



The Influence of Family Variables on Students' Academic Achievement in Kolfe Keranyo Sub-City Preparatory Schools in Addis Ababa city administration

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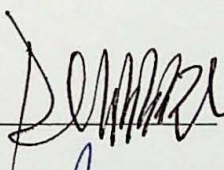
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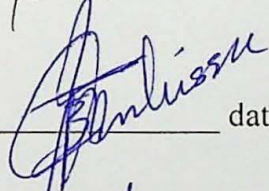
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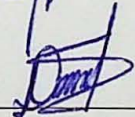
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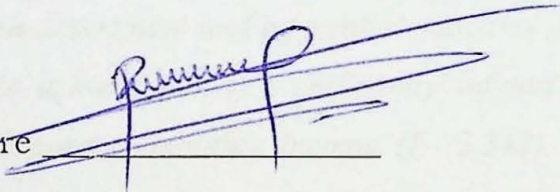
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Signature

A handwritten signature in blue ink, appearing to be 'Rumun', written over a horizontal line.

Date_____

Abstract

Since conception to independence life, parents take the lion share of responsibility in guiding and supporting their children and adolescents including school performance but adolescents underachievement is becoming a rising social problem. Thus, the purpose of the study was to examine the association between some parent /family variables and preparatory schools (grade 11 & grade 12) student's academic achievement in Addis Ababa City Administration, Ethiopia. The study employed a descriptive survey as it enabled to describe using large sample size. Using simple random technique, 345 students were sampled for the study. Student record sheet and Questionnaire were administered as the main data collection instrument. The collected data was analyzed using both descriptive and inferential statistics. The findings of this study revealed that students' academic achievement is significantly influenced by family structure ($F(2,342) = 3.189, p < .05$) and parents monthly income ($F(2,342) = 5.915, p < .05$). Also, there were a positive but generally weak correlation between preparatory school students academic achievement and parents education ($\eta = .265$), parents occupation ($\eta = 0.237$), SES ($\eta = .398$), parent/family involvement ($r = 0.062$) and the parenting styles ($r = 0.208, p < 0.01$). From the findings of this study, the researcher recommended that the Government need to sensitize using media to increase parents involvement at school and home level in relation to students academic activities to enhance their performance. Also, the school administration should fix the number of education days for parents so that parents can be more involved with their children's academic performance. Parents should improve on their family leadership style since this can affect adolescents' performance in higher secondary schools. Finally, since students performance from single parents and lower income families seem less successful, school counseling, tutorial and educational material support has to be considered.

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Acronyms and Abbreviations

AA : Academic Achievement

AAU : Addis Ababa University

AP : Academic performance

EGSECE : Ethiopian General secondary education certificate examination

GPA : Grade point average

PI : Parent involvement

PS: Parenting Style

SES : socio-economic status

CHAPTER ONE

1. Introduction

This chapter is an introduction to the entire research work. It looks the background to the study, the statement of the problem, the objectives and significance of the research, scope of the study, definition of terms as used in the study and structure of the manuscript.

1.1 Background of the Study

There is an optimistic belief that education, in a broad sense, improves the capabilities of individuals and the capacity of institutions, and becomes a catalyst for the closely interrelated economic, social, cultural, and demographic desirable changes that become defined as national development (Fägerlind and Saha, 1989; Adams, 2002). As a result, education is the best legacy a nation can give to citizens especially to children and youths (UNESCO, 2005).

Recognizing the importance of education, it is the responsibility of the stakeholders to promote the academic achievement(AA) of students as AA is directly related to students' growth and development of knowledge in an educational situation where teaching and learning process takes place. Hoyle (1986) argued that schools are established with the aim of imparting knowledge and skills to those who go through them and behind all this is the idea of enhancing good academic performance (AP). Academic performance (AP) or academic achievement (AA) is considered as the performance of the students in the subject they study in the school (Clark, 1983) in school based assessments, country wide examinations or international scale assessment or any combination of these. Academic achievement determines the student's status in the class. It gives children an opportunity to develop their talents, improve their grades and prepare for the future academic challenges. Both historically and internationally, academic performance has long been one of the most important issues in complex civilizations, ranging from its ancient role in selecting civil servants in the Middle East, India and China to its current significance as a driver of advanced economies (OECD, 2007). Given the association between academic performance and subsequent work performance, salary, and career and social success academic performance is clearly an outcome worthy of attention in all hierarchy of education levels (Roth, BeVier,

Schippman, & Switzer III, 1996, Roth & Clarke, 1998, Strenze, 2007 cited in Arthur,2011). It is not surprising; therefore, that academic performance has long been one of the key phenomena of interest in education and psychology. Especially, following the skeptical findings of the Coleman (Coleman et al., 1966) and Plowden (Peaker, 1971) study groups, researchers in the West (USA and UK in particular) have investigated the effects of many material ingredients and social practices found within schools in relation to student achievement. Since then, as a result, various studies in different periods, in different settings by different scholars have been carried out on the factors that affect students' academic performance or achievement in schools, colleges and universities suggesting that academic performance is affected by a number of factors including students themselves; classroom characteristics', school characteristics', teachers quality, family backgrounds or in school and out of school related factors in general. For instance; with regard to personal factors, students' self-concept, self-efficacy, attitudes, and motivation are positively related to academic achievement (Ajayi, 2012; Bandura et al., 1996; Chevalier, Gibbons, Thorpe, Snell, & Hoskins, 2009; Jegede et al., 1997; Kiamanesh, 2005) cited in Chowa, Masa, Ramos and Ansong (2013).Also, another groups of research evidence revealed similar factors including student-related factors like intelligence quotient (IQ) and willingness to learn (Magiri, 1997); school-related factors like adequacy of resources and facilities (Musoko, 1983; Kunguru, 1986); teacher-related factors like teacher morale, teaching methods (Muchina, 2003) and job satisfaction (Guthrie, 1982); and school administrators' leadership traits (Anyango, 2001; Orina, 2005) among others. Still other groups of researchers also found that student effort, previous or prior educational performance, self-motivation, the social-economic status of the students' parents, the students' age, number of hours of study per day, admission points, different entry qualifications, tuition trends and the students' area of residence (rural or urban) (Farooq, Chaudry, Shafiq & Berhanu, 2011; Ali, Haider, Munir, Khan & Ahmed, 2013) are some of the factors identified and reported to have been affecting the academic performance of students in different settings.

Reynolds, Bollen, Creemers, Hopkins, Stoll & Lagerweij (1996) also suggest that student achievement is associated with a number of school characteristics. The five most commonly mentioned characteristics are an emphasis on teaching basic skills, high expectations for student achievement, frequent evaluation of student progress, a safe and orderly school climate, and educational leadership.

A group of school effectiveness researchers, including Edmonds (1981), Scheerens & Bosker (1997), Lezotte, Skaife & Holstead (2002), and Daggett (2005), demonstrated that public schools can make a difference – even if their student body comprised of students whose families had disadvantaged backgrounds despite there are plethora of literature which indicates that efforts to avail education access and participation are thwarted by multifarious and intertwined in school and out school factors . These researchers discovered that the successful schools have unique characteristics and processes, which helped all children, learn at high levels (Kirk & Jones, 2004). Edmonds (1981) was the leading researcher in school reform in the 1970s, and initiated what is now known as the Effective Schools Model and he noted the following characteristics of successful schools: strong administrative leadership, focus on basic skills, high expectations for student success, frequent monitoring of student performance, and safe and orderly schools.

Following on the work of Edmonds, Scheerens and Bosker (1997) did research on a wide variety of school reform initiatives in the mid to late 1990s and came up with eight essential characteristics of successful schools. The characteristics they identified were: monitoring of student progress, focus on achievement, parental involvement, creating a safe and orderly climate, focused curriculum, strong leadership, cooperative working environment and time on task.

Recently Lezotte (2010) picked up leadership on the effective school research that Edmonds started in the 1970s noted the following as the most important characteristics of effective schools: strong instructional leadership, clear and focused mission, safe and orderly schools, climate of high expectations for success, frequent monitoring of student progress, positive home-school relations, and opportunity to learn. He argued that these seven Correlates of Effective Schools are powerful indicators of successful places where all children learn, regardless of socioeconomic status or ethnicity.

In comparison to effective schools, the American Federation of Teachers (2000) established that low performing schools are characterized by lack of academic standards, high levels of disruptions and violence, high rates of students and staff absenteeism, high dropout rates, high rates of staff turnover, and an overall negative school atmosphere where parents are hardly involved in school programmes and activities.

Research on effective schools has also been conducted in Africa. For instance, Verspoor (2006) researched out on what determines education quality in sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) and identified the following: classroom factors (time, grouping procedures, instructional strategies) are key, school factors (leadership, emphasis on academic achievement and staff development) enable and reinforce, system factors (vision, standards, resources, relevant curriculum, incentives) provide direction, and community factors (home environment, support for education) ensure local relevance and ownership.

Generally, evidence from school effectiveness suggests that parents or family are a child's first educators affecting students' achievement directly or indirectly since family or parents or the home is the primary cell of society where the child's upbringing must begin since birth, still in cradle. A meta analysis of over 800 student achievement articles, in New Zealand, suggest that up to 50% , 30% , 10% , and 10% of student achievement variation is attributed to student background, teacher quality, school facilities and school leadership respectively (Hattie,2009). Looking student background characteristics means also looking parents or family backgrounds as the family is the most significant learning environment that influences a child's school performance (Coleman, 1966). Parents are one of the most important and influential elements on the lives of their children. They have the power, ability to shape, sustain and develop their children's who will be interested, creative and tolerant, through their positive involvement in the learning process and educational activities. On the other hand parents who do not involve in their children educational process are also considered to be capable of repressing and destroying the motivation and ability of their children through neglect and indifference to their achievements. Furthermore; many background variables affect the impact of the family and home environment. Broadly, family background includes factors such as socioeconomic status, two parent vs single - parent household, divorce, parenting practices and aspirations, maternal characteristics, family size, and neighborhood (Majoribanks, 1996). In addition, studies such as those by Duncan and Magnuson (2005) have concluded that various dimensions of socioeconomic status (SES) - including household income and cumulative wealth, parents' educational attainment and parenting skills, family structure, the quality of the neighborhood, and associated social position and privileges - account for some portion of these achievement gaps. Heckman noted that family factors can influence children from as early as when they are in the womb. By the time they enter school; children from socioeconomically disadvantaged families possess lower levels of

cognitive and non-cognitive skills and lag far behind their more advantaged peers. Even worse, these gaps have been shown to persist as children age (Heckman 2008; 2011).

Socioeconomic status (SES) is by far the most prominent and widely used latent construct for measuring family background and its measures are usually derived from educational attainment, occupational status, and financial resources (income levels). Arguments, with regard to the relation between families' education and students' academic performance, many studies have shown that students whose families have low educational levels and low socioeconomic status experience higher rates of early school leaving, low academic expectations and performance, and even exclusion from higher educational tracks than those from more advantaged social groups (Bourdieu & Passeron, 1970; Flores-Gonzalez, 2002; Oakes, 1985; Valenzuela, 1999) cited in Flecha (2012). Conversely, students from families with high socioeconomic status tend to approach academic challenges with a greater sense of internal control over success than students from lower-SES families (Young et al., 2011). Also, another line of argument which is much related to education attainment of parents or guardians is parental income which affects student's wellbeing and hence academic performance. Using PSID data, Duncan, et al (1998) found that family income at early ages is more important for determining educational attainment whether they control for fixed family effects or not. Low income parents also report increased levels of parental stress, depression, poor health and a higher level of frustration and aggravation with their children, and these children are more likely to have poor verbal development and exhibit higher levels of distractability and hostility in the classroom (Parker et. al, 1999).

According to a literature review by Haveman and Wolfe (1995), the strong correlation between parental income and student's scholarly achievements is one of the major findings in the literature on the determinants of children's attainments. However, the fact that children of parents with high levels of schooling or income perform better compared to those from less advantageous backgrounds does not necessarily imply that they exert more effort.

Parental involvements is another factor affecting student performance positively and even some times a more powerful force for academic success than other family background variables, such as social class, family size and level of parental education. Supporting this, Barnard (2004); Shumox and Lomax (2001) argued that the academic achievement of students heavily depends upon the parental involvement in their academic activities to attain the higher level of quality in

academic success. In a study of 41 elementary schools, Griffith (1996) found that schools with a great degree of parental involvement illustrated significant achievement in standardized test scores. Barnard (2004) looked at the association between parental involvement in elementary school and student success in high school, and concluded that early parental involvement in a child's education promotes positive long-term effects.

Conversely, Bronstein et al. (2005) found a lack of guidance by parents of fifth grade students to be related to poor academic achievement. Hill and Tyson (2009) reported various types of parental involvement to be positively associated with academic achievement through a meta-analysis of 50 studies, with the exception of parental help with homework. Fan and Chen (2001) found that parental expectations for their child's educational achievement have the strongest relationship with students' academic achievement, while home supervision has the weakest relationship.

The relationship between parent involvement and educational achievement was also found to be stronger for global achievement indicators such as cumulative GPA rather than for subject-specific indicators. The most useful tools developed by Epstein (1995) about parental involvement includes six approaches: parenting (helping families to establish supportive home environments for children including childrearing and parenting skills), communicating (establishing two-way exchanges about school programs and children's progress), volunteering (recruiting and organizing parental help at school, home, or other locations), learning at home (providing information and ideas to families about how to help students with homework and other curriculum-related materials), decision-making (having parents from all backgrounds serve as representatives and leaders on school committees, councils) and collaborating with the community (identifying and integrating resources and services from the community to strengthen school programs) are the six types of parental involvement linking parental practice with certain outcomes. Each type of involvement encompasses a variety of practices to be undertaken by teachers, parents, and students and is theoretically linked with a variety of distinct outcomes for students, teachers, and parents as well. Meaningful parental involvement also means allowing parents actual decision-making power about what and how their children learn (Reyhner, 1992). By maintaining close relationships and frequent communication with the schools, parents can greatly contribute to their children's school-related outcomes and to the enhancement of more

caring and responsive school environments (Arnold, Zeljo, Doctoroff, & Ortiz, 2008; Barnard, 2004; Houtenville, & Hall, 2007).

Hoover-Dempsey, et al (2005), and Nyarka (2010) implied their reports that the first surrounding for all learners is home-based which in turn greatly influences their educational achievement. More specifically, family structure which is viewed in terms of the family's number of children, and parents such as whether the family has one parent, two parents, or more than two parents (Buchmann 2002, 169-170) are two related factors affecting student performance. Besides, family structure has been found to have been quite influential on the mental growth and development of the children (Hamdan, Auerbach, and Apter, 2009). Parenting as a family background factor has been found to be very important because it has a lot of influencing contributions to the children's academic growth. For instance, it is also claimed that single parent household appears to be less effective when compared with two-parent households due to inadequate social and economic resources and it is also argued that children whose parents are divorced usually have worse academic performance than their counterparts from intact families (Jeyne, 2002). But in a situation where the task is one-sided with either the mother or father alone (single parent), brings much problems in the life of the child. Whether divorced, or one of the parents is dead or parental separation or single never-married mothers or fathers are all single parents. Other researchers have shown that children training within single parenthood settings usually meet with several unpleasant values. According to McLanahan and Sandefur (1994), children from single parent homes are more likely to experience low academic achievement and aspirations. Elementary school children from intact biological families earn higher reading and math test scores than children in cohabiting, divorced-single, and always-single parent families (Armor, 2003). Adolescents from non-intact families have lower scores than their counterparts in intact married families on math, science, history, and reading tests (Sun and Li, 2008). Adolescents from single-parent families and cohabiting families are more likely to have low achievement scores, lower expectations for college, lower grades, and higher dropout rates than children from intact biological families (after controlling for other family socioeconomic factors) (McLanahan and Sandefur, 1994).

Other important variables associated with academic outcomes of adolescents have been types of parenting styles which are a set of behaviors that describe the parent and child interactions over a wide range of situations (Maher and Komaijani, 2006).

Baumrind's typology on parenting styles (1971) has been used to examine the differential impact of authoritative parenting and authoritarian parenting styles on developmental outcomes. Furthermore, Macoby and Martin (1983) expanded Baumrind's typology to include the detrimental effects of permissive parenting in addition to authoritative and authoritarian parenting styles.

Authoritative parents are characterized as having a high degree of responsiveness and warmth, combined with mutual reciprocation toward their children in setting rules and limits. Authoritative parents exhibit a low to moderate level of control and demandingness. Authoritarian parents are characterized as having a high degree of control and demandingness, with no openness toward their children's input regarding rules and limits. Authoritarian parents are extremely strict and exhibit little if any responsiveness or warmth. Permissive parents are categorized as either indulgent or neglectful. Indulgent parents are characterized by a high degree of responsiveness and warmth, but exhibit no control or demandingness in setting rules or limits. Neglectful parents do not exhibit any degree of either responsiveness or warmth, nor do they exercise any degree of control or demandingness. Empirically, parenting styles has been examined in several studies as a strong predictor of adolescent achievement outcomes (McBride-Chang & Chang, 1998; Bronstein & Duncan, 1996; Wintre & Yaffe, 2000). Findings have indicated that a significant relationship exists between the type of parenting style and academic achievement. In fact, some researchers have proposed that the authoritative parenting is associated with higher academic achievement (Steinberg, Lamborn, Dornbusch and Darling, 1992; Hickman, Bartholomae & McKenry, 2000).

In general prior Western studies mainly focus on examining the role of family background characteristics - particularly economic status - on educational outcomes (Cockburn & Dostie, 2007; Filmer & Pritchett, 1999). But, a very recent study in Africa has shown that family backgrounds which consist of family socioeconomic characteristics like parental education, family income, parents' occupation, single parent, two parent family and multiple spouse-family, parental attitude towards education and the general home environment, all constitute divers contributions to the academic performance of children (Ajayi, Muraino & Lawani 2011).

In Ethiopia too, despite few studies on factors affecting student academic achievement in general (e.g), deep analysis of causality or correlationality of family variables with secondary & preparatory school student academic performance is limited.

On one hand; parental involvement in school activities is an agenda that leaders, researchers, politicians recommend in media, meetings and conferences; on the other hand; empirical reports showing the influence of family background variables to school effectiveness in general or specifically to students academic performance in the context of Addis Ababa city administration in general or in the context of Kolfe- Keraniyo in particular is rare to the best of the researcher's effort to explore scientific reports. Hence; the intention of this study is to explore the relationship between some family variables and students' academic achievement in government preparatory schools.

1.2. Statement of the Problem

Students' academic success in learning, at least in terms of academic achievement, is either tacitly or overtly linked to in school and out school factors (Kreng (2013). In Ethiopia, following the enactment of the education and training policy (MOE, 1994), the number of secondary schools and hence student enrollment has been increasing from year to year. For instance; in 2015/16, 425,774 students enrolled in preparatory schools (grades 11-12) while 1,682,341 students enrolled in lower secondary schools (grades 9-10) across the country making the gross enrollment 10.6% and net enrollment 6% for the preparatory and 39.80% gross and 21% net enrollment for lower secondary school (MOE, 2016) while attending in 2,830 schools facilitated by 81,932 teachers. Similarly, in Addis Ababa city administration, in 2015/16, 147,713 students enrolled in grades 9-12 making GER 77.64% and NER 60.27% while gross enrollment for grades 11 -12 and grades 9-10 were 51.4% and 105.1% respectively. NER for grades 9-10 and Grades 11-12 for city administration were 55.02% and 32.47% respectively.

