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CHAPTER 1

ORIENTATION TO THE STUDY

1.1 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

In the 21st century a number of societal changes, i.e., in people's way of living, their learning and working, and advancement in science and technology have taken place. It is the era of knowledge, information and communication. In the information age the main power is knowledge (Mustapha & Abdullah, 2004:51), which serves as a facilitator of growth in the knowledge economy (Economic Commission for Africa, 2007:2). The advancement of a knowledge-based economy includes rapid technological development, and it is changing the nature of work, and of the skills that are required for different types of work. In order to adapt to changes in the organisation of work and in the production of technology, people need to be able to renew and improve their skills in a continuously changing environment. For this reason it is important to ensure lifelong learning for all, so as to enhance socio-economic development, and to create a harmonious society (Dou, 2009:2). Therefore the implementation of lifelong learning in knowledge-oriented societies is important (Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development, 2008:1).

The classroom should now be learner-centred, instead of teacher-centred. In the learner-centred classroom the teacher acts as a facilitator who helps the learners to work on their projects, and to learn by *doing* (Characteristics of a 21st Century Classroom, 2008:1). Thus, the teachers are responsible for enabling learning, and for creating productive classrooms where the learners can develop the skills they need for lifelong learning in the workplace.

The demands of lifelong learning could be mastered successfully if individuals consider learning and the acquisition of knowledge as valuable and attractive. This

may motivate them to acquire the skills that are related to self-regulated learning (SRL) and the effective management of knowledge (Schober, Finsterwald, Wagner, Luftnegger, Aysner & Spiel, 2007:184).

Because of the worldwide trend of moving towards active and learner-centred teaching that may facilitate SRL, the Ethiopian government has introduced a new education policy in 1994. This new education policy focuses on employing a learner-centred, active learning and problem-solving approach in different contexts. The policy has become the instrument for educational reform throughout Ethiopia (Derebssa, 2006:126). One essential principle of a learner-centred style is SRL (Dembo, 2004:38). This SRL is indispensable for university students in particular.

With the expansion of universities, the enrolment capacity of the public universities in Ethiopia in 2000-01, excluding distance and evening enrolment, was approximately 34,000. The number of students entering universities has grown to more than 125,000 in 2007-08 (Reisberg & Rumbley, 2010:1), which indicates that many more students are entering higher institutions.

SRL should, however, already be developed at primary school. In primary school the learners are given greater social and academic classroom support (Moran, 2007). The primary school teachers are accountable for helping their learners with their educational and emotional development, starting from the time of entering school (CTI Career Search, 2010). In middle school the teachers often rotate classes. They consequently spend less time with each learner than the primary school teachers (Brain Track. Universities, Colleges & Careers, 2010). Thus, social and academic support decline as the learner progresses into middle and high school.

The learners are given more challenging homework and assignments, and are expected to show greater personal responsibility upon joining middle school (Moran, 2007). When they reach college or university, the responsibility for learning is that of the students themselves. Hence, the development of SRL is essential for students

who plan to go to college or university. Unless these students are able to use SRL skills, motivation, volition and meta-cognition, they may not be successful in their learning at higher education institutions (Murphy, 2009:95).

It is possible that some talented students who perform well do not possess any SRL strategies. Their high achievement may be attributed to their exceptional abilities, or to unchallenging curricula. Students make less of an effort, undertake less organisation and other self-regulated activities when learning is relatively simple (Reis, 2004:8-9).

When students face learning problems, they may ascribe them to their own lack of cognitive abilities. However, their actual problem may be that they do know *how* to learn. As different jobs require different tools, different academic tasks need different learning skills. Some students may have one or two learning skills for all the required tasks in a course. These skills may not be ample to study all the learning material. The students should be equipped with a variety of tools to make their study tasks simple, and to enhance their chances of success (Dembo, 2004:39). This includes the skill of SRL. Some high-achieving students have better self-regulated strategies in comparison to their peers (Reis, 2004:8).

Thus, investigating the relationship between various factors and SRL is important. Amongst others, parenting style may play a key role in the development of SRL.

