your parents or guardians really know what you do with your money?
- (A) Your father (male guardian)
- (1) Knows a lot      (3) Doesn't know
- (2) knows a little
- (B) Your mother (female guardian):
- (1) Knows a lot
- (2) knows a little
- (3) Doesn't know

## DECLARATION

I, the undersigned, declare that this thesis is my original work done under the guidance of Dr. Habtamu Wondimu and that all relevant sources of materials used for the thesis have been duly acknowledged.

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