Beyond school building and increased enrollment, however; over the years, discrepancies have been observed in the performance of students in internal examinations (school based assessments) as well as in EGSECE exams at national level as well as in Addis Ababa city administration. For instance; in the last successive three years, percent of grade 12 students who score 50% and above in university entrance exam from government schools were below 50%. Also, majority of students who were eligible to join preparatory schools (grade 11) on the basis of grade 10 national exams (EGSECE) were students whose grade point averages (GPA) are below distinction ($GPA \leq 3.25$). Paradoxically, there is costs of schooling which includes in the form of direct costs (of books, school fees, uniforms and travel costs) and opportunity costs of

the children not being able to help at home, in the household or at the family farm, or to earn additional money with child labor (World Bank 2002; Admassie 2003) while attending schools; on the other hand students are not performing well in national examinations and teacher made tests. Such reality may indicate presence of quality problem and that is why now days quality deterioration is at the center of a daily agenda among education institutions, media, researchers, associations, politicians, employers and parents. Moreover; some times there are often blames on the poor performance of students in government schools some times shifted to the teachers and the school authorities, some times shifted to governments expansion at the expense of quality or some times shifted to parents role. That is , parents blame teachers for lack of dedication to duties. The teachers blame government for poor salaries hence they are poorly motivated, parents also accuse government for not equipping the schools with learning materials, government blame parents for not facilitating to do good home work and the students are blamed for lack of discipline and dedication to their studies.

Consequently, family variables including parent involvement has become one of the most debated facets of education today among educators, but has also become a salient topic among parents, social scientists, and politicians (Jeynes,2016) if children are to excel in school. Research in developed countries suggests that parental involvement and family variables are associated with youth academic success, but little is known about these relationships in developing countries (Chowa, Masa, & Tucker, 2013). Also, in developed nations, there is a consensus that parent, family, and community involvement in education correlates with higher academic performance and school improvement or when schools, parents, families, and communities work together to support learning, students tend to earn higher grades, attend school more regularly, stay in school longer, and enroll in higher level programs(NEA,2008).

In Ethiopia, adequate research on the contribution of parents to school success is not done well except as one factor. For instace; previous studies reported on students achievement at Bole secondary school in Addis Ababa (e.g Mathewos Tamiru, 2000), at Assela town, Oromia region (Zenebe, 2015), at Debre Markos town, Amhara region (Yazachew Alemu, 2013) ; female students performance (Tadesse, 2009; Teklu, 2013; Yeshimebrat et al, 2013; Yeshimebrat et al., 2009) or factors affecting EGSECE achievement of students in government and non-government schools of Addis Ababa (Getnet, 2009) were on factors affecting students performance in general suggesting lack of teachers, lack of educational facilities like laboratories, overloaded syllabuses,

poor attitude and lack of interest on the part of the students, poor teaching methods by teachers, large class size or high teacher-student ratio and family/home background of the students as the possible associations.

But, in such reports it is unclear which type of parental involvement and family variables may impact the academic performance of youth hierarchically. That is, to what extent family variables affect? Which family/parental variable influence more than the other? And why? such questions are not well addressed in the study reports. So, despite a combination of in school and out of school factors matter, there is need to carry out this study to obtain an authentic and current information on how family background influences students' performance in government secondary schools as family being the first social environment the child finds itself. Moreover; despite the fact that many educationists believe that family background has influence on children's performance in school, considering the fact that education starts from the home, not much empirical studies have been carried out in recent times to support this assertion especially in Addis Ababa or beyond or much of the data available on this topic are theories and opinions of individuals.

In addition, current knowledge regarding the nature and magnitude of the effects of parental involvement in secondary education is inconsistent and limited in scope or most of the existing research has investigated parental involvement and family variables in the primary and middle grades. Less is known about successful parental involvement and family variation in upper secondary school.

The current project seeks to expand knowledge of the different parental practices in secondary education, as well as their effects on the academic success of secondary school students provided that the study result will have practical and theoretical implications to local governments, educational planners, school communities, parents, counselors, parent teacher associations by providing empirical information in identifying and explaining the various family background variables and the influence of the variables on students' academic achievement.

This study, therefore; is intended to explore the relationship between some family variables and student academic performance in government secondary schools in Addis Ababa city administration.

1.3. Research question

1. What is the relationship between parents' socioeconomic status(education level, income, occupation) and academic performance of secondary school students?
2. What is the relationship between the academic performance of students from single parent families and those from two parent families?
3. What is the relationship between educational achievement of students and parenting styles and involvement in education activities?

1.4 . Objectives of the study

1.4.1 General objective

The general objective of this study was to explore the possible relationship between some family variables and student academic achievement in government secondary schools of Addis Ababa City Administration.

1.4.2. Specific objectives

To address the general objective, the following specific objectives were formulated:

- a. To assess the influence of family socioeconomic status (measured by education level, monthly income and occupation indicators) on secondary school students academic achievement
- b. To investigate the influence of family status (being dual, single parental structure) on secondary school students academic achievement
- c. To examine the influence of parental involvement on secondary school students academic achievement
- d. To examine the influence of parental style on secondary school students academic achievement.

1.5. Significance of the study

The role of education in any society is very vital and a systematic study into student's performance will be of immense use to educational planners, teachers, government officials or persons that are interested in the progress of the students. The study will be most significant to school principals, students, parents, educational planners, school counselors who would like to see their schools perform better in national examinations or teacher made tests and scientific community. For school principals, it provides data that used to improve their management practices by identifying the strategies employed by well performing schools for improved academic performance. Secondary school students would benefit from the study because findings will reveal the way students in well performing schools interact with other members of the school community (principals and teachers) and the school environment (such as school resources). Through this, students in poor performing schools would be encouraged to adopt strategies employed by well performing schools. Parents would also benefited from the study in that they get an information on how best to support the schools to bring about academic success, and this study will provide such information. The study would also add to the existing body of knowledge by testing the relationship between some family variables and student achievement in Addis Ababa City administration. Moreover, this research is believed to indicate possible areas of intervention that call government and non-government organs and thereby paves the way for more research to be conducted in this area. To the sub city administration, the schools and educational bureau it provides what has to be done to improve the problem in minimizing the negative impact of family variables on students' academic performance. Thus it helps them in adopting various approaches and strategies to curb the problem. To the researcher it helps him to link the academic or theoretical realities with the realities on the ground and it also serve him as to meet the requirement for the award of degree of masters in educational leadership.

1.6. Delimitation of the Study

The study targets preparatory grade 11 and grade 12 government school students in Addis Ababa city administration attending in 2016/17 (2009 E.C). With respect to geography, the study intends to consider Kolfe karaniyo sub city and the study were confined to three government preparatory schools selected randomly in the sub city namely Keranyo Medhanialem, Millennium and Ayer Tena considering available time, finance and facilities.

The study will not encompass Private Secondary Schools. Also the study is proposed to assess the influence of some family variables such as socioeconomic status (parents' education level, monthly income, occupation), family or parent involvement, family status (family size, parenthood) size on the students' academic achievement.

1.7. Limitations of the study

The study was limited by the fact that it relied on a self-rating questionnaire of students for parents to measure the extent to which they engage in various teaching learning activities. As the study is correlational type survey, it does not allow to draw conclusions about the causality between parental variables and children's academic achievement. The findings and conclusions of this study were mainly drawn on the data that was gathered from three preparatory schools among 65 secondary schools in Addis Ababa city administration, Ethiopia. This was due to inadequacy of time, fund and other resources. It can also be added that a more accurate and valid results could have been attained with larger samples and including opinions of parents themselves and school staffs. Hence, the findings and generalization of the study may only apply to Kolfe keraniyo sub city governmental schools regardless of private schools.

1.8. Operational Definition of Terms

Academic achievement – in the context of this study, refers to learning outcomes achieved by students in their course of study while they were in grade 9,10 and 11 expressed as mean mark results for teacher made tests and GPA for national exam results.

Family – in the context of this study, means living with nuclear families such as father, mother, brothers and sisters in the same home or living with extended families such as, great parents, guardians or step parents with whom respondents are living with and get material, financial, moral and socialization supports in the last two or less years.

Family Background or family variable -refers variation of parents or family involvement in educational matters, socioeconomic status,family status (family size, parenthood or structure).

Parent involvement (PI) – in this context, PI means active involvement of parents in home and school in relation to activities that boost academic performance of students in secondary schools.

Socioeconomic status (SES) – in general terms, is defined broadly in terms of social, cultural and economic resources, the extent to which individuals and groups' have access to these

resources and the relative value ascribed to the resources held by different individuals and groups or an individual's or a family's ranking on a hierarchy according to access to or control over some combination of valued commodities such as wealth, power, and social status (Mueller & Parcel, 1981). But in this study, SES is a composite variable typically encompassing family education level, family monthly income and family occupation.

Family status- in this context, addresses family size and parenthood or structure only.

Family size – in this context refers to the total number of dependent children, youth, and adolescent in a single family all living in one hamlet.

Family structure – describes either broken (sole parent) or intact (two parents) nature of family. A broken family in this context is one that is not structurally intact for various reasons; such as death of a parent, divorce, separation, desertion and illegitimacy in which case, the family was never completed (Coukline, 1996). It also refers parenthood which further imply living with two parents or single parent or with guardians

Term Usage- in this context, the following pairs of terms are used interchangeably and assumed to have equivalent meaning: academic achievement or academic performance; 'family variables or family background', children or adolescents. Moreover; parent is a sub set of family

1.9. Organization of the study

The study is organized into five chapters in line with the thesis writing guideline. Chapter one consists of background of the study; statement of the problem, objectives of the study, research question/hypothesis of the study; significance of the study, limitations & delimitations of the study, definition of significant term and organization of the study. Chapter two presents the literature review which comprises of the past studies about the influence of parent / family related variables on students' academic performance in general. It is organized according to the objectives of the study: the influence of parents' socioeconomic status, the influence of parental involvement, effects of family configuration on students' academic performance in schools. The theoretical and conceptual frameworks are given at the end of this section. Chapter three presents; research design, target population, sampling procedure and sample size, research instruments, validity and reliability of research instruments, data collection procedure, data analysis, ethical consideration of issues. Chapter four deals with results and discussions and finally, chapter five deals with conclusions and recommendations

CHAPTER TWO

Review of the related Literature

2. Introduction

This chapter is devoted to highlight the theoretical aspects related to academic achievement and family background in relation to secondary school contexts of developing countries. To illustrate developments; chapter two consists of the literature review that supports the study and comprises academic achievement and theoretical and empirical reports of some family variables and conceptual framework of the study.

2.1. Conceptualizing Academic Achievement

Academic achievement (AA) is important during late childhood and early adolescence because accomplishment, or relative lack thereof, during this developmental transition is a precursor to future academic and occupational endeavors (Elder & Conger, 2000; Masten & Coatsworth, 1998). Achievement could be seen as something which is a product of effort or series of efforts. Achievement is usually good but in most cases difficult. Eze (2009) described achievement as something which has been accomplished successfully, especially by means of exertion, skill practice or perseverance. She sees achievement as a test for the measurement and comparison of skills in various fields of academic study. Ifeako (1999) regards achievement as a change in behaviour exhibited at the end of a given period of time or within a given time range. Nwagu (1992:71) cited in Eze (2009) defined achievement as “a systematic and purposeful quantification of learning outcomes”. He explained that achievement involves the determination of the degree of attainment on individuals in tasks, courses or programmes of which the individuals were sufficiently exposed. Academic achievement is the yardstick used to measure school effectiveness (Sattes, 1985). According to Wikipedia (2013), academic performance is the outcome of education; it is the extent to which a student, teacher or institution has achieved their educational goals. Thus performance is characterised by performance on tests associated with coursework and the performance of students on other types of examinations (Kyoshaba, 2009).

Academic achievement is commonly measured by examinations or continuous assessment but there is no general agreement on how it is best tested or which aspects are most important - procedural knowledge such as skills or declarative knowledge such as facts (Sophie et al. (2011).

Youth who demonstrate higher academic achievement also are more likely to report lower drug use and decreased propensities for school dropout (Connell et al. 1995; Hawkins et al. 1992). Achievement is defined as outcomes that include individual student marks in a given year, school achievement examinations or standardized test scores in core subjects, grades or GPA, and teacher rating scales (Asante, 2010; Jegede, Jegede, & Ugodulunwa, 1997; Jeynes, 2003; Kiamanesh, 2005; Salami, 2008) cited in Chowa , Masa, Ramos and Ansong (2013). Henderson and Mapp (2002) indicate that student achievement is most commonly defined by report cards and grades, grade point averages (GPA), enrolment in advanced classes, attendance and staying in school, being promoted to the next grade, and improved behavior. Achievement tests result in academics have many functions which include: to enable us determine the relative position or rank of individual student with respect to their test performance. It also enables us to obtain information on the extent to which a student has attained the criterion performance.

In the context of this study, academic achievement or academic performance means both school based assessment mean scores of students while attending grade 11 and grade 12 students who are attending in government schools in the year 2008 -2009 E.C and national examination results achieved while taking grade 10 EGSECE to promote to grade 11.

2.2. Family Variables or Family backgrounds

Family is the primary cell of society where the child's upbringing must begin since his birth, still in cradle and now. Family background is a collective terminology comprising of parental involvement, social class/status, economic status, family size, family structure, parents' educational level, occupation, and other factors pertaining to family life. Family background has been conceived as the conglomeration of the family socioeconomic factors which consist of the following three components: parents' education, parents' occupation and family income; and the family social and cultural capital, family structure and other family demographic features (Marjoribank 1996, 378-382). Family background can be analytically separated into at least three distinct components as raised by Coleman (2008). These are: financial (physical) human capital (family income or wealth & parent education), and social capital (relationship among actors).

Many factors in the family background have some associations with students' success throughout school and in young adults' eventual educational and occupational attainment. Such variables include family structure (socio-economic status and intact/single-parent families), parental education level, parental involvement and parenting style (Jacob and Harvey, 2005). Family background or family variable is further broken down in to four categories: family engagement, family (parental) socioeconomic status and family (parental) status and parenting styles.

2.2.1 Family Involvement and their motivation

Past research has brought into being that parental involvement is related with the academic achievement of children and that parental motivation, attitude, support, and commitment effect children to do well in school (Bryant, Peisner-Feinberg, & Miller, 2000; Lee & Bowen, 2006; Yan & Lin, 2005) cited in Eldeeb (2012). It has also been stated that lower levels of parent education and economic status do not undesirably affect the act of children if parents have high motivation and aspiration for their child's achievement (Ogbu, 1987, 1994). On the other hand, though parental involvement is essential for all children, the nature of parental involvement changes according to race/ethnicity, parent education, economic status of parents, and family structure (Paratore, Hindin, Krol-Sinclair, & Duran, 1999; Schneider & Lee, 1990) cited in Eldeeb (2012). Practically, parents' involvement in their children's education has been found to improve students' attendance, and behavior in school as well as their completion of homework. There is a general agreement that parents' involvement enhances academic achievement (Sheldon & Epstein, 2005; Thorkildson & Stein, 1998; Walberg, 1984; Zellman & Waterman, 1998) cited in Eldeeb (2012). For the sake of this study, family support and engagement is divided in to parental involvement (PI) and parental motivation (PM) in teaching learning matters.

Parental involvement is defined in various ways in the literature. Epstein's (1990, 1995) typology of parental involvement includes six categories: basic parenting, facilitating learning at home, communicating with the school, volunteering at the school, participating in school decision making, and collaborating with the community. Other studies use a typology of parental involvement that is based on either intuitive appeal or factor analysis of existing data (Izzo, Weissberg, Kasprow, & Fendrich, 1999; Sui-Chu & Willms, 1996) cited in Chowa, Masa, and Tucker, 2013). Numerous studies, mostly from developed countries, have shown that parents are

more likely to be involved with their children's education at home than in school (Lee & Bowen, 2006; Mau, 1997; Patrikakou & Weissberg, 2000). The level of parental involvement has important implications for children's academic performance. Social cognitive theory suggests that youth absorb messages about appropriate behavior and socially accepted goals by observing and talking with important people in their lives (Bandura, 1977). Based on this assumption, parents have the potential to model positive attitudes and behaviors toward school, and research in developed countries such as the United States has shown that parental involvement contributes to youth academic success (Fan & Chen, 2001; Houtenville & Conway, 2008; Jeynes, 2003, 2007) cited in Chowa, Masa and Tucker (2013). In fact, children are more likely to apply themselves and perform better in school when their parents show an interest in their school work, are willing to assist them with homework, and are willing to hold their children accountable for completion of school assignments. Youth who are not working hard at school may begin to perceive school as valuable when parents actively demonstrate that they value school through involvement. Research findings have also shown that a continued effort of parental involvement throughout the child's education can improve academic achievement (Driessen, Smit & Slegers, 2005; Fan, 2001; Hong & Ho, 2005). Academic failure has been linked with risk behaviors and negative outcomes such as; substance abuse, delinquency, and emotional and behavioral problems (Annunziata, Houge, Faw, & Liddle, 2006). Parental involvement usually includes helping with homework, meeting with their children's teachers as well as participation in school functions and activities (Bachman, Nokali, and Votruba-Drzal, 2010). Research also has demonstrated that a positive relationship exists between at-home parental involvement and a range of school-related outcomes, including academic achievement, school engagement, and socio emotional adjustment (Izzo et al., 1999). At-home parental involvement activities (e.g., checking homework, communicating about school, and reading with children) are shown to be related to positive academic outcomes of minority students in the United States (Jeynes, 2003; Sui-Chu & Willms, 1996). Research also demonstrates that parental involvement at home and in school is linked positively to a variety of academic outcomes (Jeynes, 2003, 2007). Contextually, parent's involvements take place at home or in school. Home-based parental involvement includes helping students with homework, talking with them about school, expressing high expectations, encouraging school success, and providing structure conducive to learning (Altschul, 2012; Sui-Chu & Willms, 1996). School-based parental involvement includes

volunteering at school, participating in school events and school organizations, and communicating with teachers and school staff (Mau, 1997; Oyserman et al., 2007). In addition to influencing educational outcomes directly, parental involvement also might mediate the relationship between socioeconomic status (SES) and academic performance (Altschul, 2012; Lareau, 2011) in Chowa, Masa and Tucker (2013). Studies of the effects of in-school parental involvement in the United States also have yielded mixed results. Parental involvement in school is associated positively with academic outcomes, including grades (Barnard, 2004; Hill, 2001; Marschall, 2006), classroom behavior (Hill et al., 2004; Oyserman et al., 2007), students' aspirations (Hill et al., 2004), and school completion (Barnard, 2004). However, other studies find a negative effect of contact with the school on academic achievement trajectories (Fan, 2001), school engagement and socio emotional adjustment (Izzo et al., 1999), and math and reading scores (Sui-Chu & Willms, 1996). Generally, the negative relationship suggests that increased communication between parents and schools might be an indicator of academic difficulties that might have led to the parental involvement at school in the first place.