1.2 INVESTIGATION OF THE PROBLEM

Self-regulated students have the capacity to manage their own learning behaviour for the duration of their courses. They have their plans, goals and strategies in place for their studies, and for completing their tasks. They monitor and evaluate their actions to identify their weaknesses, and they use self-encouragement to enhance their strengths (Abromitis, 2010:1). When students use SRL strategies, they develop skills of learning and performance (Man-Chih, 2006:101). They feel efficacious about their capacity to perform well in order to solve problems (Marcou & Philippou, 2005:302).

Ergul (2004:220) argues that students' high self-efficacy beliefs are significantly related to high academic achievement.

The parents are the key individuals to encourage their children to develop the self-regulatory skills that are supportive of their academic progress (Larkin, 2010:41). The parents can facilitate self-regulation in their children by being good models at home, and by relating their experiences of managing responsibilities and of making decisions or choices to reach specific goals (Reis, 2004:7). In addition to this, their children can be self-regulated students if their parents guide them to master specific strategies to enable them to regulate their own behaviour, and to master their learning environments (Reis, 2004:7).

In line with the above, Nixon and Halpenny (2010:13) argue that studying parenting styles may be the most important approach to determine the effect the parents may have on the development of their children. Research by Erden and Uredi (2008:31) confirms that parenting styles influence the development of SRL strategies and motivational beliefs.

According to Xu (2008:75), SRL bridges parental involvement and reading achievement. Murphy (2009:88) confirmed that self-regulated (independent) learning is significantly and positively related to academic achievement. He indicated that this relationship is greater than the relationship between parenting practices and independent learning, and parenting practices and academic achievement.

Parenting refers to the process of family involvement, which includes the attitudes, values and practices of the parents that are relied upon to bring up a child. The parenting styles that are used to engage the youth, the quality of the parent-youth relationships, and the way that parents monitor their children's behaviour, together and separately, may have an impact on their children's academic achievement (Kreider, Caspe, Kennedy & Weiss, 2007:2). The different parenting styles

significantly influence the parents' success in raising their children to be competent and caring individuals (Stevens, 2008:1).

Parenting style denotes the combination of parental control and parental responsiveness (Nixon & Halpenny, 2010:13). *Parental control*, also called *parental demand,* is defined as the effort made by the parents to integrate their children into the family by their demands in respect of maturity, their supervision, disciplinary efforts, and their willingness to confront children who misbehave. The parents' responsiveness is manifested by their warmth, which refers to the degree to which the parents help their children to develop their individuality, self-regulation and self-assertion. They do this by being aware and supportive of their children's needs and demands (Baumrind, 1991:61-62).

When the parents' responsiveness and demands are considered, it gives rise to four parenting styles, namely authoritative (high, both in responsiveness and demand), authoritarian (low in responsiveness but high in demand), indulgent (high in responsiveness but low in demand) and neglectful (low, both in responsiveness and demand) (Bornstein & Bornstein, 2007:2; Nixon & Halpenny, 2010:13). Research by Huang and Prochner (2004:227) indicated that some parenting styles are helpful to children in developing SRL, and encourage them to manage their own learning.

According to Erden and Uredi (2008:31), the children of authoritative parents are more likely to make use of SRL strategies than the children of indulgent, neglectful or authoritarian parents. The children of indulgent parents are more likely to make use of cognitive and meta-cognitive strategies than the children of authoritarian or neglectful parents.

An investigation by Turner, Chandler and Heffer (2009:343) of the link between parenting style and achievement among college students suggests that their academic success may be related to child-rearing practices which emphasise both demanding and responsive qualities. They (2009:343) state that authoritative

parenting styles significantly and positively relate to academic performance, but they did not find any significant correlation between achievement and permissive and authoritarian parenting styles.

According to research by Erden and Uredi (2008:31), the children of authoritative parents (high in demand and high in responsiveness) tend to use more SRL strategies than the children of authoritarian, indulgent or neglectful parents. However, compared to authoritarian and neglectful parents, the children of indulgent parents (low in demand and high in responsiveness), also tend to use more SRL strategies (Erden & Uredi, 2008:31). This is due to the fact that authoritative and indulgent parents are responsive, which means that they intentionally enhance individuality, self-regulation and self-assertion by being attuned and supportive. They also attempt to fulfil their children's special needs and demands (Baumrind, 1991:62). An authoritative parenting style and the encouragement of the expression of individuality probably help children to be able to use SRL strategies and to focus on their work (Erden & Uredi, 2008:31). It was also indicated in research that children who perceive their parents to be democratic and warm, also tend to develop autonomous academic behaviour (Gonzalez & Wolters, 2006: 203-217; Hoang, 2007:15). Other studies confirm that an authoritative parenting style is significantly and positively correlated with children's SRL (Huang & Prochner, 2004:235).

In contrast to the above, authoritarian parents who are highly demanding but *not* responsive to their children's needs, provide orderly environments and set clear rules. Neglectful parents, on the other hand, are neither responsive nor demanding (Baumrind, 1991:62). Since both types of parents find it difficult to fulfil the needs of their children because they are not responsive, the children may become passive, suffer from a lack of self-confidence and show poor SRL ability (Erden & Uredi, 2008:31). It was also indicated that an authoritarian parenting style has a significant negative correlation with children's SRL. However, a permissive parenting style slightly and negatively correlates to children's SRL, although this relationship is not significant (Huang & Prochner, 2004:235). In general, authoritarian and permissive

parenting styles do not predict their children's autonomous academic behaviour (Gonzalez & Wolters, 2006: 203-217).

Researchers also found that parental influence plays an important role in young adults' academic performance, even when they start living on their own (e.g., on going to university). Young adults who have had positive experiences with their parents seem to have greater success at college (Turner, et al., 2009:344).

Children who perceived their parents as authoritative tend to indicate higher academic self-efficacy and better academic performances (Turner, et al., 2009:343-344). Also, an authoritative parenting style can be related to higher levels of adolescent school performance (Assadi, Zokaei, Kaviani, Mohammadi, Ghaeli, Gohari & Van de Vijver, 2007:177; Kordi & Baharudin, 2010:221; Yusuf, Agbonna & Yusuf, 2009:9) and classroom engagement (Aye, Lau & Nie, 2008:8). But, children with indulgent parents tended to do moderately well at school, as they possessed a relatively high self-esteem, effective social skills, and low levels of depression (Yusuf, et al., 2009:9).

In addition to the above, children of authoritative and indulgent families (both who have high levels of warmth and involvement), tend to score more positively on measures of self-esteem and personal competence, and they are less likely to be psychologically maladjusted, or to indicate problem-behaviour, than children from authoritarian and neglectful families (both have low levels of responsiveness). Even the children who perceived their parents as indulgent scored more positively or equal on measures of self-esteem, psychological adjustment, personal competence and behaviour, than children from authoritative families (Garcia & Gracia, 2009:122). The children with indulgent parents perform better than children with authoritative parents (high level of strictness) on several outcomes which are related to emotional adjustment and academic achievement. This is probably because authoritative parents are more demanding than indulgent parents (Garcia & Gracia, 2009:122).

Lakshmi and Arora (2006:50) indicated that academic success and competence are positively correlated with parental acceptance and encouragement, but negatively correlated with parental control. It was also suggested that parental acceptance and encouragement have a facilitative role in school success and competence. The key to developing effective socialisation is parental warmth and involvement, but strictness is either unnecessary or of little importance (Garcia & Gracia, 2009:123).

The children of parents who are characterised as authoritarian (highly demanding, but low in responsiveness), or uninvolved (low in both responsiveness, and highly demanding) tend to do poorly at school and seem to possess less social skills, a lower self-esteem, with higher levels of depression (Yusuf, et al., 2009:8). In addition, authoritarian and permissive parenting styles correlate negatively with academic achievement. Authoritarian and permissive parenting styles are also uniformly negative in diverse socio-cultural contexts (Assadi, et al., 2007:177). Furthermore, Gracia, Garcia and Lila (2008:121) indicated that there exists a significant correlation between authoritarian and neglectful parenting styles and the poor psychological adjustment of the adolescents.