Another related factor is motivation. According to Maslow (1954), motivation is very important in learning and it is necessary at home and in school. Wlodkowski and Jaynes (1990) explain that in the broadest sense, motivation is "a value and a desire for learning". According to Mangal (2008), motivation may be regarded as something, which prompts, compels and energizes an individual to act or behave in a particular manner at a particular time for attaining some specific goal or purpose. Academic performance is usually as a result of motivation that children get from the people they interact with in their initial stages of life. Parents always want the best of their children and always want their children to live a better life than they did. Parents provide as many resources as they can, but this can also be negative to the child's education. Parents typically do not become involved with their children unless difficulty arises, which then can lead to frustration from the parents (Pomerantz, Wang and Ng, 2005). Wlodkowski and Jaynes (1990) also consider factors influencing motivation outside the school environment. They present four major influences on an individual's motivation to learn: culture, school, the child as an individual, and family. Pape (1999) states that "research also indicates that parents who are involved in their child's academic life have a profound effect on the child's ability to learn and help instill in them an appreciation for learning that can last a lifetime. Fager and Brewster (1999) discuss the benefits associated with parental involvement as involving improved

academic performance, improved school behavior, greater academic motivation, and lower dropout rates. Wlodkowski and Jaynes (1990) list the following as benefits of a positive relationship between teachers and parents: the establishment of mutual trust; the expressed shared goal of the best interest of the child; the creation of a vehicle for open communication; and the clarification of an attitude of collaboration and problem solving rather than blaming. Unfortunately, parents and educators are often seen holding one another at arm's length, uncertain of the role each should play.

Research has demonstrated a correlation between parent involvement and children's educational development and subsequent intrinsic academic motivation (Gottfried, Fleming, & Gottfried, 1994). Even if parents are unable to assist their children with a specific subject area or skill, they can still play a vital role by encouraging students' feelings of competence and control and positive attitudes towards academics as reviewed by Grolnick, Friendly, and Bellas (2009).

Ronald Ferguson's "research-based tips for high-achievement parenting" suggest that parents promote reading at home, discuss reading materials with their children in ways that encourage children to enjoy learning, and seek opportunities at home to discuss and apply what children are learning in school, among other activities. Ferguson further recommends that parents set clear and firm rules about homework, television watching, and other daily activities, and that they actively seek out-of-school opportunities and extracurricular activities that reinforce school lessons, encourage exploration and creativity, and develop children's special talents (Ferguson, 2007a). In other words, parents who are actively involved in their children's education and provide a stimulating learning environment at home can help their children develop feelings of competence, control, curiosity, and positive attitudes about academics.

Researchers emphasize, however, that many factors can hinder parents from providing these kinds of supports. Some parents may be grappling with outside stressors, time and resources constraints, or unfamiliarity with what role they might play. Therefore, parents' involvement and capabilities differ based on their unique contexts (Grolnick, Friendly, & Bellas, 2009). But while resources can limit parents' ability to become involved, that should not be taken to mean that their desire to do so is also limited; research has found that although parents with scarcer resources may be less active in school activities, they can still be entirely aware and supportive of their children's academic progress (Grolnick, Friendly, & Bellas, 2009).

Parents' beliefs and expectations also appear to strongly influence children's motivation. For example, parents who hold high expectations for their children's learning, believe in their children's competence, expose them to new experiences, and encourage curiosity, persistence, and problem-solving can help their children develop an intrinsic motivation to learn. By contrast, parents who are controlling use rewards and punishments for academic performance, or display negativity or anger about academics can discourage children from developing intrinsic motivation (Gottfried, Fleming, & Gottfried, 1994).

Likewise, when parents support autonomy, children are more likely to be intrinsically motivated and engaged in school and have a better ability to self-regulate at school (in other words, to take control of their own behavior and learning). Controlling parents are more likely to encourage extrinsic, rather than intrinsic, motivation in their children (Grolnick, Friendly, & Bellas, 2009). Some parental actions, such as praising children's intelligence rather than their effort and mastery of knowledge and skills, can send a message that intelligence is a fixed attribute - a belief that can lead children to avoid challenges or fear failure (Dweck, 2010).

2.2.1.1 Barriers to Parent Involvement

Definite family traditions have been significant factors contributory to student's academic achievement. But PI has barriers. For instance; the National PTA (1996) defines the greatest shared barriers as the lack of time, not being valued, and not knowing how to contribute. Additional barriers to parent involvement contain not understanding the educational system, childcare problems, language, cultural changes, and transportation problems. Little literacy levels, educational verbiage, superciliousness, boring meetings, and parents who have unmet requirements themselves are also barriers to parent involvement. Other barriers are created from opinions, assertiveness, and arrangements by teachers and schools. Teachers and schools assuming a passive role in involvement, poor communications on the part of the schools, and schools that emphasis on negative involvement are definite barriers to parent involvement (Liontos, 1992).

2.2.2. Socioeconomic status (SES)

Socioeconomic status (SES) is probably the most widely used contextual variable in education research despite definitions of socioeconomic status varies across time and place and it is a complex and relative concept. It is reasonable to expect that it will mean different things in

different contexts. In general terms, however, SES describes an individual's or a family's ranking on a hierarchy according to access to or control over some combination of valued commodities such as wealth, power, and social status (Mueller & Parcel, 1981). Socio-economic status usually refers to components of economic and social status that distinguish and characterize people (Morris et al, 2000). According to Jeynes (2002), the socio-economic status of a child is usually determined by parental occupation status, income level and the environment in which the child is brought up. The American Psychological Association (APA) Dictionary of Psychology (2007, p.871) definition of SES includes all the types of capital stating that:

Socioeconomic status is the position of an individual or group on the socioeconomic scale, which is informed by a combination or interaction of social and economic factors, such as income, amount and type of education, kind of prestige and occupation, place of residence and in some society's even ethnic origin and religious background.

Increasingly, researchers examine educational processes, including academic achievement, in relation to socioeconomic background (Bornstein & Bradley, 2003; Brooks-Gunn & Duncan, 1997; Coleman, 1988; McLoyd, 1998) cited in Sirin (2005). Qakes & Rasi (2003) assert that it is a fact that in families where the parents are privileged educationally, socially and economically, they promote a higher level of achievement in their offspring. The Saifi and Mehmood (2011) study on the effect of socio-economic status on students' achievement in which they used income, parents' education and occupation, material possessed at home, transport and servants as the indicators of socio-economic status. Data were analyzed by applying percentages. The findings revealed that parental education, occupation and facilities at home affect the student's achievement. Williams (1987) & Williams (1993), also give assert that the parents give a higher level of psychological support for their children through enriched atmosphere that promotes and encourages the development of skills required for success at school. One consistent finding is that parents from the higher economic status are more involved in their child's education. In this case, the higher the parent's education level, occupation status, income and their household income, the higher would be the parent's involvement in their child's education. As a result, the strength of parental involvement enables the children to achieve education success at school (Katsilis & Robinson's 1990). In general, in the context of this study, socioeconomic status is defined broadly in terms of education attainment, household income and occupation.

2.2.2.1 Education level

Parents are the first teacher of a child. The learning which a mother can deliver to her child is more worthwhile than the learning which can be delivered by a teacher elsewhere (Steven 1999). It has been found that those students who learn the basics of schooling from their parents are shaper and keener towards their studies compared to those students who were admitted to school at lower ages (Borodovsky & Gogarten 2010). Parents are like role models for the children and influential parents can influence the children better than those parents who do not have efficient personalities (ibid). The parent's education is important as a factor for SES because there is a correlation between high parental education and higher school attainment for the child (Anderson, Case and Lam, 2006).

Anderson, Case and Lam (2006) argued that this correlation could be due to educated parents being better able to assist their children with their school work, or it could be due to educated parents being able to afford putting their children in better schools, with a high quality of education. It is assumed that parents with a higher education have a high paying job, which allows them to be able to send their children to better schools, with a high quality of education. This also correlates with the parents income, which as it was stated above is one of the SES indicators used in this type of research. *Pamela and Kean (2010)* states that students whose parents have a tertiary level of education perform on average, significantly better in tests of science, reading and mathematical ability than do those whose parents have only basic schooling. Parent's income is noted as having a significant effect on a child's cognitive development in relation to the family being able to afford not just good education or effective pre-primary schools that allow for beneficial cognitive development, but also nutrients which allow for full development. We can then conclude that parent's level of education and income has a strong association to how children will perform at school and on IQ measures which shows the effects of SES.

A study by Campbell, Hombo, and Mazzeo (1999) indicated that students who reported higher parental education levels tended to have higher average scores. Parent educational status reflects the potential for social and economic resources such as household incomes that are available to the student. According to Grissmer (2003), parents' level of education is the most important factor affecting students' academic achievement. He submits that parents' educational

background influence the academic achievement of students. According to this, a parent would be in a good position to be second teachers to the child; and even guide and counsel the child on the best way to perform well in education and provide the necessary materials needed by him/her. This indicates that a child that comes from an educated home would like to follow the steps of his/her family and by this, work actively in his/her studies. He said further that parents who have more than a minimum level of education are expected to have a favored attitude to the child's education and to encourage and help him/her with school work. They provide library facilities to encourage the child to show examples in activities of intellectual type such as reading of newspapers, magazines and journals. They are likely to have wider vocabulary by which the children can benefit and develop language fluency.

Educated parents give early independence training and achievement training. Atkinson and Feather (1966) argued that successful parents tend to provide early independence training which is necessary in the development of achievement motivation. In independence training, parents insist on the child's self-reliance and autonomy in decision making situations. While in achievement training, they insist on high achievement through imposing high standards of excellence in tasks, setting high goals for the child and expecting the child to show competence in doing tasks well.

Illiteracy of parents could have a negative effect on the academic performance of their children. Children whose parents are illiterates have been seen to lack home encouragement. This implies that as some illiterate parents refuse to provide their children with needed textbooks, they are discouraging them from learning. David (2007) stated that textbooks aid studies after normal school teaching. Students from illiterate parents lack assistance because of parents' illiteracy and ignorance such parents fail to motivate, reinforce, give reward or punish their children on their academic performance which might have forced them to be serious in learning. On the other hand, literate parents have interest in their children's academic performance. They struggle to provide them with needed materials and give adequate encouragement. Having known the importance of education, they draw a reading time-table for their children and also arrange for part-time teachers to teach their children and check their workbooks from time to time. They provide adequate motivation and reward when the children perform better in class assignments tests and examinations. Taking care of children and making provision for their needs, especially educational needs, are very important in determining the academic performance of children.

Dave and Dave (1971) found that higher percentages of rank holder belong to homes with higher parental education and higher percentage of failed students belong those who have lower parental education. Rumberger (1995) found that students' "family background is widely recognized as the most significant important contributor to success in schools". Another study by Baker & Stevenson (1986) on mothers of eighth-grade students from middle school indicated that well-educated mothers have more knowledge of their child's schooling, are more aware of their child's education and his/her achievement and they take greater effort to monitor their child's academic progress than the less-educated mothers. A study conducted by Poston and Falbo (1990) also found that parents who were highly educated often communicate and interact with their children. Consistent with the studies above, Lueptow (1975) in his study also found that students who are high achievers at school are from urban areas, who have educated parents with a higher occupation status and a higher income home. Previous studies have showed that students who come from families with illiterate parents have significantly less school success than students from educated parents (Martini, 1995; Walker *et al.*, 1998) and intact families (Amato & Keith, 1991). Some potential explanations were - parents in such settings reported lower educational expectations, less monitoring of children's school work and less overall supervision of social activities compared to students from highly educated and intact families (Jacob and Harvey, 2005). More educated parents are assumed to create environments that facilitate learning (Williams, 1980; Teachman, 1987) and involve themselves in their children's school experiences and school environments (Steinberg *et al.*, 1992; Useem, 1992). However, there are students who come from low-income and single parent homes who are high achievers and many students from high socio-economic and intact families who are low achievers. Students may also come from homes where the parents are highly educated and involved in their children's education, yet achieve poorly at school (Jacob & Harvey, 2005). Grissmer (2003) adds that parent's level of education is the most important factor affecting student's academic performance. Musgrave (2000) adds that a child who comes from an educated family would like to follow the footsteps of his/her family and by this, work actively in his/her studies. Students who have a low SES earn lower test scores and are more likely to drop out of school (Eamon, 2005; Hochschild, 2003). SES has also been shown to override other educational influences such as parental involvement (McNeal, 2001). It is believed that low SES prevents access to vital resources and creates additional stress at home (Eamon, 2005; Jeynes, 2002).

2.2.2.2 Family Income (FI)

Family income is frequently used as an indicator of family wealth and is seen as an important measure of family background. As Perl (1973) pointed out, parents from high-income families are able to provide their children with learning resources, such as books and other educational materials, a place and a time to study, and a neighborhood of same-income families and children from well-educated families. He argued, on the basis of his empirical research, that students from high-income families are likely to attend schools where the other students come from a similar background, a situation that augments their educational achievement. According to Perl, this opportunity also applies to high-income families where parents are not so well educated (Perl, 1973). Since family income affects decisions about investment in children, as well as parental stress and whether the general home environment is conducive to development, current and lagged family income have the potential to affect child outcomes at any particular age. Significant studies have suggested that socioeconomic status is one of the best predictors of student achievement (Coleman, et al., 1966; Lee, Bryk, & Smith, 1993). When income is examined as a separate variable the research shows a consistent positive relationship between family income and student achievement. Income and education are highly correlated in the United States (Hauser & Warren, 1997).

Hill and O'Neil (1994) found that increasing family income is associated with an increase in student achievement. Grissmer, Kirby, Berends, and Williamson (1994) had similar findings on the relationships between income and mathematics as well as income and reading achievement. Studies have showed that students who come from low-income parent homes have significantly less school success than students from high socio-economic (Martini, 1995; Walker *et al.*, 1998) and intact families (Amato & Keith, 1991; Astone&McLanahan, 1991; Downey, 1994; Entwisle& Alexander, 1995; Heiss, 1996). The economic deprivation perspective has been given enormous attention by researchers of African family processes, specifically with regard to single-mother homes (McLanahan, and Wilson, 2009). Fifty percent of African female-headed families live below the poverty line, which makes them the most impoverished group in Africa (Taylor et al., 2000).

The proponents of the economic deprivation perspective argued that the potential effects of single parents is not due to the physical absence of one parent but to the absence of the economic resources generated by the absent parent. Therefore, the effects of marital status on child well-

being will be reduced when income is statistically controlled or when families are matched on income level (kamau Lydia Muthoni, 2013). For instance, McLeod et al. (2004) argued that parents who experienced income loss became more rejecting of their children and that their children were at risk for developing feelings of inadequacy associated with parental rejection. However, the empirical research on the effects of income has not been adequately tested (Amato & Keith, 2001) Furthermore, economic position of parents is one of major factors that can influence greatly the educational upbringing of a child. In most families, either or none of parents may be earning income sufficient enough to sustain the family, faced with malnutrition and other emotional and psychological effects, the mental development of the child would be greatly retarded. Orhunger (1990) adds that a low income family with plenty of feeding problems may produce children who physical and mental development poses real challenges to the schools effort at optimum development of the child.

2.2.2.3 Parental occupation or employment status

Good parental occupation has a positive effect on the academic achievement of students. Employment for majority of the people means economic security through earning and access to financial resources (Hassan, 2009). Parental employment is expected to have significant effect on the welfare of their children. Bakken (2003), points out that, as far as academic performance is concerned, parental occupation might have both positive and negative impact. Firstly, the source of income is essential for meeting the child's educational needs as well as participating in social activities.

Research studies from Mehmood & Saifi (2001) & Hassan (2009) indicate that there is a relationship between occupational status and academic performance. Lal (1967) undertook a study to investigate the relationship of parental occupation with academic achievement. The sample of the study consisted of 1359 randomly selected high school students (age range 14 to 17 years), studying in 22 urban and six rural secondary schools in Lucknow District. The study showed that there was a positive relationship between the level of parental occupation and mean high school marks. It was also seen that the difference in the mean achievement scores of the students belonging to different occupational groups were statistically significant. Analysis of covariance showed that this relationship held good even when intelligence (measured by progressive matrices test) was held constant. According to Kalil (2005), high occupational status

people have more resources to meet the needs of their homes, while the low occupational status people have limited resources for the same. An unstable or insufficient fund limits families' ability to purchase resources and goods (schooling, housing, food and cognitively enriched learning environment) that are critical for successful development and academic performance.

Research by Conger, Ge, Elder, Lorenz & Simons, 1984; Elder & Caspi (1988) cited in Gabriel et al (2016), also established that parents of low occupational status may not feel free with or capable of assisting their children in school work. The researchers further report that these parents may not become involved in their children's schooling in ways that enhance performance. Hill *et al*, (2004) notes that parents of low occupational status have been known to destruct schools or even go to the extent of monitoring rather than collaborating with school due to perceived or actual discrimination of their children by the school. Jordan & Plank (2000) found out that lack of guidance and support from parents of low occupational status was the primary reason that low income, middle school students were less likely to attend college despite the parents' aspirations and involvements. Lower academic performances, completion of fewer years of schooling and lower career aspirations were associated with adolescents from lower socio-economic status backgrounds and ethnic minorities in America.

Hill *et al* (2004) and Trusty (1999) in Gabriel et al (2016) reported that children from homes with low income, due to low parental occupations, may model their parents' lower levels of educational attainment. They may not work hard to attain high grades in school. He further observes that the link between academic performance and future occupational success may be less clear for children from low socio-economic status homes. Trusty (1999) pointed out that children from parents with high occupational status have been known to model their parents' positive educational experiences and higher prestige occupations. They may serve as role models for the children's own occupational aspirations.

In general, professionally, sound and ethical parents can furnish a confident, sophisticated and wonderful environment to their children which will be equally beneficial for the students as well. There is a strong difference which can be found between the students of professionally sound parents and those of less professionally sound parents (Sandefur; Meier & Hernandez 1999).

2.2.3. Family Status

In a society where contemporary families are highly diverse, there are single parents, females as providers, parents with dual careers, same-sex couples, parents with joint custody, and stepfamilies (Eshleman & Bulcroft, 2006). In such cases, the members most likely to be affected are children, who may be confused with so many concurrent changes children emotionally as well as intellectually. Also, McNamara (2000) suggested that adolescence is a stressful time where children go through intellectual, social, physical, and psychological changes.

2.2.3.1 Family size (small or large)

Family size in this context refers to the total number of children in the child's family in addition to the child himself. The type of family that a child comes from either monogamous or polygamous family usually has impact on the child academic performance. Durosaro and Durosaro (1990) in their study attempted to investigate the relationship between students' family size and their academic achievement; they found out that family size influenced academic achievement. Their study reveals that children from small size families performed better at school than their counterparts from both average size and large size families. Children from larger families are found to do worse than children from smaller families as revealed by Lacovou (2001). He found out those children lower down the birth order do worse than those higher up the birth order. According to Adler (2009), first born or the oldest child is usually advantaged by a good deal of attention and warmth during the early stage of life, which he entertains all alone. The economic implication of large family size is better explained in Okunyi (2004) who observed from his study that as families get larger, parents cannot give their children the same amount of individual attention. They could not afford to provide them with so many of the things which will help them to make the best possible use of their years at school such as educational aids, and quiet comfortable rooms in which to do home work undisturbed by the television, outings to places of interest, leisure time pursuits, and opportunities for traveling. What is most probably important of all, according to him is the fact that the parents of large families were found not to talk with their children to the same extent as parents of small families. Chepng'eno (2010) observes that the larger the family the less attention and devotion of each child by the parents and the more the difficulties encountered by the parents in meeting the needs of the children, both physically and emotionally.