In contrast to the above, researchers indicated that permissive or authoritarian parenting styles do not have a significant negative relationship with academic achievement (Pisacano, 2006:32). Elias and Yee (2009:187) are in agreement with this finding, and noted that permissive, authoritarian and authoritative parenting styles do not relate significantly to the children's academic achievement.

Parental involvement indirectly influences children's reading achievement by affecting their use of a SRL process. Thus, SRL is associated with parental involvement and students' reading achievement (Xu, 2008:89). SRL is not only positively associated with the students' reading abilities, but also with their achievement in the mathematics and science domain (Ho Sui-Chu, 2004:103). If students are more self-regulated during learning, they achieve greater success than students who are less self-

regulating (Bothma & Monteith, 2004:146). It seems that students who are high achievers use SRL better than do low achievers (Kosnin, 2007:226).

If students learn to pay attention to the processes and strategies that are helpful to them to gain knowledge and skills, they are more likely to be involved in activities that foster learning, such as exerting effort and persisting (Camahalan, 2006:4). The variables of SRL strategies and of motivation for learning significantly forecast academic achievement (Moumenikiam, 2009: 85-100), and the students may be successful across all academic domains, e.g., mathematics, science, languages, the arts, and social studies (Kitsantas, Steen & Huie , 2009:76).

Adversely, some researchers indicated that self-regulation strategies, to some extent, could negatively affect the students' achievement in mathematics (Mousoulides & Philippou, 2005:327). Shores and Shannon (2007:231) found the following in respect of fifth graders in mathematics, namely that dimensions of self-regulation (such as the use of a meta-cognitive strategy, and the management of efforts), as well as the use of cognitive strategies, were not significantly associated with academic performance. Motivation, anxiety and attributions were, however, significantly associated with academic achievement. All of these dimensions may have been influenced by the parents' parenting style.

1.3 THE PROBLEM STATEMENT

From the background and investigation of the problem as indicated above it seems that the parents' parenting style may have an effect on SRL and the academic achievement of the students. The suggested parenting style for students to be self-regulated learners and high academic achievers may be an authoritative style (highly demanding and highly responsive), and to some extent an indulgent parenting style (high in responsiveness and low in demand). However, as indicated in section 1.2, the results are far from conclusive, in particular for different fields of study.

In addition to the above, patterns of relationships of parenting style, SRL and academic achievement may be different in different contexts. Cultural differences exist between the settings of the studies referred to above and the setting in Ethiopia. Parenting style, academic achievement and SRL were also not collectively studied across different ethnic groups of upper primary school students. Furthermore, in Ethiopia there is a dearth of studies on the effect of parenting styles on SRL. When the relationship between parenting style and SRL was investigated by Tigist (2003:50), it was found that parenting style explained only 12.1% of the variance in SRL. This study was also conducted in a very small town in one region, and did not investigate whether SRL moderates the relationship between parenting style and academic achievement.

Thus the researcher identified a need to investigate the relationships of parenting style, SRL and academic achievement in the Ethiopian context in upper primary schools.

To undertake the study, the following general research question was formulated:

> *What is the relationship between parenting style, SRL and the academic achievement of (upper) primary school students in Ethiopia?*

Based on the above main research question, the following specific research questions were formulated, namely

Specific research question 1:

According to the literature and the empirical investigation, what are the children's views of parental acceptance, parental control, the cognitive strategies they use, their self-regulated learning, and the parenting styles of the parents?

Specific research question 2:

According to the literature and the empirical investigation, what is the relationship between parenting style and SRL (cognitive strategies and self-regulation), of (upper) primary school students in selected schools in Ethiopia?

Specific research question 3:

According to the literature and the empirical investigation, what is the relationship between parenting style and academic achievement of (upper) primary school students in selected schools in Ethiopia?

Specific question 4:

According to the literature and the empirical investigation, is there a significant relationship between SRL and the academic achievement of (upper) primary school students in Ethiopia?

Specific question 5:

According to the literature and the empirical investigation, does SRL moderate the relationship between parenting style and the academic achievement of (upper) primary school students in Ethiopia?