2.2.3.2 Parenthood (living with single or both parents)

In a society where contemporary families are highly diverse, there are single parents, females as providers, parents with dual careers, same-sex couples, parents with joint custody, and stepfamilies (Eshleman & Bulcroft, 2006). Life in a single parent family can be stressful for both the child and the parent and such families are faced with the challenges of diminished financial resources, assumptions of new roles and responsibilities, establishment of new pattern in intrafamilial interactions and reorganization of routines and schedules (Agulanna 1999). In single parent families, children may suffer some psychological and social problems which affect their academic performance. Studies have showed that students who come from single-parent homes have significantly less school success than students from high socio-economic (Martini, 1995; Walker *et al.*, 1998) and intact families (Amato & Keith, 1991; Astone & McLanahan, 1991; Downey, 1994; Entwisle & Alexander, 1995; Heiss, 1996). Barry (2005) study shows that children from single-parent households do not perform as well in school as children from two-parent households. There are several different explanations for this disparity in achievement. Single-parent households have a variety of challenges; they have less income, there is a lack of support for the single parents, which increases stress and conflicts. Single parents often struggle with time-management issues due to balancing many different areas of life on their own. Single parents are less involved with their children's academic affairs and therefore give less encouragement and have lower expectations of their children than the two-parent households. Furthermore, Jeynes (2002) examined relationships between changing family structures and students' school-related outcomes, and shows that in relation to two-parent families, children in single-parent families have lower academic performance because they are more susceptible to peer pressure, to engage in deviant behavior, have higher dropout rates from high school, and have greater social and psychological problems. Single-parent families can be stressful for both the child and the parent. Such families are faced with the challenges of diminished financial resources, assumptions of new roles and responsibilities, establishment of new patterns in intra-familial interaction and reorganization of routines and schedules. These conditions are not conducive for effective parenting. This is because when the single parent is overburdened by responsibilities and by their own emotional reaction to their situation, they often become irritable, impatient and insensitive to their children's needs. As study conducted by Turker (2003) reported that those who grow up in fatherless families do worse on measures of scholastic

achievement, educational attainment, psychological health, behavioral problems, delinquency, stable family formation, early sexual debut, partner satisfaction, economic success, and even physical health. The bottom line is that single motherhood may reduce the quantity of parental time with children, both for mothers and fathers. This may translate into less socialization, less supervision and monitoring, and less involvement and emotional support. Furthermore, single parenting can rob children of gender-specific role-modeling (Sigle-Rushton and McLanahan, 2012). Father absence – resulting either from divorce or non-marital pregnancy might harm the ability of children to form healthy relationships (Fleming and Gottfried, 2004). Coley (2008) has argued that single mother families feature less hierarchical and more peer-like relations between parent and child than two-parent families do. Single mothers are more reliant on their children for support and assistance than married mothers are. As a result, their children are under-exposed to authority relations typical of hierarchical institutions related to education and employment. Fathers may also have cultural capital that mothers lack, such as knowledge about professions and industries dominated by men (Scott and Black, 2009). Danesy and Okedian (2002), in their study, lamented that street hawking among secondary school students have psychologically imposed other problems, such as sex networking behaviour, juvenile delinquent behaviour, which take much of the student school time that necessitated the poor academic performance and drop out syndrome noticed among young school students. Similarly, (Okunniyi 2004) asserted that children who suffer maternal and paternal deprivation may experience academic problems including truancy in the school. This is because the child may lack some necessities like school fees, books and uniforms. These conditions, according to the authors, are not conducive for effective parenting because when the single parents are overburdened by responsibilities and by the own, emotional, reaction to their situation, they often become irritable, impatient and insensitive to their children's needs.

In general, research suggests that differences in the academic achievement of children from single- and two-parent families can be related to changes in the economic circumstances of families and to variations in the quality of parent-child interactions in the different family structures. The influence of the family in the socialization process, family interest and support and the psychological stimulation of the child's academic development by parents and other significant persons in the home environment are important in influencing student's academic ability, achievement and motivation.

2.2.4. Parenting style

Studies have documented that parenting has a powerful influence in child development and is often associated with child outcomes including school-relevant outcomes (e.g., Lamborn, Mounts, Steinberg, & Dornbusch, 1991). Inconsistent results regarding the effects of parenting styles on children's academic outcomes have been found within western and eastern societies. While children in western societies would benefit more from the authoritative parenting style in terms of academic outcomes (Baumrind, 1972; Fletcher et al., 1995; Weiss & Schwarz, 1996), their counterparts in eastern societies would benefit more from the authoritarian parenting style (Chao, 2001; Dwairy & Menshar, 2006; Leung et al., 1998; Steinberg et al., 1992; Steinberg et al., 1994). It seems that the relationship between parenting styles and children's academic achievements is inconsistent across cultures.

2.2.5 Homes-School Relations and Academic Performance

Henderson and Berla (2004) argue that the most accurate predictor of a student's achievement in school is not income or social status, but the extent to which that student's family is able to: create a home environment that encourages learning; express high (but not unrealistic) expectations for their children's achievement and future careers; and become involved in their children's education at school and in the community. Henderson and Berla (2004) argue that when parents are involved in their children's education at home they, do better in school.

Student achievement improves when parents become involved in their children's education at school and in the community. Steinberg (2006) shows that the type of parental involvement that has the most impact on student performance requires their direct participation in school activities. Steinberg's (2006) three-year study of 12,000 students in nine high schools in the US revealed that community involvement draw parents into the schools physically and are most effective in improving academic achievement through attending school programs, extracurricular activities, conferences, and back to school nights. It was concluded that when parents come to school regularly, it reinforces the view in the child's mind that school and home are connected and that school is an integral part of the whole family's life.

Snow, Barnes & Chandler (2001) in their two-year study of home and school influences on literacy achievement among children from low-income families, found that the single variable most positively connected to all literacy skills was formal involvement in parent-school activities

such as PSTA participation, attending school activities, and serving as a volunteer. It is therefore clear that financial factors aside, community involvement has a significant impact on the success of a school in terms of academic achievement. Studies have also been conducted in South Africa on the role of community participation in education. Their study revealed that parental support in provision of good learning environment, physical facilities and spiritual health is crucial in the success of the learner.

A series of studies by Lezotte (2010) showed that home environment is one of the key correlates of effective schools. According to Lezotte's (2010) Effective Schools Model, home-school relations is a general term used to describe a myriad of activities, projects, and programs that bring parents, businesses, and other stakeholders together to support student learning and schools. Wright and Saks (2008) are of the opinion that inviting parents to identify academic goals and standards and quantify measures of progress sends the message that what students learn and how well they learn it is not an issue just for teachers and administrators but is a real priority for the community as well. According to Hammer (2003) the home environment is as important as what goes on in the school. Important factors include parental involvement in their children's education, how much parents read to young children, how much TV children are allowed to watch and how often students change schools. Achievement gap is not only about what goes on once students get into the classroom. It's also about what happens to them before and after school. Parents and teachers have a crucial role to play to make sure that every child becomes a high achiever. Parental influence has been identified as an important factor affecting student achievement. Results indicate that parent education and encouragement are strongly related to improved student achievement (Odhiambo, 2005).

2.2.6 Theories applicable to the study and Conceptual framework

The study is guided by the following theoretical frameworks

2.2.6.1 The System's theory input-output model

Advanced by Ludwig Von Bertalanffy (1956), the theory, according to Koontz and Weihrich, (1988) postulates that an organized enterprise does not exist in a vacuum; it is dependent on its environment in which it is established.

They add that the inputs from the environment are received by the organization, which then transforms them into outputs. As adapted in this study, the students (Inputs) are admitted into the school, with different admission points (gender sensitive), from different social economic backgrounds and are from various school backgrounds, when they get into the preparatory schooling, the management of the school transforms them through the process of teaching and learning and the students output is seen through their academic performance. The selection of the model is based on the belief that, the quality of input (students via family variables) invariably affects quality of output in this case academic performance

2.2.6.2 Effective School Model: Parental involvement

The search for effective schools is one of the main education reform initiatives taking place in many countries today (Gray 2004; Petty et al., 2007).

One question that has preoccupied researchers for decades is why some public schools consistently perform well in examinations while others consistently perform poorly. One of the leading researchers in school reform or effectiveness, Edmonds (1981), noted the following characteristics of successful schools: strong administrative leadership, focus on basic skills, high expectations for student success, frequent monitoring of student performance, and safe and orderly schools. Following on the work of Edmonds, research work by Scheerens and Bosker (1997) in mid 1990s came up with eight essential characteristics of successful schools. The characteristics they identified were: monitoring of student progress, focus on achievement, parental involvement, creating a safe and orderly climate, focused curriculum, strong leadership, cooperative working environment and time on task. In his book, *What Effective Schools Do*, Lezotte (2010) noted the following as the most important characteristics of effective schools: strong instructional leadership, clear and focused mission, safe and orderly schools, climate of high expectations for success, frequent monitoring of student progress, positive home-school relations, and opportunity to learn. So, parental involvement and parenting style is one factor that has a direct association with respective students' academic performance. Further research shows that when parents are involved in the education of their children, educators, students, parents, schools, community leaders, and society in general benefited (Bronfenbrenner, 1979; Kohl, Lengua, & McMahon, 2002; Shaffer, 2009) cited in Paz (2011). Parental involvement is defined in various ways in the literature. Epstein's (1990, 1995) typology of parental involvement

includes six categories: basic parenting, facilitating learning at home, communicating with the school, volunteering at the school, participating in school decision making, and collaborating with the community. Home-based parental involvement includes helping students with homework, talking with them about school, expressing high expectations, encouraging school success, and providing structure conducive to learning (Altschul, 2012; Sui-Chu & Willms, 1996) cited in Chowa, Masa, & Tucker, 2013).

School-based parental involvement includes volunteering at school, participating in school events and school organizations, and communicating with teachers and school staff (Mau, 1997; Oyserman et al., 2007). These definitions have been applied in developed countries but seldom explored in developing countries, with notable exceptions for Nyarko's (2010, 2011) studies in Ghana. Nyarko uses the contextual description of parental involvement in which in-school parental involvement includes communication with teachers about school progress and school visits (Nyarko, 2011) and at-home parental involvement includes encouragement of children to succeed, monitoring of homework, and attending field trips (Nyarko, 2010). Distinguishing between involvement at home and in school can be instructive for at least two reasons. First, some studies that differentiate between home- and school-based parental involvements find contradictory effects.

Namely, home-based involvement has significant positive effects, while school-based involvement has significant negative effects related to academic outcomes (Izzo et al., 1999; Sui-Chu & Willms, 1996) cited in Chowa, Masa, & Tucker, 2013). Second, interventions promoting parental involvement vary based on the context in which involvement occurs. Interventions that promote involvement at school might include teacher training to encourage building relationships between families and schools, while interventions to promote involvement at home might include parental workshops that build parents' educational skills and knowledge.

Parenting styles described as patterns of behaviour that primary caregivers use to interact with their children is another factor in students' performance. Baumrind (1971, 1989, and 1991) and Maccoby and Martin (1983) outlined demanding and responsiveness as two independent dimensions of parenting. Demanding refers to the extent to which parents show control, power assertion, maturity demands, and supervision in their parenting. Responsiveness refers to the extent to which parents show their children affective warmth, emotional expression, acceptance,

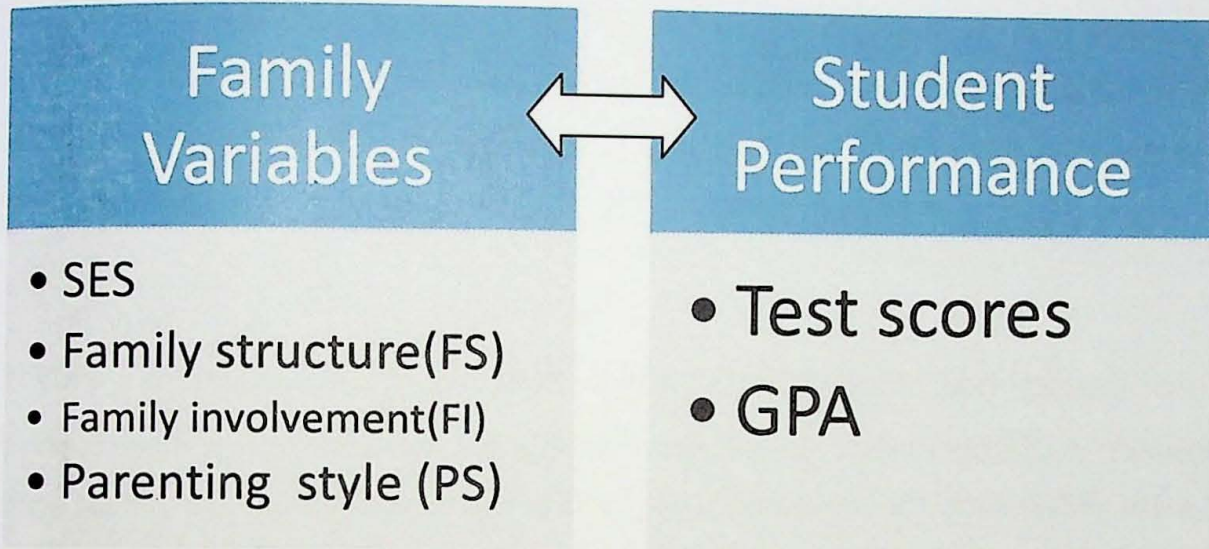
and support. Based on the degree of parental demanding and responsiveness, four parenting styles have been described (Baumrind, 1991; Maccoby & Martin, 1983): *authoritative* (both demanding and responsive), *authoritarian* (demanding but not responsive), *permissive* (responsive but not demanding), and *neglectful* (neither demanding nor responsive). Each type of parenting is believed to differentially influence child's academic outcomes. Baumrind's (1978) three parenting styles of authoritarian, permissive, and authoritative are often used in studies investigating parenting styles in relation to diverse child outcome variables, such as academic achievement, self-confidence, aggression, delinquent behavior, and substance abuse (Dornbusch et al., 1987; Hart et al., 1998; Hill, 1995; Lamborn, Mounts, Steinberg, & Dornbusch, 1991; Shumow, Vandell, & Posner, 1998) cited in Cramer (2002). Researchers typically have identified these three parenting styles based on the levels of control and warmth displayed by parents on a regular basis and in a variety of situations.

2.2.6.3. The Household Production Theory

Household economics considers the family as not only a consuming unit but also as a producing unit. This theory states that a combination of time and resource inputs produce different types of commodities (Becker, 1993). In order to produce what Becker calls "quality children," parents must spend time at home and devote real resources to foster an environment that promotes and provides formal education (1993). Since families differ, time and money spent on investments will vary, as will attitudes that may be conducive to children's ability and willingness to learn. Ermisch and Francesoni (1997, 2000) completed two papers built on the household production model addressing the association between childhood parental employment, parental education levels, and subsequent education of children. Their findings show that time and money made available to a child, affect the child's educational attainment. Children whose mothers work more during their children's early stages of life have less educational attainment compared to children whose mothers spend more time at home with them (Ermisch and Francesoni, 2000).

2.2.7 Conceptual Framework

The aim of the study was to determine the magnitude and direction of the relationships between family variables (SES,FI,FS,PS) and secondary school students academic performance (measured by school based assessment results or classroom test scores and national examination expressed as GPA)



The above diagrammatic expression is to indicate that family variables has been tested in relation with students academic achievements which is measured by school based test scores & commulative GPA of students .

This is to explore the relationship between those variables and students academic achievements.

CHAPTER THREE

Research Methodology

3. Introduction

This Chapter outlines the manner in which the study was conducted. The key components are the research design, target population, sampling and sampling techniques, research instruments for data collection, Validity and reliability of instruments, data collection procedure, and data analysis techniques.

3.1 Research Design

The study employed descriptive survey (correlational) type/principles because, according to Kerlinger (1973) descriptive survey design is a branch of social scientific investigation which studies large and small populations or universe by selecting and studying sample chosen from the population to discover the relative incidence, distribution and interrelations. That is, the research design for the study used a structured questionnaire for the purpose of collecting quantitative data on the study variables to identify patterns of relationships and differences. The rationale behind the use of a descriptive survey was to enable the researcher to have access to a large number of students in a relatively short period of time, in order to gather facts that relate to the area under study which is one of its advantages. It is correlational because the study intends to investigate the relationship between family variables and academic performance. According to Fraenkel and Wallen (1996), correlation research describes an existing relationship between variables. Gay (1996) points out that correlation research attempts to determine whether, and to what degree, a relationship exists between two or more quantifiable variables. Waters (2009) adds that correlation research is a quantitative method of research in which you have two or more variables from the same group of subjects to determine the relationship between the stated variables.

3.2 Variables of the study

The choice of this research design for the study was based on the fact that the researcher did not manipulate variables. The dependent variables of the study is academic performance or achievement which is measured by the EGSCE grades (GPA) and mean scores obtained by schools for the period 2008 – 2009 E.C and grades 11 &12. The independent variables of the study were family background variables: family involvement in academic matters; SES of family expressed as education level, occupation and income, and family status (measured by family size and parenthood).

3.3. Research setting

The study took place in Addis Ababa city administration. Addis Ababa is the largest urban city in Ethiopia, established before 120 years ago. It is a city where the federal governments of Ethiopia, Africa Union headquarter, many international organizations and diplomatic communities are situated. Currently for administration purpose, the city is divided further to ten sub cities and 116 woredas.

3.4.Target population

The target population for the study were grade 11 and grade 12 government preparatory school students attending in 2009E.C in Addis Ababa city administration. In Addis Ababa city administration, there are 65 secondary and preparatory schools which are financed and managed by city government and 44,804 students enrolled in the current academic calendar. But for the seek of manageable the target population was 3496 in the selected three schools of kolfe keraniyo sub-city administration.

3.5. Sampling Procedure and Sample size

Since I am a school director coordinating daily routine activities and on- job student, to make manageable my research project, I applied multistage simple random sampling (sub city → school → grade level → classroom → gender selection).

Moreover; since the unit of analysis was not sub city and there are thousands of students per sub city, geographically, one sub city called kolfe Keraniyo was selected randomly.

Furthermore; in kolfe Keranyo there are eight secondary & preparatory schools during the study period. Among these, three secondary & preparatory schools were further selected using simple random sampling techniques (lottery method) and then, data available on student populations during field work are indicated in Table 1.

In addition, in Addis Ababa, despite there are school choices (private, community, public, faith which are monthly tuition based), students who attend or go to government owned schools are assumed to be comparable in terms of living standard (at least students are from middle or lower income families). So, assuming that students' backgrounds are homogeneous, 10% of the total population (i.e. $3496 \times 10\% = 351$ students) were proposed to be participants of the study with additional 10% contingency. And this is in favor of what Gay (2003) advises stating that a sample size of at least 10% of the population is sufficient. Furthermore; since students vary in gender, grade level and school location, equal proportion stratified random sampling techniques were applied using allocation factor $350/3496 = 0.10$.

Table 1: Student population and sample size (2009 E.C)

School	Grade 11			Grade 12			Total sum
	M	F	T	M	F	T	
Ayer Tena	301	422	723	423	492	915	
Millennium	376	340	716	321	337	658	
Keraniyo	56	115	171	118	195	313	
Total	733	877	1610	862	1024	1886	3496
Sample size (0.1x total)	74	88	162	86	103	189	351

Source: Author field survey

As indicated in Table one, the sample size is 351 students of which 162 students (M=74, F=88) from grade 11 and 189 students (M=86, F=103) from grade 12 that were drawn randomly during the actual data collection.

3.6 Data Collection

The study utilized document in the form of student record and a self-administered questionnaire to collect opinions and perceptions of students. Kothari (2004) stated that questionnaires offer considerable advantage in administration, presents an even stimulus potentiality to large numbers of people simultaneously and provides the investigation with an easy accumulation of data. Questionnaire is a set of questions prepared to ask a number of questions and collect answers from respondents relating to the research topic. It's on the basis of these strengths that the instrument was chosen. The questionnaires have both closed and open questions. The questionnaires were divided into Four parts; section A of the questionnaires covered the demographic details of the respondents, section B the influence of parents' economic status on students' academic performance, section C the influence of Parent/Family engagement/involvement and section D the effect of parental style(for details see appendix I).

3.7 Instrument Development :Validity and Reliability

Student record sheet was formatted to collect previous student academic performance results in school based assessment and national examination along with student bio and school data which needs no further validation process. But in the case of questionnaire, for some items, it was partly or wholly adapted or adopted or theory driven constructs organized by the researcher based on the guiding research questions. Recognizing that inappropriate questions, incorrect ordering of questions, incorrect scaling, or bad questionnaire format can make the survey valueless, as it may not accurately reflect the views and opinions of the participants, a further process took place. As a result, besides, intensive literature review, expert opinion and pretest among a smaller subset of target respondents were useful methods for checking a questionnaire and making sure it is accurately capturing the intended information.

3.7.1 Instrument Validity

Validity of the instrument for data collection was validated by submitting the initial drafts of the instrument to three experts: one in sociology of education, one in measurement & evaluation and another thesis supervisor because according to Amin (2005) content and construct validity is determined by expert judgment who provides constructive feedback by comparing data items with basic research questions. The experts were subjected to rigorous scrutiny in order to

ascertain the clarity, relevance, adequacy and other attributes which a good research instrument should possess.

3.7.2 Instrument Reliability

To determine reliability of research instruments, a pilot study was conducted. The questionnaire was trial- tested using 30 students at Gulele sub city which is entirely outside the geographical scope of the study. To determine the reliability of the questionnaire, the scores from 30 respondents in the trial testing of the instrument was used in establishing the internal consistency using the Cronbach Alpha procedure. The internal consistency reliability estimate yielded 0.725 for parental involvement, 0.76 for authoritarian parenting, 0.72 for authoritative parenting, and 0.74 for permissive parenting (see appendix). Overall, all the scale had an alpha level of 0.73. Garson (2006) posited that reliability of 0.60 is common in exploratory research. However, an alpha of at least 0.70 or higher is needed, overall to make any scale reliable for measurement. All the scales met the requirement for internal consistency and acceptability. Generally, the pretest helped improve the survey instrument and helped to ensure that the issues of validity and reliability were adequately addressed. These results showed that the instrument was fairly reliable, which means it good for the study

3.8 Procedures of data collection

Before the researcher went to the field to gather the data needed for this study, a formal introductory letter from the Department of Educational planning was obtained, introducing the student as a Masters student who intended to undertake the study among the students in Kolfe Keraniyo sub city secondary & preparatory schools that were randomly selected. The letter was to gain permission from the three head-teachers in the three schools in order to conduct the study. Once permission was granted by the respective head-teachers, the researcher together with the research assistant sought the assistance of some of the teachers in the three schools, introduced ourselves and the purpose of the study to them, and offered training to those who willingly agreed to help with the gathering of the data. The researcher explained the study to teachers as a study which sought to examine the influences of family variables on the academic performance of preparatory school students in Kolfe Keraniyo sub city. It was also explained that only students who had been randomly selected, after picking were the ones questionnaires

were to be distributed to. Again, research assistants were given assurances of assistance from the researcher in case of any difficulty or problem in the course of the data collection process.

Data collection after preliminary administrative processes, took place over a two months period in the month of November & December 2016, with a week being allocated to each study area after pre-test of the research instrument had been conducted to gather quantitative data which served as the primary source of data for the study. The data collection process was done in two phases. In the first phase, a well-structured questionnaire with pre-coded responses was purposefully designed in order to obtain the data appropriate for this study. The items in the questionnaire were grouped into three main sections: background information on student, background information on parents and student's perception of parenting styles. Ethical issues bordering on voluntary participation and confidentiality were duly explained to the students followed by reading and explaining of the various instructions on the research instrument to ensure that they understood what the study sought to achieve from them. The researcher was on hand to explain the aim of the study to the students and address the concerns and difficulties the students encountered in responding to the items in the questionnaire. The presence of the teachers in the classes supervising the administration of the questionnaires by the students helped the students to feel more relaxed, which was expressed in their willingness to participate in the study and also the freedom in answering for clarification to questions they did not understand. At the end of the data collection process involving the use of questionnaires, the researcher expressed gratitude and appreciation to all the students who voluntarily accepted to participate in the study, as well as the research assistants who play supervisory roles in the process for their support and time.

The second phase of the data collection process involved gathering data on the academic performance of students. In the selected High Schools, schools had no a software database into which the performances of students were entered to calculate their average performances for a term and for over a period of terms. With ethical issues of confidentiality addressed, permission from the head-teacher sought and granted, the names of the students selected for the study were identified, the performance of the students which were in files and shelved were pulled out one after the other with the help of the student record officer of each school and the research assistant, and the average performances of students for the previous term recorded.

3.9 Data Processing : Coding, Editing, Entry, and Cleaning

In order to ensure easy data entry and analysis of the data quantitatively, there was the need to need to code the responses of the students. A coding scheme was, therefore, developed to change the responses in the questionnaire from words into numerical data. Coding the responses was, however, easy since the responses to the items in the questionnaire were already pre-coded and were closed ended type of questions. Academic performances of students were also put into categories and given codes as well.

The second stage of the data management process involved the editing of the data during and after the collection process. Data editing is imperative in the data management process in order to find out whether the questions yielded correct answers and also whether the close ended responses were not exhaustive and thus need to be reviewed. Again, this process was essential in ensuring data collected from the field was appropriately modified for entry into the computer program for analysis. For instance, through data editing, responses which did not apply to respondents because of a choice of response over another were coded -999 = Not applicable.

After coding and editing the data, they were entered into the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) Software (Version 20) by the researcher. Variables and their labels, as well as their codes were defined in the variable view phase of the SPSS programme while numerical coded data were subsequently entered into the data view of the software programme. A data file and output were created and saved to ensure access whenever needed.

Thirdly, a thorough check was important to help eliminate all possible errors and mistakes that may have been entered into the SPSS program. Since data entry errors are common and subsequently analyzed data could have errors in them especially due to errors in coding, the researcher used all available means known for identifying and checking for errors to eliminate all possible errors and cleaned the data as a result. For instance, missing values which gives information about data which may not have been coded or entered wrongly were used to ensure that the data was clean and devoid of errors.

3.10 Data Analysis Techniques

Once, data from questionnaires were compiled, sorted, edited, classified and coded into a coding sheet, data was analyzed using both descriptive and inferential statistics. Statistical tally system was used to generate frequency counts from the responses so as to prepare frequency distributions. Percentages mean and standard deviation were calculated from the responses out of the total study sample response per item. The hypotheses were tested using parametric and non parametric tests such as correlations, Analysis of variance (ANOVA), independent t- test and multiple Regressions.

3.11. Ethical Consideration

Students' admission points to preparatory schools and academic performance summative results are property of the school. The researcher therefore sought permission from the school authorities to conduct the research. The researcher also assured respondents that the study was strictly academic and that utmost confidentiality would be observed. In general, the researcher; conducted the study in such a way that results obtained did not offer misleading information, assured respondents' confidentiality and protection of their privacy through anonyms offered questionnaires and veil the school identity, up-to-dated them orally about their freedom to withdraw from the questionnaire/ investigation at any point without penalty, and participants be knowledgeable about the research objectives and the method of recording their responses. The data used in this study will be anonymously coded and cannot therefore be traced back to individual students or schools.

CHAPTER FOUR

Results and Discussions

4. Introduction

This chapter presents results and discussions following the research objectives. This study investigated influence of family variables on student's academic performance in government preparatory schools in Addis Ababa city administration, Ethiopia. This was in the light that, although students may be of comparable abilities, learn in the same environment and follow the same syllabus, their academic performance still varies. Despite the fact that the Government of Ethiopia has been funding both lower and upper secondary schools, there is still poor performance among the students.

The study sought to determine the relationship between some parents'/family variables on students' academic performance in upper secondary government schools (grades 11-12), to establish the influence of family background on students' academic performances. The study adopted both correlational and descriptive survey designs. Simple random sampling was used to select the sample included in the study, the setting/schools. Questionnaire method was used for data collection. The collected data was analyzed using both descriptive and inferential statistics using the statistical package for social scientist (SPSS) version 20. The information for this study was gathered by use of questionnaires as the main research instrument. The questionnaires were administered to the principals, students and PTA chairperson from the selected schools.

4.1. Questionnaires Return Rate

As already stated in chapter three of this paper, a questionnaire with closed and open-ended items was prepared for students in the selected schools in Addis Ababa city administration. Thus, 388 copies of questionnaire were distributed (with an extra 37 or 10% of the sample size to manage incomplete cases or non return rate), to selected schools of grade 11 and grade 12 as indicated in Table 1. 19. Questionnaires from students did not turn back and 24 questionnaires were not filled properly and hence rejected. As a result, 345 questionnaire copies were returned on time and filled properly with 89.37% rate of return.

4.2. Descriptive statistics of respondents' by Gender, Grade Level and Parental issues

Table 2: Respondents profile by Gender, Grade and Parental issues

Category		Frequency	(%)
Gender	Male	157	45.5
	Female	188	54.5
	Total	345	100
Grade level	Grade 11	158	45.8
	Grade 12	187	54.2
	Total	345	100
Family status	Both biological parents	283	82
	Single biological parent	35	10.1
	Other guardian	27	7.8
	Total	345	99.9
Family size	1-2	224	64.9
	3-4	121	35.1
	Total	345	100
Family size influence on academic activities	yes	45	13
	No	227	65
	Not sure	73	21.2

As indicated in Table 2, the gender distribution for students was almost the same with the female respondents slightly higher (54.5%) and male (45.5%). This means the students were well distributed in terms of gender and therefore were likely to give information which is relevant for the study. Similar pattern is observed for grade level.

4.3. Statistical Tests of Academic Performance of Respondents

Table 3: Descriptive information for Academic Achievement

Achievement	Group data	frequency	Valid %	Cumulative %
G 12 in G11 mean	50 -65	131	38	38
	65.01-80	190	55.1	93
	80.01 -95	22	6.4	99.4
	95.01 -100	2	6	100
	Total	345	100	
G10 &G9 Transcript mean	50 -65	152	44.1	44.1
	65.01-80	168	48.7	92.8
	80.01 -95	25	7.2	100
	95.01 -100	-	-	-
	Total	345	100	
G10 EGSECE GPA	2.00 -2.25	4	1.2	1.2
	2.251 -3.00	120	34.8	35.9
	3.01-3.25	148	42.9	78.8
	3.251 -3.75	47	13.6	92.5
	3.751- 4.00	26	7.5	100
	Total	345	100	

Note : G 12 in G11 means grade 12 students results while they were in G11

Data on the recorded academic performance was collected using five liker scale (1 = Below 50; 2 = 50 – 65; 3 = 65.01- 80; 4 = 80.01– 95; 5 = 95.01 – 100 for grade nine (G9) and ten (G10) , and for grade 12 students performance while they were in grade11), and using five liker scale (1= 2.00 – 2.250; 2= 2.251 – 3.00; 3 = 3.01 – 3.250; 4 = 3.251 – 3.750; 5 = 3.751 – 4.00) for G10 EFSECE result. In Ethiopian education policy scoring a mean of 50 and above in any school based assessment or a GPA of 2: 00 and above in any national examination is the minimum requirement to pass the next level. Table 3 displays that compared to different categories, the largest proportion of student performance in G11, G9&10 and G10 EGSECE were 55%, 48.7% and 42.9% respectively falling in the middle performance category. Also, the data also suggest that more than 93%, 92% and 78% of student's performance were below 80.01 for G11 and for G9&10 and below 3.251 for G10 EGSECE. Dividing the range 50 -100 in to three equal parts further and labeling as lower, middle, and higher performance, suggest that the majority of students performance, in both measures, falls in average or middle performance category. And this may not be a surprising fact when taking in to account facilities and inputs of schools and living standards of parents as the majority of student who join government schools are who cannot afford to pay private schools which are tuition fee based. In terms of gender and grade level (Table 4), academic performance of male categories seem greater than female counter parts in both grade levels and in both performance indicators. Possibly household burdens may make such differences.

Table 4: Academic Performance by Gender and Grade Level

Grade level	Gender		G10 EGSECE	G9&10 Transcript	G12 mean in G11
Grade11	Male	Mean	3.03	2.57	
		N	72	72	
		Std. Deviation	.731	.499	
	Female	Mean	2.53	2.51	
		N	86	86	
		Std. Deviation	.890	.503	
	Total	Mean	2.76	2.54	
		N	158	158	2.66
		Std. Deviation	.855	.500	
Grade12	Male	Mean	3.19	2.75	85
		N	85	85	.646
		Std. Deviation	.994	.754	2.77
	Female	Mean	2.93	2.68	
		N	102	102	102
		Std. Deviation	.870	.632	.543
	Total	Mean	3.05	2.71	2.72
		N	187	187	187
		Std. Deviation	.935	.689	.594
Total	Male	Mean	3.11	2.67	
		N	157	157	
		Std. Deviation	.884	.654	
	Female	Mean	2.75	2.60	
		N	188	188	
		Std. Deviation	.899	.581	
	Total	Mean	2.92	2.63	
		N	345	345	
		Std. Deviation	.910	.615	

Applying independent t-test assuming equal variance, there was a significant difference in the G10 EGSECE achievements between males ($m = 3.11$, $sd = .884$) and females ($m = 2.75$, $sd = .889$) performances; $t(343) = 3.779$, $p = 0.00$) but non significant for others. The result is consistent with several study reports suggesting significant differences in academic achievement of male and female students exist (Aggarwal, 1983; Shah, 1993; Khare and Garewal, 1996; Muller, 1998; Joshi, 2000; Devi and Mayuri, 2003; Deary et al., 2004; Bruni et al., 2006; Tella, 2007; Leeson et al., 2008; Elizabeth, 2009; Chaturvedi, 2009; Umunadi, 2009; Garikai, 2010; Sarsani and Ravi, 2010; Asthana, 2011) as well as no gender difference in educational achievement of students (Ryckman et al., 1986; De Smedt et al., 2003; Sunitha, 2005; Priess and Franova, 2006; Halawah, 2006, Nuthana, 2007; Naderi et al., 2009; Singh and Parveen, 2010). By grade level, also there was a significant difference between grade 11 and grade 12 performances in G10 EGSECE ($t(343) = -2.970$, $p = 0.003$) and in G 9&10 ($t(343) = -2.628$, $p = .009$).

Table 5: Intercorrelations of Student Achievement

		G11 mean of G12	G9&G10 transcript	G10 EGSECE
G11 mean of G12	Pearson Correlation	1	.141**	.159**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.009	.003
	N	345	345	345
G9&G10 transcript	Pearson Correlation	.141**	1	.464**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.009		.000
	N	345	345	345
G10 EGSECE	Pearson Correlation	.159**	.464**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.003	.000	
	N	345	345	345

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

As indicated in Table 5, generally, there were a weak, positive and significant association among academic performance indicators except between G9&G10 transcript and G10 EGSECE which is moderately related ($r = .464$, $p = .01$). Also, applying a simple regression method, G9 & G10 performance accounts 21.5% ($R^2 = .215$) of G10 EGSECE performance and 2% ($R^2 = .020$) of G11 performance while G10 EGSECE performance predicts 2.5% ($R^2 = .025$) of G11 performance. Both the correlation and regression coefficients suggest that as length of time the administration of exams, or distance between grade levels increases, the strength of relationship decreases. May be the nature and complexity of subjects taught, less concentration to education a result of age of adolescents, similarity of school facilities.

4.4 Parenthood and Academic Performance

Table 6: Parenthood and academic performance

living with		G12 mean in G11	G9&10 Transcript	G10 EGSECE
Both biological mother and father	Mean	2.71	2.65	2.94
	N	283	283	283
	Std. Deviation	.603	.630	.903
	Sum	766	751	832
	Mean	2.69	2.57	2.74
Single parent	N	35	35	35
	Std. Deviation	.676	.558	1.094
	Sum	94	90	96
	Mean	2.59	2.48	2.89
	N	27	27	27
Other guardian	Std. Deviation	.636	.509	.698
	Sum	70	67	78
	Mean	2.70	2.63	2.92
	N	345	345	345
	Std. Deviation	.612	.615	.910
Total	Sum	930	908	1006

With regard to family structure, as indicated in Table 2, the majority of students (82%) are living with their both biological mother and biological father (dual parenthood) while about 10.1% of students are living with either biological mother or biological father (single parent). Table 2 also depicts that more than half of respondents (>50 %) family size or number of household living together in the same home including respondent is from one to two per household and an equivalent percent of respondents (about 65%) reported that family size has no influence on resource allocation of parents and hence on education matters. As indicated in table 6, student's academic performance, both in teacher made tests and national examination, decreases when students living conditions change from intact family (living with both biological father and mother) to broken family such living with a single parent (either biological mother or father) to living with other guardians (biologically related relatives such as brother, sister or non biological guardians). In both academic performance indicators, results of students living with dual parents

are above the average point of the whole respondents. In terms of family size, the opinions reported by respondents show that as family size increases, school based assessments are not affected by household size increment but for national examination case, as family size increases, performance decreases (Table 7). On the other hand; comparing respondents who reported that family size affects academic activities (yes), with respondents who reported that family size do not affect academic activities (Table 2), mean performance of respondents who believed that family size affects learning outcomes is less than mean performance of respondents who reported family size is not a factor, both in school based and national examination academic performance (Table 7).

Table 7: Family Size and Academic Performance

family size		G12 mean in G11	G9&10 Transcript	G10 EGSECE
1- 2	Mean	2.68	2.62	2.95
	N	224	224	224
	Std. Deviation	.623	.616	.929
3- 4	Mean	2.72	2.65	2.85
	N	121	121	121
	Std. Deviation	.595	.615	.872
Total	Mean	2.70	2.63	2.92
	N	345	345	345
	Std. Deviation	.612	.615	.910
family size effect		G12 mean in G11	G9&10 Transcript	G10 EGSECE
yes	Mean	2.62	2.56	2.62
	N	45	45	45
	Std. Deviation	.650	.586	.834
no	Mean	2.72	2.66	3.01
	N	227	227	227
	Std. Deviation	.563	.635	.955
not sure	Mean	2.66	2.60	2.81
	N	73	73	73
	Std. Deviation	.731	.571	.758
Total	Mean	2.70	2.63	2.92
	N	345	345	345
	Std. Deviation	.612	.615	.910

Table 8: One- way ANOVA test for parent hood

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
G12 result in G11	Between Groups	1573481.349	2	786740.674	3.189	.042
	Within Groups	84362351.162	342	246673.541		
	Total	85935832.510	344			
Transcript	Between Groups	.874	2	.437	1.155	.316
	Within Groups	129.376	342	.378		
	Total	130.249	344			
G10 mean	Between Groups	1.231	2	.616	.743	.476
	Within Groups	283.331	342	.828		
	Total	284.562	344			

With regard to family size influence on educational activities, applying independent t-test assuming equal variance, there was a significant difference for G12 students while they were in G 11 between being from 1-2 family member and being from 3-4 family member $t(343) = -2.837, p = 0.005$) but insignificant for others (Table 8).