1.4 THE PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between different parenting styles, SRL and academic achievement from the literature as well as in an empirical investigation.

The study specifically aimed to

- investigate the views of the students in selected upper primary schools in Ethiopia of parental acceptance, parental control, the cognitive strategies the

students use, their self-regulated learning, and the parenting styles of their parents;

- examine the relationship between parenting styles and SRL of the students;
- do research on the relationship between parenting styles and the academic achievement of the students;
- examine the relationship between SRL and the academic achievement of the students; and
- establish if SRL moderates the relationship between the parenting style and the academic achievement of the (upper) primary school students.

1.5 THE IMPORTANCE OF THE STUDY

SRL has not yet been exhaustively studied. In particular, as indicated by means of literature research, very few studies have been conducted in Ethiopia on the topic. *Self-regulation* means the students' managing capacity of factors or conditions that can have an effect on learning. According to student-centred proponents of school reform, the educational interventions should focus on the students' intrinsic motivation and SRL, because the main change should take place with the students, and not necessarily in schools, in order to improve the achievement of the students (Dembo, 2004:38).

This study may be significant for the following reasons:

In the first instance, the results of the study may provide useful and updated information on the appropriate parenting style for promoting SRL and academic achievement. The study may also help parents to gear their parenting style to enable their children to improve their SRL, and thus perhaps their academic achievement.

Secondly, since 1994, the call for educational reform in Ethiopia is student-centred (Derebssa, 2006:126), and a main principle of student-centred education is SRL

(Dembo, 2004:38). The outcomes of this study may also be valuable for educators (other than for parents), and therefore for policymakers who are developing programmes, as it may provide information on ways to enhance SRL which can be incorporated into the programme.

Thirdly, the study may be of value in furnishing up-to-date information on the degree of association between the selected independent variables and the dependent variables in Ethiopia. It may also prompt interested investigators to further pursue studies on SRL.

1.6 THE RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

The research paradigm and research design are briefly explained below.

1.6.1 The research paradigm

This study is embedded in a positivistic research paradigm. According to the positivists, the world is objective (Swanson, 2005:19), which means that the social world must be studied according to the principles of the natural sciences, seeing that knowledge is based on phenomena that are observable (Henn, Weinstein & Foard, 2006:16). Positivists generally investigate the relationships between variables, and use quantitative methods for testing and verifying the stated hypotheses (Swanson, 2005:19). They explain phenomena by formulating causal laws such as generalisations, based on the statistical testing of a given theory (Henn, et al., 2006:16).

This study investigated the relationship between parenting style, SRL and academic achievement. It used a quantitative approach that aimed at testing the stated hypotheses by involving the numerical analysis of the data. A positivist paradigm was thus followed where a quantitative method was used to test the stated hypotheses.

As indicated, a quantitative research method was used to study the relationship between parenting style, SRL and academic achievement. According to Burns and Grove (2005:23), "…..quantitative research is a formal, objective, systematic process in which numerical data are used to obtain information about the world".

The method is thus used

- to describe variables;
- to examine relationships among variables; and
- to determine cause-and-effect interactions between variables (Burns & Grove, 2005:23).

When making use of a quantitative method the data are collected, based on standardised approaches on a range of variables. The investigation searches for patterns of causal relationships and tests-given theories by accepting or rejecting precise hypotheses (Henn, et al., 2006:117).

The research design that was used in this quantitative study is explained in the next section.

1.6.2 The research design

The logic of positivist research implies that the research design must be structured (Henn, et al., 2006:13). A *research design* basically refers to the plan or strategy of shaping the research (Henn, et al., 2006:46).

The research combines elements of different quantitative designs. The main research question points towards a correlational research design. *Correlational research* is research "… in which information on at least two variables is collected for each subject in order to investigate the relationship between the variables" (McMillan &

Schumacher, 2010:486). However, the research also includes an element of a *survey* design, since a questionnaire is used to determine the current views and beliefs of students on parental acceptance, parental control, the cognitive strategies they use, their self-regulation and the parenting styles of the parents (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010:491).

In the correlational research design the researcher will not attempt to manipulate any variables. Instead, he/she is more concerned to determine the extent to which the multiple predictors explain the outcome variable, but does not necessarily conclude that one variable causes the other variable/s (Schmidt & Brown, 2009:177-178).

As noted, a correlational research design is used to establish the statistical association between two or more variables. The variables in this study are parenting styles, SRL and academic achievement. The relationships between parenting styles and SRL, parenting styles and academic achievement, as well as SRL and academic achievement will be examined, as mentioned before. In addition, it will be investigated whether SRL moderates the relationship between parenting styles and academic achievement.

1.6.3 The subjects

The subjects in this study are upper primary school students, namely grade 7 students of one regional city, namely Hawassa, in the Southern Nations Nationalities and People (SNNP) state. Hawassa was selected by using a combination of convenience and purposive sampling. (See chapter 4 for more details.)

1.6.4 The research instrument

Two different questionnaires were used in the study to measure the children's perceptions of their parents' parenting styles, and to measure SRL. The questionnaire for parenting styles was developed by Lambourn, Mounts, Steinberg, and Dornbusch

(1991). Since the questionnaire on parenting styles was adapted for use in Ethiopia (e.g., by Abesha, 1997), the researcher used this questionnaire. The questionnaire includes items on biographical data (such as age and gender), and items that measure two dimensions of parenting style. The two dimensions for the measuring of parental styles are two subscales. The first subscale is on 'acceptance', and consists of nine items on parental closeness and acceptance, and the second subscale is on 'control', which consists of ten items.

A questionnaire developed by Pintrich and De Groot (1990) will be used to measure SRL. The SRL dimension involves cognitive strategy (13 items), meta-cognitive strategy and effort management – SRL (nine items).

The academic achievement of the participants will be obtained from their school records (see chapter 4).

1.6.5 The method of data analysis

Once the data have been collected, descriptive statistics and correlation will be used for the analysis. In addition, ANOVA will be employed in the analysis when there are more than two groups, to investigate the differences between group means. Inferential statistics will also be used to examine the effect of more than one independent variable to determine if the effect of independent variable (a) on the dependent variable is also influenced by the other independent variable (b) (Foster, Barkus & Yavorsky, 2006:7). (See chapter 4 for more detail.)

1.7 DEMARCATION OF THE STUDY

Ethiopia has nine regional states and two administrative regions, namely Tigray, Afar, Amhara, Oromiya, Benishungul Gumuz, SNNP, Gambella, Harari, Addis Ababa administration, and Dire Dawa administration. Of the total population of Ethiopia, 80%

is found in the biggest regional states, namely Amhara, SNNP and Oromia (Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia Population Census Commission, 2008). The selection of the three regions could be relatively representative of the total population. However, using convenience and purposive sampling, SNNP was selected, since this region was geographically within reach for the researcher, and was thus convenient to make use of (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2000:102). *Purposive sampling* refers to the way that respondents are selected for a specific reason (Cohen, et al., 2000:103). The majority of the different ethnic groups of Ethiopia are represented in SNNP. From this region, SNNP, Hawasa schools were also selected, for the reason that they are easily accessible and manageable to gather the data, as budget and time constraints existed. This indicates the demarcation for the empirical study.

Pintrich, Smith, Garacia and McKeachie (1991) state that SRL strategies include cognitive strategies (rehearsal, elaboration, organisation), meta-cognitive strategies (critical thinking, planning, monitoring and regulating), and resource management strategies (time and study environment, effort regulation, peer learning and help-seeking). However, when Pintrich and De Groot (1990:33) define SRL, there are three components of SRL that seem to be important to class performance. Of these, SRL and cognitive strategies are the focus of this study, in accordance with the adapted questionnaire that will be used.

In line with the general research problem and with the specific research question, the study also includes all aspects of the following four parenting styles, namely an authoritative style (high, both in responsiveness and demand), an authoritarian style (low in responsiveness but high in demand), an indulgent style (high in responsiveness but low in demand), and a neglectful style (low both in responsiveness and demand).

Finally, the study includes an examination of the students' academic achievement with regard to how it is related to the above variables of SRL and parenting style.