From the One Way ANOVA table (Table 8) there is mean difference among parenthood groups for G12 students performance in G11 ($F(2,342) = 3.189, p < .05$), but non significant for other measurement areas. That is, the F ratio of the ANOVA tells us that some sort of statistically significant differences exist somewhere among the groups being studied where $p < .05$. But since F static does not tell us where those differences are, subsequent, post hoc analyses are meant to specify what kind and where. Scheff test was employed since it is more often associated with the ANOVA and results suggest that the mean difference is significant slightly between dual parent respondents and single parent respondents but not statistically significant at 0.05% for other groups.

4.5 Socioeconomic status (SES) and academic performance

Increasingly, researchers examine educational processes, including academic achievement, in relation to socioeconomic background or SES.

4.5.1 Monthly income and academic performance

Table 9: Family Income and Student Academic Performance

Gross monthly income		G12 mean in G11	G9&10 Transcript	G10 EGSECE
below 4000	Mean	2.63	2.56	2.85
	N	251	251	251
	Std. Deviation	.575	.579	.838
	Sum	660	643	716
4001 - 8000	Mean	2.75	2.69	2.87
	N	72	72	72
	Std. Deviation	.550	.620	.872
	Sum	198	194	204
above 8001	Mean	3.27	3.23	3.91
	N	22	22	22
	Std. Deviation	.883	.685	1.231
	Sum	72	71	86
Total	Mean	2.70	2.63	2.92
	N	345	345	345
	Std. Deviation	.612	.615	.910
	Sum	930	908	1006

In a six liker scale, the gross monthly income of parents with whom students living now constitute 24.1% (Birr 2000 and below), 48.7% (2001- 4000 birr), 13.9% (4001 – 6000 birr), 7% (6001 – 8000 birr), 3.2% (8001 - 10000 birr) and 3.2% (more than 10,000 birr) suggesting that about 72.8% of respondents parents monthly income is less than /equal to 4000 birr. Collapsing the six liker scale in to three, Table 9, suggest that as monthly gross income of parents increases, generally student's academic performance, both in school based tests and national examination, increases.

Table 10: Correlations between academic performance and income

		G 11 of G12	G9 & 10 Transcript	G10 mean
Gross monthly income	Pearson Corre	.235**	.245**	.203**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000
	N	345	345	345

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Applying Pearson correlation assumptions, suggest that there is a weak, positive and significant correlation between monthly gross income and G12 performance in G11 ($r = 0.235$, $p = 0.01$); between monthly gross income and G9 & G10 transcript ($r = 0.245$, $p = 0.01$); between monthly gross income and G10 EGSECE ($r = 0.203$, $p = 0.01$) (Table 10).

Table 11: ANOVA table for income and academic achievement

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
G11 mean of G12	Between Groups	2856839.462	2	1428419.731	5.880	.003
	Within Groups	83078993.049	342	242921.032		
	Total	85935832.510	344			
G9&10 Transcript	Between Groups	9.315	2	4.658	13.171	.000
	Within Groups	120.934	342	.354		
	Total	130.249	344			
G10 EGSECE	Between Groups	23.198	2	11.599	15.178	.000
	Within Groups	261.364	342	.764		
	Total	284.562	344			
AA	Between Groups	319536.533	2	159768.266	5.915	.003
	Within Groups	9237774.824	342	27011.037		
	Total	9557311.357	344			

Statistically, ANOVA results between income groups and G12 performance in G11 ($F(2,242) = 5.880$, $p = 0.003$); between income groups and G9&10 transcript ($F(2,242) = 13.171$, $p = 0.00$); between income groups and G10 EGSECE ($F(2,242) = 15.178$, $p = 0.00$); and between income groups and all achievement indicators combined ($F(2,242) = 5.915$, $p = 0.003$) suggest that there is significant relationship between parents' economic status and students' academic performance (Table 11). That is as income increases, academic achievement also increases. Applying post

hoc tests using scheffe also suggest that as income increases academic performance also increases for all performance indicators at $p = 0.05$: for G12 performance, G9&10 transcript, G10 EGSECE and for all achievement indicators combined. This agrees with Bryk, & Smith (1993) who suggested that economic status is one of the best predictors of student achievement.

4.5.2 Education Levels of Parents and Academic Performance

Parent educational status is considered one of the most stable aspects of Socio Economic Status (SES) because it is typically established at an early age and tends to remain the same over time (Sirin, 2005). In terms of education level; using a five liker scale (1=No formal education 2= Primary School Education, 3= Secondary School Education, 4 = College/TVET diploma holder, 5= Bachelor degree and above holder) the larger percentage is primary education (26.1%) and lower proportion is bachelor degree (7.8%) for father, while for the mother the larger proportion is no formal education (29%) and lower proportion is bachelor degree (2.3%). As indicated in Table 12, education levels of parents and students performance have different patterns. For instance, for grade 12 students while they were in grade 11, as the education level of father increases from no formal education ($x = 2.68$) to primary education ($x = 2.82$), academic performance seems to increase and then decreases from primary to secondary education ($x = 2.74$) to college diploma ($x = 2.45$) and then increases to university degree and above ($x = 2.67$), and compared to the total mean ($x = 2.70$), achievement is above average when father's education status are either primary or secondary.

Table 12: Education level of parents and academic performance

Education level		Father			Mother			Guardian		
		G11	Transcr	G10	G11	Trans	G10	G11	Transcr	G10
-999	mean	2.63	2.57	2.81	2.58	2.44	2.89	2.71	2.65	2.92
	N	54	54	54	36	36	36	319	319	319
	sd	.681	.536	.953	.604	.504	.747	.610	.622	.927
	% ofTS	15.3%	15.3%	15.1%	10.0%	9.7%	10.3%	92.8%	93.0%	92.6%
	%N	15.7%	15.7%	15.7%	10.4%	10.4%	10.4%	92.5%	92.5%	92.5%
No formal Education	mean	2.68	2.61	2.66	2.78	2.65	2.96	2.62	2.50	3.00
	n	44	44	44	100	100	100	8	8	8
	sd	.771	.618	.861	.719	.609	.875	.518	.535	.756
	% ofTS	12.7%	12.7%	11.6%	29.9%	29.2%	29.4%	2.3%	2.2%	2.4%
	%N	12.8%	12.8%	12.8%	29.0%	29.0%	29.0%	2.3%	2.3%	2.3%
Primary education	mean	2.82	2.58	3.03	2.64	2.65	2.75	3.00	3.00	3.00
	n	90	90	90	83	83	83	2	2	2
	Sd	.552	.618	.965	.483	.551	.809	.000	.000	.000
	% ofTS	27.3%	25.6%	27.1%	23.5%	24.2%	22.7%	0.6%	0.7%	0.6%
	%N	26.1%	26.1%	26.1%	24.1%	24.1%	24.1%	0.6%	0.6%	0.6%
Second. Education	mean	2.74	2.74	3.07	2.65	2.63	2.98	2.50	2.38	2.50
	n	88	88	88	92	92	92	8	8	8
	Sd	.536	.616	.881	.601	.675	1.016	.535	.518	.535
	% ofTS	25.9%	26.5%	26.8%	26.2%	26.7%	27.2%	2.2%	2.1%	2.0%
	%N	25.5%	25.5%	25.5%	26.7%	26.7%	26.7%	2.3%	2.3%	2.3%
Diploma	mean	2.45	2.60	2.71	2.85	2.73	3.23	2.00	2.50	3.00
	n	42	42	42	26	26	26	4	4	4
	Sd	.550	.701	.708	.613	.778	1.142	.000	.577	.000
	% ofTS	11.1%	12.0%	11.3%	8.0%	7.8%	8.3%	0.9%	1.1%	1.2%
	%N	12.2%	12.2%	12.2%	7.5%	7.5%	7.5%	1.2%	1.2%	1.2%
Bachelor and above	mean	2.67	2.67	2.96	2.75	2.75	2.50	3.00	2.25	3.00
	n	27	27	27	8	8	8	4	4	4
	Sd	.620	.620	.980	.463	.463	.535	1.155	.500	1.155
	% ofTS	7.7%	7.9%	8.0%	2.4%	2.4%	2.0%	1.3%	1.0%	1.2%
	%N	7.8%	7.8%	7.8%	2.3%	2.3%	2.3%	1.2%	1.2%	1.2%
Total	mean	2.70	2.63	2.92	2.70	2.63	2.92	2.70	2.63	2.92
	n	345	345	345	345	345	345	345	345	345
	Sd	.612	.615	.910	.612	.615	.910	.612	.615	.910
	% ofTS	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
	%N	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

TS – total sum

For national examination, as the education level of father increases from no formal education ($x=2.66$) to primary education ($x=3.03$) to secondary education ($x=3.07$), academic performance seems to increase and then decreases from secondary education to college diploma ($x=2.71$) and

then increases to university degree and above ($x = 2.96$), and compared to the total mean ($x = 2.92$), achievement is below average when father's education status is diploma holder. For motherhood, for national examination, as the education level of mother increases from no formal education ($x = 2.96$) to primary education ($x = 2.75$) there seems a decrease in students performance and then rises to secondary education ($x = 2.98$) to college diploma ($x = 3.23$) and then decreases from College completion to university degree and above ($x = 2.50$), and compared to the total mean ($x = 2.92$), the highest support seem by mothers who have completed College diploma.

Table 13: Directional Measure of Education Level and Achievement

		Eta (η) value			Parents combined
		Father	Mather	Guardian	
Nominal by interval	G12 in G11	.167	.174	.211	.265
	G9&10	.109	.114	.113	.202
	G10 EGSECE	.173	.156	.334	.334
	AA	.167	.174	.265	.265

An association statistic, eta, that is used when one variable is nominal and the other variable was approximately normal or scale, was used to investigate the strength of association between education level of parents and academic achievement. As indicated in the Table 13, eta value ranges from $\eta = 0.109$ to $\eta = 0.265$ which is small to medium according to Cohen (1988). For the associations between academic achievement (AA) and father, mother and guardian education level, Eta squared would be 0.027, 0.030 & 0.070 indicating that the two variables share 2.7%, 3% & 7% common variance respectively. The result is consistent with a study in India by Sharma (1984) who reported that parental education was positively associated with academic achievement of 230 ninth grader students parents. Several researchers (Krishnan, 1977; Saini, 1977; Singh and Shrivastva, 1983; Sharma, 1984; Baker and David, 1986; Cherian, 1992; Felner and Minsuk, 1995; Pal et al., 1996; Shah, 1993; Kohl et al., 2000; Devi and Kiran, 2002; Tvani and Losh, 2003; Sunitha, 2005; Navarrete et al., 2007; Acharya and Shobhna, 2009; Garikai, 2010; Muola, 2010; Bahago, 2011; Sharma and Tahira, 2011) also confirmed positive influence of parental education on academic achievement of their children. A study conducted by Ermisch and Francesconi (2001) suggests that there is positive relationship between parents' level of education and their children's academic achievement. This study revealed that mother's level of education as compared to father's education was strongly associated with the child's academic achievement.

4.5.3 Occupational status of parents and academic performance

Table 14: Occupational status of Parents statistics

	Father		Mother		Guardian	
	frequency	Valid %	frequency	Valid %	frequency	Valid %
-999	50	14.5	38	11.0	315	91.3
employed in organization	271	78.6	143	41.4	20	5.8
pensioner	16	4.6	6	1.7	2	.6
unemployed	8	2.3	158	45.8	8	2.3
Total	345	100.0	345	100.0	345	100.0

With regard to occupation, it is a natural fact that the livelihood of parents (father, mother, and guardian) may not be identical and the general possibility may be employed in an organization including self created organization, retired/ pensioner, or unemployed including searching works and these have implication on the educational activities of children directly or indirectly. As indicated in Table 14, as the occupational status of parents (father, mother and guardian) change from employed to unemployed, academic performance of student's increases and then decreases while moving to retirement in G9 & G10 and G10 EGSECE performance. In terms of current parents economic source, table 14, majority of respondents fathers (**78.6%**) and a little than half of respondents (41.4%) mothers are employed organization(government, non government and self) while 2.3% of father and nearly half of respondents mothers (45.8%) are unemployed.

Table 15 also depicts that as the occupation status of father changes from employed to unemployed to retired, respondents academic performance changes respectively (mean =2.65 , sd =.638) to (mean =2.69 , sd =.479) to (mean =2.50 , sd =.53) for G9&10 performance while for G10 EGSECE changes from (mean =2.91 , sd =.923) to (mean =3.19 , sd =.655) to (mean =3.25 , sd =.46).

Table 15. Occupation and academic performance

Occupation status level		Father			Mother			Guardian		
		G11	Transcr	G10	G11	Trans	G10	G11	Transcr	G10
-999	mean	-558.32	2.56	2.80	-419.18	2.45	2.84	-461.56	2.64	2.92
	N	50	50	50	38	38	38	315	315	315
	sd	502.20	.541	.948	501.106	.504	.754	500.325	.615	.926
	% of TS	14.5%	14.5	14.5%	11.0%	11.0	11.0%	91.3%	91.3%	91.3
	%N	.	14.1	13.9%	.	10.2	10.7%	.	91.5%	91.5
Employed in organ.	mean	-426.04	2.65	2.91	-452.55	2.73	2.95	-498.20	2.65	2.90
	n	271	271	271	143	143	143	20	20	20
	sd	496.58	.638	.923	500.590	.673	1.064	513.810	.671	.718
	% of TS	78.6%	78.6 %	78.6%	41.4%	41.4	41.4%	5.8%	5.8%	5.8%
	%N	.	79.0	78.4%	.	43.0	41.9%	.	5.8%	5.8%
Unemployed in organ.	mean	-623.37	2.69	3.19	-331.33	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00	4.00
	n	16	16	16	6	6	6	2	2	2
	Sd	500.83	.479	.655	517.173	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	% of TS	4.6%	4.6%	4.6%	1.7%	1.7%	1.7%	0.6%	0.6%	0.6%
	%N	.	4.7%	5.1%	.	2.0%	1.8%	.	0.7%	0.8%
Retired	mean	-498.25	2.50	3.25	-472.79	2.58	2.90	-247.88	2.25	2.50
	n	8	8	8	158	158	158	8	8	8
	Sd	535.3	.535	.463	501.798	.579	.808	463.605	.463	.535
	% of TS	2.3%	2.3%	2.3%	45.8%	45.8	45.8%	2.3%	2.3%	2.3%
	%N	.	2.2%	2.6%	.	44	45.5	.	2.0%	2.0%
Total	mean	-456.04	2.63	2.92	-456.04	2.63	2.92	-456.04	2.63	2.92
	n	345	345	345	345	345	345	345	345	345
	Sd	499.81	.615	.910	499.813	.615	.910	499.813	.615	.910
	% of TS	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
	%N	.	100	100	.	100	100	.	100	100

TS – total sum

Similarly, as the occupation status of mother changes from employed to unemployed to retired, respondents performance changes respectively (mean =2.73 , sd =.673) to (mean =3.00 , sd =.00) to (mean =2.58 , sd =.579) for G9&10 performance while for G10 EGSECE changes from (mean =2.95 , sd =1.1) to (mean =3.00 , sd =.000) to (mean =2.90 , sd =.808).

But applying ANOVA, among employed, unemployed and retired groups has no significant difference both for the mother and father in G9&10 and G10 performances. Thus, from the claims of the previous studies on parental occupation, it is credible to state that the higher the occupational status of parents the richer their income and the more they are able to supply the educational needs of the children seems questionable in the context of this study.

Table 16: Directional measure for occupation of parents

		Eta (η) value of occupation			Parents occupation
		Father	Mather	Guardian	
Nominal by interval	G12 in G11	.120	.047	.097	.237
	G9&10	.062	.173	.106	.235
	G10	.098	.041	.115	.202
	AA	.120	.047	.097	.237

As indicated in the Table 16, eta value ranges from $\eta = 0.047$ to $\eta = 0.237$ which is small or smaller than typical according to Cohen (1988). For the associations between academic achievement (AA) and father, mother and guardian occupation status, Eta squared would be 0.0144, 0.0022 & 0.0094 indicating that the two variables share 1.44%, 0.22% & 0.94% common variance respectively.

4.6 Family Involvement and Academic Performance

Table 17: inter correlations of family involvement and achievement

		Home related	School related	FI
G11 mean iof G12	Pearson Corre	.007	.073	.062
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.903	.176	.250
	N	345	345	345
G9&10 Transcript	Pearson Corre	.137*	.122*	.125*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.011	.023	.020
	N	345	345	345
G10 EGSECE	Pearson Correl	.140**	.220**	.155**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.009	.000	.004
	N	345	345	345
AA	Pearson Corre	.007	.074	.063
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.897	.173	.246
	N	345	345	345

FI – family involvement, AA = academic achievement

Table 17 displays the correlation matrix for variables in the present study. Family involvement and academic achievement combined were related insignificantly ($r = .063$, $p > .05$) but there was significant correlation between family involvement and G9&10 performance ($r = 0.125$, $p < .00$), and with G10 performance ($r = 0.155$, $p < .01$) but not with G12 performance in G11 ($r = .062$, $p > .05$). Again, disaggregating family involvement in to home related and school related involvement, there was a positive and significant but weak correlation between school related and G9&10 ($r = .122$, $p < .05$) and G10 ($r = .220$, $p < .01$) but insignificantly related with G12 in G11 ($r = .073$, $p > .05$) and over all academic achievement ($r = .074$, $p > .05$). Similarly for home related activities, there was a positive and significant but weak correlation between home related and G9&10 ($r = .137$, $p < .05$) and G10 ($r = .140$, $p < .01$) but insignificantly related with G12 in G11 ($r = .007$, $p > .05$) and over all academic achievement ($r = .007$, $p > .05$). There was also significant and moderate relation between school related and home related involvement ($r = .506$, $p < .00$).

4.7 Parental Style and Academic Performance

Table 18: parental style and academic performance

		Authoritarian	Authoritative	permissive	PS
G11 mean of G12	Pearson Corre	-.042	-.213**	-.177**	-.208**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.434	.000	.001	.000
	N	343	343	343	343
G9&10 Transcript	Pearson Corre	-.155**	-.103	-.048	-.148**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.004	.056	.373	.006
	N	343	343	343	343
G10 EGSECE	Pearson Corre	-.166**	-.018	.003	-.088
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.002	.739	.962	.102
	N	343	343	343	343
AA	Pearson Corre	-.043	-.213**	-.177**	-.208**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.429	.000	.001	.000
	N	343	343	343	343
Authoritarian	Pearson Corre	1	.121*	.134*	.613**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.025	.013	.000
	N	343	343	343	343
Authoritative	Pearson Corre	.121*	1	.383**	.714**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.025		.000	.000
	N	343	343	343	343
Permissive	Pearson Corre	.134*	.383**	1	.741**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.013	.000		.000
	N	343	343	343	343
PS	Pearson Corre	.613**	.714**	.741**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	
	N	343	343	343	343

AA – academic achievement combined, PS = parenting style combined; FI = family involvement

With regards to parenting style, the findings of Pearson Correlation analyses indicated a significant correlation between authoritative parenting style ($r = -.213$, $p < .01$) and permissive parenting style ($r = -.177$, $p < .01$) and parenting style combined ($r = -.208$, $p < .01$) with academic achievement combined (Table 18). However, there was no significant relationship between authoritarian parenting style ($r = -.043$, $p > .05$) and academic achievement combined. Treating separately, there was a significant correlation between authoritative parenting style ($r = -.213$, $p < .01$) and permissive parenting style ($r = -.177$, $p < .01$) with G12 in G11 performance. However, there was no significant relationship between authoritarian parenting style ($r = -.042$, $p > .05$) and G12 in G11 performance. For Grade 9&10 performance combined, there was a significant correlation between authoritarian style ($r = -.155$, $p < .01$) but not for authoritative ($r = -.103$, $p > .05$) and permissive style ($r = -.048$, $p > .05$). In G10 performance, there was a significant correlation between authoritarian style ($r = -.166$, $p < .01$) but not for authoritative style ($r = -.018$, $p > .05$) and permissive style ($r = .003$, $p > .05$).

4.8 Combining all predictor variables

Table 19 : Regression analysis of Family variables affecting AA

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.092 ^a	.008	.006	166.133
2	.238 ^b	.057	.051	162.262
3	.258 ^c	.067	.058	161.668
4	.291 ^d	.085	.074	160.322
5	.312 ^e	.097	.084	159.458

a. Predictors: (Constant), SES

b. Predictors: (Constant), SES, PS

c. Predictors: (Constant), SES, PS, FI3scale

d. Predictors: (Constant), SES, PS, FI3scale, parenthood

e. Predictors: (Constant), SES, PS, FI3scale, parenthood, family size

Applying simple regression using the method of enter, the squared multiple correlation statistics indicate that SES (combination of parents education, monthly income and occupation), PS (combination of authoritative, authoritarian and permissive), FI (combining home and school related activities), parenthood (living with dual and single parent) and family size predicts 0.6%, 4.5%, 0.7%, 1.6% and 1% of academic achievement respectively while the five independent variables together contribute 8.4%. This means about 91.6 % of student academic performances are attributed to other variables may be other inschool and out of school factors including students themselves.

4.9 Discussion of Results

A key goal of education is to ensure that every student has a chance to excel, both in school and in life. Increasingly, children's or youth success in school determines their success as adults, determining whether and where they go to college, what professions they enter and how much they can earn. Also, school performance in secondary school does not depend on a student's mental and physical abilities alone; other factors also have an important role. Although students may be of comparable abilities, learn in the same environment and follow the same syllabus, their academic performance still varies. The researcher tried to discuss the findings from this study against other studies whether it is consistent with or inconsistent with other related reports. As a frame of reference, the study established that the majority of students, in terms of academic achievement, are middle level performers in both school based and national assessment results.

4.9.1 Parenthood or family structure

Structurally, a family is either broken or intact. The ANOVA results ($F(2,342) = 3.189, p < .05$) indicated that the mean difference was significant between dual parent respondents and single parent respondents but not statistically significant for other groups. The result is consistent with several research reports indicating that family structure is linked to academic achievement as children and adolescents from intact families (families with two married parents) consistently outperform their peers from single-parent homes on a wide variety of outcomes including grades, standardized achievement test scores, high school completion, and College graduation (Amato and Keith 1991; Amato 2001; Astone and McLanahan 1991; Naevdal and Thuen 2004) cited in Weiser and Riggio (2010).

Similar results were also reported in Nzewunwah (1995) revealing that there is a significant difference between students from single parent families and those from two-parent families in terms of attitude to examination malpractices, attitude to studies and academic performance. The finding shows the evidence of low achievement of single parent children. It has also shown how they are not able to achieve as much as children of two-parent families for not getting complete support from both parents. Also, a large majority of studies reviewed show that children from single-parent (SP) homes score lower on tests of cognitive functioning and standardized tests, receive lower GPAs, and complete fewer years of school when compared to children from two-parent (TP) homes (Bain, Boersma, & Chapman 1983; Balcom 1998; Biller 1970; Chapman,

1977; Daniels, 1986; Downey, Ainsworth-Darnell, & Dufur, 1998; Fry & Scher, 1984; Mandara & Murray 2006; Milne, Rosenthal, & Ginsburg, 1986; Sigle-Rushton & McLanahan, 2004) cited in Barajas (2011). Barry (2005) study shows that children from single-parent households do not perform as well in school as children from two-parent households. There are several different explanations for this disparity in achievement. Single-parent households have a variety of challenges; they have less income, there is a lack of support for the single parents, which increases stress and conflicts. Single parents often struggle with time-management issues due to balancing many different areas of life on their own. Single parents are less involved with their children's academic affairs and therefore give less encouragement and have lower expectations of their children than the two-parent households.

Furthermore, Jeynes (2002) examined relationships between changing family structures and students' school-related outcomes, and shows that in relation to two-parent families, children in single-parent families have lower academic performance because they are more susceptible to peer pressure, to engage in deviant behaviour, have higher dropout rates from high school, and have greater social and psychological problems. In the view of Hill (2006), family deficit model assumes that single-parent households are deficient in some critical ways for effective child training. This could be so since there may not be any single parent (father or mother) that can fully play roles father and mother in the up-bringing of the child in all these areas such as housing feeding clothing shelter and education. According to Usher et al (2012), respondents in their studies with excellent and brilliant performances revealed that 2.6% and 7.9% came from single parent and two parent families respectively. This finding could be explained by the fact that life in a single-parent family can be traumatic and children brought up in such family structure often suffer some emotional problems such as lack of warmth, love and disciplinary problems, which may hinder their academic performance. On the other hand, children raised in two-parent family structure are often stable emotionally and they suffer less emotional problems thereby making them less anxious in the pursuit of their academic work. Uwaifo (2008) states that children from intact families show less anxiety about their academic activities because they are emotionally more stable with less emotional problems. Single parenthood reduces the financial resources of the family thereby reduces all the opportunities money could have given the children as to their education and all other necessary opportunities. Apart from lack of financial resources, children will want their parents to interact with them, have some problems

solved or help in doing their home work disciplines and supervise them but in a family where there is no father present as a result of divorce, there is usually less parenting to do these for them, a single parent may not meet up with all these tasks. Even more, in developing country, life in a single parent family can be stressful for both the child and the parent. Such families are faced with the challenges of diminished financial resources assumptions of new roles and responsibilities, establishment of new patterns in intrafamilial interaction and reorganization of routines and schedules. These conditions are not conducive for effective parenting. This is because when the single parent is overburdened by responsibilities and by their own emotional reaction to their situation, they often become irritable, impatient and insensitive to their children's needs (Nzewunwah, 1995). According to Johnson (2005), higher levels of emotional risks and failures are commonly observed among learners from separated families and all forms of single parenthood. However, there could be some exceptions to such a claim considering some learners from different broken homes. There are still some learners that are gifted that no matter the conditions surrounding their home background, they struggle hard and become successful. The researcher agreed with all the contributors about how easy for two people, that is: mother and father, to support to the educational achievement of children but also quite agrees that without good environment the learner may not achievement well academically. A two-parent family appears to be more favored than the single parent due to the fact that sometimes one of the two takes care of the children in the absence of the other by agreement.

4.9.2 Socioeconomic Status: Income, Education and Occupation

Several studies have suggested that socioeconomic status is one of the best predictors of student achievement (e.g Coleman, et al., 1966; Lee, Bryk, & Smith, 1993).

4.9.2.1 Gross monthly income as proxy

In this study, the study established that the correlation coefficient for the relationship between parents economic status (monthly income) and students performance is weak, positive and significant with correlational statistics: between monthly gross income and G12 performance in G11 ($r = 0.235$, $p = 0.01$); between monthly gross income and G9&G10 transcript ($r = 0.245$, $p = 0.01$); between monthly gross income and G10 EGSECE ($r = 0.203$, $p = 0.01$) while the relationship between parent's economic status and student's performance (education

performance indicators combined) is + 0.092 which implies that there is a weak positive but nonsignificant. ANOVA results between income groups and G12 performance in G11($F(2,242) = 5.880, p = 0.003$); between income groups and G9&10 transcript ($F(2,242) = 13.171, p = 0.00$); between income groups and G10 EGSECE ($F(2,242) = 15.178, p = 0.00$); and between income groups and all achievement indicators combined ($F(2,242) = 5.915, p = 0.003$) suggest that there is significant relationship between parents' economic status and students' academic performance. Applying post hoc tests using scheffe also suggest that as income increases academic performance also increases for all performance indicators at $p = 0.05$: for G12 performance, G9&10 transcript, G10 EGSECE and for all achievement indicators combined. This agrees with Bryk, & Smith (1993) who suggested that economic status is one of the best predictors of student achievement. That is as income increases, academic achievement also increases. Previous studies have showed that students who come from low-income have significantly less school success than students from high socio-economic (Martini, 1995; Walker *et al.*, 1998). Becker's (2001) study report revealed that family income affect children's educational aspirations, their status among their peers, their neighborhood quality, the stability of their lives, and insecurity within their family, any or all of which may influence child outcomes. Grissmer, (1994) had similar findings on the relationships between income and mathematics as well as income and reading achievement.

Some potential explanations were - parents in such settings reported lower educational expectations, less monitoring of children's school work and less overall supervision of social activities compared to students from high socio-economic and intact families (Jacob and Harvey, 2005). The positive association can be explained that parents with higher socio-economic status are able to provide their children with the (often necessary) financial support and home resources for individual learning. They are also more likely to provide a more stimulating home environment to promote cognitive development. At the level of homes, students from high-SES families are also more likely to assist by home tutors.

4.9.2.2 Education level

With regard to education level of parents and academic achievement, the study established that the correlation coefficient for the relationship between parents education level combined and students performance is weak, positive and insignificant ($\eta = .265$). The nonsignificance of academic performance among education level groups (no formal education ,Primary School

Education, Secondary School Education, College/TVET diploma holder, Bachelor degree and above holder) is consistent with Essien (2002) who found that parents' level of education had no significant influence on the students' performance in Geography but inconsistent what is reported in other setting such as Pamela and Kean (2010) who stated that those students whose parents have a tertiary level of education perform, on average, significantly better in tests of science, reading and mathematical ability than do those whose parents have only basic schooling. Dave and Dave (1971) found that higher percentages of rank holder belong to homes with higher parental education and higher percentage of failed students belong those who have lower parental education. A study by Campbell, Hombo, and Mazzeo (1999) also indicated that students who reported higher parental education levels tended to have higher average scores.

The explanation is that , more educated parents are assumed to create environments that facilitate learning (Williams, 1980; Teachman, 1987) and involve themselves in their children's school experiences and school environments (Steinberg *et al.*, 1992; Useem, 1992). Well-educated parents can be involved in school matters and understand the value of education and can encourage their children better than the illiterate parents Brimer and Pauli (1971). Students whose parents are well educated get important material that help in facilitating their education. However, most illiterate parents lack the ability to initiate and support their children in education as that of the literate ones. Moreover; many less educated parents simply may have more unmanaged stress in their lives, and this stress interferes with ability and opportunity to interact with their child. Typically, parents who have completed high school and gone on to receive additional schooling understand the pressures and stresses of impressions based upon other information such as a child's previous year's grades and test scores, and his or her family background and the family's level of involvement (Sclafani, 2004).

On the other the positive relation between academic achievement and parents education level is consistent with many reports (e.g Selakovich, 1984); Walberg, 1992, Berk , 1991, and Dornsbush *et al.*; 1991, cited in Elias, 1999) emphasizing that differences in educational level of parents is positively correlated with academic achievement of students. Easthope (1975) and Kangan (1978) pointed out that students who come from families of higher level of education tend to achieve higher than those from uneducated ones and hence positive effects.

4.9.2.3 Parents Occupation

Occupations of parents have been claimed to usually determine to a certain considerable extent the level of resources which the parents will be able to invest into their children's education. Parental occupation is thus considered to guarantee or determine access to learning opportunities and resources that plays significant role in learning outcomes (Akinsanya;Ajayi;& Salomi 2011). Despite the researcher failed to apply parents occupations according to the guideline of International Standard Classification of Occupations (ISCO) set by the International Labour Organization in 2008 (see appendix 3 for skill classification), using employed, unemployed and retired category, the study established that the correlation coefficient for the relationship between parents occupation status combined and students performance is weak, positive and insignificant ($\eta = .237$). The insignificance of academic performance among occupation statu groups (employed, unemployed, retired,) is inconsistent what is reported in other settings such as students that usually attain high academic achievement often come from families with high occupational status (Akinsanya;Ajayi;& Salomi 2011). The Canadian PISA report (2006) also shows that parents' occupations appear to influence the level and direction of children's academic achievement (OECD, 2006). Parental employment is expected to have considerable effects on the welfare of their children. Concerning the children's educational achievement, parental employment might have two contradicting effects. On the one hand, having a source of income is essential for meeting children's educational needs, as well as for participating in social activities. Further, parents' exclusion from the labour market can lead to an absence of knowledge and experience that are of value for children's education (Bakken 2003). On the other hand, having a job reduces the time available for the parents to spend with their children and to involve themselves in their life at school. Hence, each household needs to find a balance that optimizes their time use.

4.9.2.4 SES combined and AA

For the associations between academic achievement (AA) and SES, eta (η) value is = .398 which is medium according to Cohen (1988). Eta squared would be 0.1584 indicating that the two variables share 15.8% common variance. Morakinyo (2003) found that there is a relationship between socio-economic status and academic achievement of the students. White (1986) in a Meta analysis of 620 correlations coefficient from 100 students describes that there is a definite relationship between socioeconomic status and academic achievement of the students.

The fact that the highly educated parents belong to the upper and middle classes and are therefore economically buoyant. And by consequence, they can afford to provide all necessary textbooks, workbooks and arrange for extra tutorials for their children. In addition, these parents would normally send their children to the 'best' schools where there are well-qualified teachers, well-equipped laboratories and libraries and other necessary things that facilitate success (Emejulu, 2006). These things according to Ikechukwu (2009), positively affect students' academic performance. In other words being from a low socio-economic status has significant negative effects on the academic achievement of the students because low socio-economic status is the obstruction to access to very important resources and creates additional tension and stress at home (Eamon 2005; Jeynes 2002). Even students who have a low socio-economic status show poor result and are more likely to leave the school (Eamon, 2005). However, there are students who come from low-income and single parent homes who are high achievers and many students from high socio-economic and intact families who are low achievers. Students may also come from homes where the parents are highly educated and involved in their children's education, yet achieve poorly at school (Jacob and Harvey, 2005).

4.9.3 Family involvement

The results of Pearson correlation analysis showed that family involvement and academic achievement combined were related insignificantly ($r = .063$, $p > .05$) but there was significant but weak correlation between family involvement and G9&10 performance ($r = 0.125$, $p < .00$), and with G10 performance ($r = 0.155$, $p < .01$) but not with G12 performance in G11 ($r = .062$, $p > .05$). The results seem in line with several reports suggesting mixed results ranging parental involvement influence from less clear to not help academic scores but prevent behavioral problems to positive and negative influences (Domina, 2005). To corroborate, literature on the overall impact of parental involvement on youth academic performance in developing countries is minimal. But, in developed nation, research on parental involvement and academic outcomes suggests that parental involvement is best understood as taking multiple forms especially in USA. At a minimum, parental involvement appears to differ based on the context (i.e., at home vs. in school) (Giallo, Treyvaud, Matthews, & Kienhuis, 2010; Jeynes, 2003) cited in Chowa, Masa, & Tucker (2013). Research also demonstrates that parental involvement at home and in school is linked positively to a variety of academic outcomes (Jeynes, 2003, 2007). Numerous

studies, mostly from developed countries, have shown that parents are more likely to be involved with their children's education at home than in school (Lee & Bowen, 2006; Mau, 1997; Patrikakou & Weissberg, 2000) cited in Chowa, Masa, & Tucker (2013). Research also has demonstrated that a positive relationship exists between at-home parental involvement and a range of school-related outcomes, including academic achievement, school engagement, and socioemotional adjustment (Izzo et al., 1999). At-home parental involvement activities (e.g., checking homework, communicating about school, and reading with children) are shown to be related to positive academic outcomes of minority students in the United States (Jeynes, 2003; Sui-Chu & Willms, 1996). Likewise, parental involvement at home in Ghana is associated positively with youth academic performance (Nyarko, 2010).

In general, research conducted in the United States supports the positive effects of at-home parental involvement on a variety of educational outcomes, but a few studies suggest that there may be no—or perhaps even a negative - effect. For instance, a meta-analysis of parental involvement and academic outcomes for urban adolescents suggests that communicating about school and checking homework have no significant effect on academic performance after controlling for SES (Jeynes, 2007). Further, studies of nationally representative samples of high school students find a negative relationship between parental involvement at home (e.g., checking on and helping with homework) and academic achievement among immigrant and minority students (Altschul, 2012; Mau, 1997). The observed negative association suggests that the more involved parents are in their children's school work, the less likely their children are to perform well.

Studies of the effects of in-school parental involvement in the United States also have yielded mixed results (Chowa, Masa, & Tucker, 2013). For instance, parental involvement in school is associated positively with academic outcomes, including grades (Barnard, 2004; Hill, 2001; Marschall, 2006), classroom behavior (Hill et al., 2004; Oyserman et al., 2007), students' aspirations (Hill et al., 2004), and school completion (Barnard, 2004). However, other studies find a negative effect of contact with the school on academic achievement trajectories (Fan, 2001), school engagement and socioemotional adjustment (Izzo et al., 1999), and math and reading scores (Sui-Chu & Willms, 1996). Generally, the negative relationship suggests that increased communication between parents and schools might be an indicator of academic difficulties that might have led to the parental involvement at school in the first place (Fan, 2001;

Izzo et al., 1999) cited in Chowa, Masa, & Tucker (2013). Interestingly, the most commonly cited benefit of parent involvement is that it can be used to accelerate learning by increasing the amount of time students spend studying and making homework study more efficient, effective, and focused but a cursory look at research on the effect of parent involvement in homework on achievement suggests mixed findings. For instance, some correlational evidence supports the effectiveness of parent involvement in homework, suggesting that setting a place and time for homework and providing direct aid with homework are effective ways parents can enhance achievement (Deslandes, Royer, Potvin, & Leclerc, 1999; Yap, 1987). The results of other studies suggest that parent involvement in homework has a negligible or negative relationship with achievement (Epstein, 1988; Ginsburg & Bronstein, 1993). So there is a room for further research.

4.9.4 Parenting style

It has been well documented that family plays a meaningful role in a child's academic performance and development (Cornell & Grossberg, 1987; Thompson, Alexander, & Entwisle, 1988; Tucker, Harris, Brady, & Herman, 1996) in Jabor et al (2011). Parenting style has been examined in several studies as a strong predictor of adolescent achievement outcomes (McBride-Chang & Chang, 1998; Bronstein & Duncan, 1996; Wintre & Yaffe, 2000) cited in . Findings elsewhere have indicated that a significant relationship exists between the type of parenting style and academic achievement. In fact, some researchers have proposed that the authoritative parenting is associated with higher academic achievement (Steinberg, Lamborn, Dornbusch and Darling, 1992; Hickman, Bartholomae & McKenry, 2000).

In the context of this study, the findings of Pearson Correlation analyses indicated a significant correlation between authoritative parenting style ($r = -.213$, $p < .01$) and permissive parenting style ($r = -.177$, $p < .01$) and parenting style combined ($r = -.208$, $p < .01$) with academic achievement combined. However, there was no significant relationship between authoritarian parenting style ($r = -.043$, $p > .05$) and academic achievement combined. The finding indicated that there was a significant negative relationship between authoritative , permissive parenting styles and parentalstyle combine with academic achievement indicating that adolescents who had parent with authoritative and permissive style had lower academic achievement in school compared to other adolescents. This result is in line with the previous finding by Roche et al. (2007) who showed that levels of permissive paren ting was significantly related with academic strain. Parents with

permissive style allow their children to have free control of their behaviors and actions. Parents are more passive and give little input in many important decisions made by adolescents. Therefore, it is likely that adolescents from highly permissive environment do not have clear rules and expectations for high achievement, which consequently may lead to low achievement motivation and poor academic performance among adolescents.