In the next section, two important concepts of the study are explained.

1.8 CLARIFICATION OF THE CONCEPTS

The following is a clarification of two of the concepts used in this study.

1.8.1 Parenting style

Coplan, Hastings, Lagace-seguin and Moulton (2002:2) state that *parenting style* refers to the general pattern of child rearing, which involves the techniques that parents use for parenting, and the responses parents give to their children. Stevens (2008:1) points out that *parenting style* refers to the way in which parents give guidance to, set limits to, and interact with their children.

In the light of the above the definition of *parenting style* for the purposes of the study is, namely

The general pattern of childrearing that parents use to give guidance to, set limits and interact with their children.

1.8.2 Self-regulated learning (SRL)

SRL is conceptualised in three ways. Firstly, SRL refers to the capacity of students to use meta-cognitive strategies (cognitive modification). Secondly, SRL refers to the capacity of students to use both meta-cognitive and cognitive strategies. Thirdly, the concept indicates the importance of involving motivation, and the cognitive and meta-cognitive components of learning (Marcou, & Philippo, 2005:299). Kauffman (2004:139-161) defines *SRL* as the students' intentional efforts to manage and direct complex activities that involve three primary components, namely the use of cognitive

strategies, meta-cognitive processing, and motivational beliefs. According to Pintrich and De Groot (1990:33), *SRL* is defined as the composition of meta-cognitive strategies, cognitive strategies and effort-regulation strategies.

For the purposes of this study, the researcher defines *SRL* as

the students' ability to use meta-cognitive, cognitive and effort-management strategies that are relevant to classroom performance.

1.9 THE RESEARCH PROGRAMME

The investigation is reflected in six chapters, as follows:

Chapter one focused on the orientation to the study. This involved the background to the study, the investigation of the problem, the problem statement, the research questions, the purpose of the study, the importance of the study, the research methodology and design, the demarcation of the study, the clarification of concepts, and the research programme.

Chapter two involves the nature of parenting style, the types of parenting styles, the nature of SRL, the social cognitive theory, models of SRL, and SRL strategies.

Chapter three reflects the parenting styles and the children's academic outcomes that involve parenting styles and SRL, parenting styles and positive and negative academic achievement, parenting styles, and SRL and academic achievement. In addition, it reflects SRL and academic achievement, and SRL as a mediator of the relationship of parenting style and academic achievement.

Chapter four explains the research design and data-collection methods. It also describes the subjects of the study, the types of instruments, and the methods of data analysis.

In **chapter five** the findings of the research are presented and discussed.

Chapter 6 entails an integrated summary of the investigation, the conclusion of the study, an explanation of the study's limitations, and recommendations for practice and for further studies.

1.10 CONCLUSION

In chapter one the researcher provided general information about parenting style and SRL, and their interaction with academic achievement. The purpose of the study is to investigate the relationships of parenting style, SRL and academic achievement.

In this study, the following major research question was stated, namely

What is the relationship between parenting style, SRL and the academic achievement of selected (upper) primary school students in Ethiopia?

In addition, the research paradigm and research design were briefly explained. Also, the instruments that were used to measure parenting style and SRL were explained.

In chapter two the emphasis is placed on the theoretical framework of the study. To this end, parenting styles and SRL are explained. This involves the nature and types of parenting styles and the nature of SRL, the social cognitive theory, models of SRL and SRL strategies. An approach of deduction is followed, as a quantitative method is used in the investigation. In this case the researcher starts with the theory, generates hypotheses from the theory, and then tests these hypotheses with the data that are gathered.

CHAPTER 2

THE THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK OF PARENTING STYLE AND SRL

2.1 INTRODUCTION

In chapter 1 an orientation to and overview of the study was provided. It included the background to the study, the problem statement, the purpose and importance of the study, an explanation of the research design and methodology, the demarcation of the study, a clarification of concepts, and the research programme.

In chapter 2 the emphasis is placed on the theoretical framework of parenting style and SRL. This includes the nature of parenting styles, the types of parenting styles, the nature of SRL, the social cognitive theory, the models of SRL (Zimmerman's & Pintrich's models), and SRL strategies.