In contrast, there was no significant relationship between authoritarian parenting style and school achievement. The present finding is similar to the findings by Kim and Rohner(2002), Park and Bauer(2002), and Olige (2008). Authoritarian parents tend to practice rigid and high level of monitoring. Rigid monitoring may demotivate adolescent and children to succeed(Cooper et al,2000).

Moreover; the result is against the view that adolescents who had parent with authoritative style were more successful in school. That is , inconsistent with Park and Bauer (2002), Attaway and Bry (2004), Gonzalez-DeHass et al., (2005), Slaten (2006), Roche et al. (2007), Simons and Conger (2007) and Ling Pong et al. (2009) who found that authoritative parenting style promote school achievement. Durkin (1995) highlighted three reasons for the association between authoritative parenting and high school achievement. First, he recommended that parents with authoritative style give emotional security to their children with a sense of calm and autonomy, and also, they assist their children to be successful in school activities. Second, he cited that parents with authoritative style explain the consequences of their children's actions. Explanations give children a sense of knowledge and understanding of their parents' principles, desires, and goals that are associated to school context. Thirdly, he suggested that authoritative parents involve in reciprocal contact with their children. Authoritative parents support their child ren, encourage them to do well academically, and explain the need for education in order to become a successful adult. Thus, children growing up in the authoritative environment have better overall well-being and higher performance in school related activities (Baumrind, 1991).

In conclusion, the findings of the present study implied that parents play an insignificant role in determining the level of academic achievement among adolescents. Thus, it is essential that parents are equipped with appropriate knowledge and skills so that they can provide better guidance for their adolescents' positive development, especially in academic achievement and further indepth study is needed.

CHAPTER FIVE

Summary, Conclusions and Suggestions

5.1 Summary

Social and family backgrounds greatly influence school performance because family is the primary cell of society where the child's upbringing must begin since his/her birth, still in cradle. the question of how students' family background influences achievement is often seen as an issue of equality, therefore it has been on the political agenda for decades and believed to be of high importance as a research agenda. And even in some countries, family background has been and remains an important variable to explain variance in students' academic achievement (see Sirin 2005). So, educational outcomes have been shown to be influenced by family background variables in many different and complex ways.

Hence, the purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between some family (parental) variables and secondary school youth academic performance, both in school based tests and national examination.

Specifically, this study sought to answer the following basic questions:

1. What is the relationship between parents' socioeconomic status (education level, monthly income and occupation) and academic performance of secondary school students?
2. What is the relationship between the academic performance of students from single parent families and those from two parent families?
3. What is the relationship between educational achievement of students and parenting styles & involvement in education activities?

In order to reach a conclusion, a descriptive survey research design employed in the study.

A total number of 345 High school grade 11 and grade 12 learners were randomly selected from three secondary schools in Kolfe –Keraniyo sub city, Addis Ababa city administration in September/October, 2016. To collect necessary information, students' self report questionnaire were employed. The collected data was analyzed using descriptive statistics, correlation and multiple regression analysis.

As a result of data analyses and discussions, the student –researcher identified the following major findings:

1. Academic achievement had weak correlation with monthly income ($r = .031$) and family structure ($r = -.042$) and significant difference among income groups ($F(2,242) = 5.915, p = .003$) and parenthood structure ($F(2,242) = 3.193, p = .042$) so that as monthly income increases and family structure changes from living with single to both parents, academic performance increases.
2. Academic achievement had positive but generally weak correlation with education level of parents ($\eta = .265$), parents occupation ($\eta = .237$) and SES combined ($\eta = .398$) suggesting mixed results i.e positive correlation as one expects but insignificant different among different education levels and occupational groups /occupation status. So, there is a room for further replication or in depth study
3. Academic achievement had positive but weak and insignificant correlation with home related family involvement ($r = .007, p > .05$), school related family involvement ($r = .074, p > .05$) and combined family involvement ($r = .063, p > .05$).
4. With regards to parenting style, the findings of Pearson Correlation analyses indicated a significant correlation between authoritative parenting style ($r = -.213, p < .01$) and permissive parenting style ($r = -.177, p < .01$) and parenting style combined ($r = -.208, p < .01$) with academic achievement combined. However, there was no significant relationship between authoritarian parenting style ($r = -.043, p > .05$) and academic achievement .

Applying simple regression using the method of enter, the squared multiple correlation statistics indicate that SES (combination of parents education, monthly income and occupation), PS(combination of authoritative, authoritarian and permissive), FI (combing home and school related activities), parenthood (living with dual and single parent) and family size predicts 0.6%, 4.5%, 0.7%, 1.6% and 1% of academic achievement respectively while the five independent variables together contribute 8.4%. This means about 91.6 % of student academic performances are attributed to other variables may be other inschool and out of school factors including students themselves.

5.2 Conclusions

Based on the findings of the study, the following conclusions were drawn:

1. Family income and family structure influences school achievement so that students who come from low-income and single-parent homes have significantly less school success than students from high socio-economic and intact families.
2. Education level, occupation status, and family involvement are weakly and positively related to academic achievement but which level of education, occupation or type of involvement influences more than the other are inconclusive.
3. Parenting styles disaggregated as authoritative, authoritarian and permissive, showed a weak but oppositely related correlation.
4. The five variables considered in this study (SES, PS, FI, family structure and family size) together account no more than 8.4% of student achievement suggesting further study.

Generally, it is learned that family variables affect student's academic performance in secondary & preparatory schools to a lesser extent as correlation coefficients are so small and the over all prediction is not more than 8.4%. The findings of this study also call in to question the education policy & its implementation including the evaluation system. It seems family demographic variables, such as family structure and monthly income may have more influence over academic outcomes when compared to interpersonal family variables of the study.

5.3 Suggestions

On the basis of the findings, discussions and conclusions made, the researcher wishes to make the following recommendations:

Support : since students performance from single parents and lower income families seem less successful, school counseling, tutorial and educational material support has to be considered. Students from poor families cannot adequately meet educational needs. This indeed has serious implications on the learning and performance of less privileged students in school, as such; students from such families are forced to miss classes, unable to do their assignments and most seriously are driven from school due to non-payment of school fees. All these, have significant

effects on the development of the child. So compensatory programmes that are being strategically planned for socioeconomically disadvantaged children appear to be worthwhile.

Sensitization/empowering parents/guardians: since SES and PI has a positive relation, parents should continue to get involved in their children's academic progress by monitoring their activities in and out of school, ensuring that home work is done, providing all necessary materials they need in school and meeting with their teachers when the need arises. To do so, individuals, associations, and the Government itself should increase parent's role to enhance their daughters or sons academic performance using various strategies such as media, mass walks, celebrating parent school dialogue days, communication books.

School Actions : Since the findings of this study seem to suggest that parents, irrespective of their background status, are getting involved in their children's academic work to a lesser extent, they should be regularly informed of their children's academic progress by the school authorities. Especially measures such as parent participation in school activities as PTA meetings, parent-teacher conferences, etc communication between parents and children about school, assistance with homework, supervision and monitoring of schoolwork mechanisms should be settled. Also, in consultation with PTSA, the school administration need to fix the number of education days per month, per semester, per year for parents to contact school principals, homeroom teachers and subject teachers so that parents can be more involved with their student's academic performance.

5.4 Implications for further Research

The results of this study suggest several implications for further research regarding the school achievement and family variables.

Large scale study : the author recommends a replication study using the same methods to be conducted in in the wider Addis Abeba and /or other parts of the country so that generalization can be applied to similar population in other districts. Another area is studying the same variables but on both public and private school students' performance.

Addressing more variables interaction : in the current study, family background means parents economic status, family size, family structure, parents' educational level, occupation and parental involvement in academic affairs and parenting style. But these are not only directly linked to academic achievement but also indirectly linked to it through multiple interacting

systems, including students' racial and ethnic background, grade level, and school/neighborhood location. So, in-depth study including these is further vital.

Tringulation : one limitation of the current study is the reliance on students' perceptions of parental affairs. Parental and school authority interview may be utilized in future studies to assess parents' direct reports of their involvement and aspirations for their children, rather than only relying on student perceptions.

Making a research agenda : finally, the student-researcher feels that the issue of family influence on school achievement in Ethiopian context has not been researched adequately. Basically, the evidences seem to be that there is little available empirical data on the topic. Therefore; more research with large samples, reliable instruments, appropriate and rigorous statistical procedures seem to be vital.

Government responsibility: Government need to give due atenssion for quality in line with quantity by revising the curriculum of education policy & its implimantation including the evaluation system.

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Appendices

Appendix I: Questionnaire

ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY

COLLEGE OF EDUCATION AND BEHAVIORAL STUDIES

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL PLANNING AND MANAGEMENT

Questionnaire to be filled by Preparatory School Students

Dear student;

You have been selected to take part in a survey of secondary school students entitled “*The Influence of Family Variables on Secondary School Students Academic Achievement: the case of Addis Ababa city administration*”. This research is being conducted under the supervision of Addis Ababa University. The purpose of this survey is to assess the relationship between family variables and secondary school students’ academic achievement. Before you start to work on the questionnaire, please read the following instructions carefully.

- a. This questionnaire is not a test. You can use Amharic for blank space questions to fill
- b. All information provided by you in this questionnaire will be used for research purposes only and will be strictly confidential.
- c. The questionnaire is comprised of different parts. In each part there are some statements or questions illustrating different aspects of student background, and family variables in relation to school performance. After reading each of the statements or questions, please tick the response that best reflects your experiences or write down for open question items accordingly.
- d. In order to ensure the credibility of this research result, please give sincere, thorough and complete answers. Please do not skip any question.

Thank you very much for your kind help and cooperation!

Sincerely,

No need of writing your name

Section I: Student School Background Information: Please circle or tick (✓) where appropriate or write for open spaces in the required information.

1. Your Gender: Male ☐ Female ☐
2. Level of Education: Grade level 11 ☐ Grade level 12 ☐
3. If you are Grade 12 student in 2009 E.C, the **average result** you achieved in **Grade 11 in 2008 E.C**
 Below 50 ☐ 50 - 65 ☐ 5.01- 80 ☐ 80.01- 95 ☐ 95.01 - 100 ☐
4. Grade 9 and Grade 10 Transcript Average Results:
 Below 50 ☐ 50 - 65 ☐ 5.01- 80 ☐ 80.01- 95 ☐ 95.01 - 100 ☐
5. Grade point Average (GPA) you achieved in Grade 10 EGSECE:
 2.00 – 2.250 ☐ 2.251 – 3.00 ☐ 3.01 – 3.250 ☐ 3.251 – 3.750 ☐ 3.751 – 4.00 ☐

Section II: Family Background Information: Please tick (✓) or circle where appropriate or fill in the required information.

Note: ***Family** means biological parents (father, mother) or other guardian (biologically related as in the case of brother, sister etc or biologically unrelated but acting as a parent so that you (students) are living with and get all necessary support*

6. Normally or most of the time, you are living with? (Choose the one that **best describes you**)

- | | | | |
|--------------------------------------|--------------------------|------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. Both biological mother and father | ☐ | Biological Mother only | ☐ |
| 3. Biological Father only | ☐ | 4. Other guardians | ☐ |

7. If you are living with biological father, **highest education level of biological father** is

- | | | | |
|-------------------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. No formal education | ☐ | 2. Primary School Education | ☐ |
| 3. Secondary School Education | ☐ | 4. College/TVET diploma holder | ☐ |
| 5. Bachelor degree and above holder | ☐ | | |

8. If you are living with biological mother, **highest education level of biological mother** is

- | | | | |
|-------------------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. No formal education | ☐ | 2. Primary School Education | ☐ |
| 3. Secondary School Education | ☐ | 4. College/TVET diploma holder | ☐ |
| 5. Bachelor degree and above holder | ☐ | | |

9. If you are living with guardian, **highest education level of other guardian** is

1. No formal education ☐ 2. Primary School Education ☐
3. Secondary School Education ☐ 4. College/TVET diploma holder ☐
5. Bachelor degree and above holder ☐

10. If you are living with biological father, the **occupational status as a source of income for biological father** is

1. Employed in an organization ☐ 2. Self employed ☐ 3. Pensioner or retired ☐
4. Home care services ☐ 5. Looking for work / unemployed ☐

11. If you are living with biological mother, the **occupational status as a source of income for biological mother** is

1. Employed in an organization ☐ 2. Self employed ☐ 3. Pensioner or retired ☐
4. Home care services ☐ 5. Looking for work / unemployed ☐

12. If you are living with other guardians, the **occupational status as a source of income for other guardian** is

1. Employed in an organization ☐ 2. Self employed ☐ 3. Pensioner or retired ☐
4. Home care services ☐ 5. Looking for work / unemployed ☐

13. Consider **monthly gross income** of the parents/ family/ guardians with whom you are living with, **in your opinion** the gross monthly income in terms of money is about :

Birr 2000 and below ☐ 2001 - 4000 birr ☐ 4001 – 6000 birr ☐
6001 – 8000 birr ☐ 8001 - 10000 birr ☐ More than 10,000 birr ☐

14. Family sizes or Numbers of dependent family members in your family living together in the same home including you are 1-2 ☐ 3- 4 ☐ 5- 6 ☐ 7 or above 6 ☐

15. Do you think that family size has affected your academic performance?

Yes ☐ No ☐ Not sure ☐

Section III: Family Involvement in Academic Activities

Think about the frequency and extent of parent/family/guardian involvement in teaching learning activities and indicate your agreement using the sub scale where: 1= strongly disagree; 2 = disagree; 3 = undecided; 4 = agree; 5 = strongly agree

no	Items	5	4	3	2	1
16	My parents/guardian encourages me by arranging enough time and weekly program to study at home					
17	My parents/guardian do not help me to do my homework , assignment on time					
18	My parents/guardian encourages me to work hard in my studies					
19	My parents/guardian rarely make home environment suit for my educational progress or study					
20	My parents/guardians motivate me by paying fees for transport, educational tours or other school fees on time					
21	My parents/guardians do not make frequent discussion about the benefits of education and education affairs					
22	My parents/guardians frequently talk about current events in school activities, in cognitive activities outside of school					
23	My parents/guardian advices me on my future career					
24	My parents/guardians bought adequate reference/revision books, learning aids, equipments at home					
25	My parents/guardian are my role model in my education					
26	My parents/guardian consults my teachers on how I perform in school					
27	My parents/guardian attend PTSA meetings called by schools					
28	My parents/guardian communicate school teachers and counselors about my academic position					
29	My parents/guardian attend different school events or school programs					
30	My parents/guardian praise and appreciate me on better academic achievement					
31	My parents/guardian encourage me to establish good relationships with peers at school and in society					
32	My parents/guardians always demand for progress reports to know my academic and social progress					
33	My parents/guardians have strong expectations about my better academic achievements					
34	My parents/guardians over load me with domestic tasks after school					
35	Sometimes my parents/guardians force me to abstain from school					

Write two reasons or indicators, how family involvement at school or home affected your academic performance **positively or negative** _____

Section IV: Family Behavior and Management Practice

Below are several statements that people sometimes use to describe parents behavior toward their children. Based on your own experiences, rate your parents behavior using the sub scale where 1 = strongly disagree; 2 = Disagree; 3 = Agree; and 4 = strongly agree

no	Statements	Agreement			
		1	2	3	4
	Parent/guardian's parenting style				
36	My Parent/guardian's demonstrates to me low warmth including no room for questioning or discussion				
37	My Parent/guardian's demonstrates to me high strict control including force or punishment				
38	My Parent/guardian's wants to show high levels of obedience what she wants				
39	My Parent/guardian's shows high levels of warmth, more responsive, willing to listen questions				
40	My Parent/guardian's is supportive, forgiving rather than punishing				
41	My Parent/guardian's wants to be assertive, socially responsible, and cooperative				
42	My Parent/guardian's is more communicative with me, often as a status of a friend				
43	My Parent/guardian's makes few demands for mature behavior, and allows considerable self-regulation				
44	My Parent/guardian's is tolerant and accepting towards my impulses, uses as little punishment as possible				

Thank you for participating!

Appendix 2: Pilot test

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.693	.725	19

Item Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
family involvement	3.87	1.106	30
family involvement	4.37	.964	30
family involvement	3.60	1.163	30
family involvement	3.90	1.242	30
family involvement	3.03	1.326	30
family involvement	2.93	1.258	30
family involvement	3.87	1.332	30
family involvement	3.90	1.094	30
family involvement	3.77	1.331	30
family involvement	3.00	1.083	30
family involvement	3.37	1.098	30
family involvement	2.83	1.177	30
family involvement	3.10	1.296	30
family involvement	3.80	1.126	30
family involvement	3.80	1.270	30
family involvement	3.53	1.137	30
family involvement	4.30	.988	30
family involvement	3.30	1.442	30
family involvement	2.40	2.343	30

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item- Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
family involvement	62.80	84.648	.251	.904	.683
family involvement	62.30	85.872	.234	.808	.684
family involvement	63.07	85.099	.212	.681	.686
family involvement	62.77	78.254	.510	.788	.656
family involvement	63.63	80.516	.366	.832	.670
family involvement	63.73	83.720	.247	.905	.683
family involvement	62.80	77.683	.491	.889	.657
family involvement	62.77	81.082	.442	.886	.666
family involvement	62.90	82.093	.295	.548	.678
family involvement	63.67	83.333	.328	.852	.676
family involvement	63.30	88.976	.039	.836	.701
family involvement	63.83	82.075	.353	.760	.673
family involvement	63.57	86.047	.136	.873	.694
family involvement	62.87	78.671	.553	.885	.655
family involvement	62.87	79.982	.413	.854	.666
family involvement	63.13	82.671	.340	.917	.675
family involvement	62.37	86.861	.171	.884	.689
family involvement	63.37	84.930	.150	.911	.695
family involvement	64.27	85.582	-.002	.813	.740

Appendix 3

Parental Occupation status using International Socioeconomic Index of Occupational Status (ISEI)

Original categories		Score
1	<i>I has never worked outside the home for pay</i>	22
2	<i>Small business owner (< 25 employees)</i> Includes owners of small business such as retail shops, services, restaurants	57
3	<i>Clerk</i> Includes office clerks, secretaries, typists, data entry operators, customer service clerks	19
4	<i>Service or sales worker</i> Includes travel attendants, restaurant service workers, personal care workers, protective service workers, salespersons	45
5	<i>Skilled agricultural or fishery worker</i> Includes farmers, forestry workers, fishery workers, hunters and trappers	31
6	<i>Craft or trade worker</i> Includes builders, carpenters, plumbers, electricians, etc.; also metal workers, machine mechanics, handicraft workers	37
7	<i>Plant or machine operator</i> Includes plant and machine operators, assembly-line operators, motor-vehicle drivers	33
8	<i>General laborers</i> Includes domestic helpers and cleaners; building caretakers; messengers, porters and doorkeepers; farm, fishery, agricultural, and construction workers	24
9	<i>Corporate manager or senior official</i> Includes corporate managers such as managers of large companies (25 or more employees) or managers of departments within large companies; legislators or senior government officials; senior officials of special-interest organizations; military officers	57
10	<i>Professional</i> Includes scientists, mathematicians, computer scientists, architects, engineers, life science and health professionals, teachers, legal professionals, social scientists, writers and artists, religious professionals	73
11	<i>Technician or associate professional</i> Includes science, engineering, and computer associates and technicians, life science and health technicians and assistants; teacher aides; finance and sales associate professionals; business service agents; administrative assistants	52