2.2 PARENTING STYLES

Regarding parenting styles, prominence is given to the nature of parenting styles, and the types of parenting styles.

2.2.1 The nature of parenting styles

Children are raised as members of a family, and as part of the family dynamics (Bornstein & Cheah, 2006:17). According to Bornstein and Cheah (2006:17), the parents create the first and the all-embracing ecology of a child's development. Parenting involves the care of children. It aims to fulfil the physical, emotional and social needs of the children. The main tasks of parenting include nurturance and

socialisation (Katz, Corlyon, La Placa & Hunter, 2007:7). The parents' beliefs and behaviour have an impact on their children's development. Their differences and similarities in attitudes and actions influence the nature and course of their children's development. Different parents use different parenting mechanisms and follow different parenting models (Bornstein & Cheah, 2006:17).

Parenting style describes a parent's attitudes, beliefs and values, and is related to how parenting can be carried out best (Husenits, 2006:253). It refers to the normal variations in parenting (Shaffer & Gordon, 2005:16), and represents the process by which children learn from their parents the rules of the society in which they live. Woolfolk (2010:68) describes *parenting styles* as, "…the ways of interacting with and disciplining children." Parents differ in how they control or socialise their children, and the degree to which they do it. However, the main role that all parents play is socialising, teaching and guiding their children (Shaffer & Gordon, 2005:16), thus preparing their children for their autonomous adult lives. If the socialisation is optimum, it supports the child to function well as an adult, and to continue to do so even when the parents are not around. Therefore it may be possible to predict whether socialisation would be successful or not through observing child-rearing practices (Husenits, 2006:253).

In addition to the above, researchers found that there are significant correlations between the characteristics of parenting and the behaviour of children. Those correlations are associated with regular and common patterns of overall interaction, parenting style and the expectations of the parents. These factors influence the behaviour of children. "Single incidents or isolated acts may differ but in general, interactions take on a characteristic blend of warmth and control that come to characterize the parenting style", according to Crosser (2005:119).

Parents indicate different approaches when they balance demandingness and responsiveness. *Demandingness* is an indication of how parents employ power, how they monitor and supervise their children's activities, and how they control, prohibit

and modify their children's behaviour in order to align it with their standards. *Responsiveness* refers to the degree of the parents' expression of love, and their way of balancing their children's needs for protection and autonomy with their children's needs and wishes (Baumrind, 2008:1). These characteristics of demandingness and responsiveness generate different types of parenting styles (Baumrind, 1991:61-62; Baumrind, 2008:1; Shaffer & Gordon, 2005:16).

2.2.2 Types of parenting styles

Based on a consideration of both demanding and responsive practices, four parenting patterns are identified, namely authoritarian, authoritative, indulgent and neglectful (Baumrind, 2008:1; Shaffer & Gordon, 2005:17; Woolfolk, 2010:69). These four parenting styles differ in naturally-occurring patterns of parental values, practices, behaviour, and a distinct balance of responsiveness and demand (Shaffer & Gordon, 2005:17).

2.2.2.1 Authoritarian parents

According to Woolfolk (2010:69), authoritarian parents seem cold and controlling in their interaction with their children. They are high in being demanding and low in being responsive (Couchenour & Chrisman, 2011:125). Authoritarian parents are obedience-oriented; they set limits and expect their children to respect their orders without explaining the rationale for their decisions. Often they expect an unquestioning obedience (Callahan, 2005:73). If a child enquires about a rule or a guideline, authoritarian parents are unresponsive. They tend to say, "Do it because I say so" (Johnson & O'Connor, 2002), or "You should do what I say because I am your parent" (Lichtman, 2011:55). Authoritarian parents make all the decisions, and their decisions are indicated to their children without any clarification (Crosser, 2005:119)

Authoritarian parents believe that their children may not necessarily know what is best for them, even though the children may know what they want (Bornstein, & Zlotnick, 2009:282). The parents assume that, as adults, they know what is in the best interests of their children. Therefore their adult views are considered more important than their children's desires (Lao, 2008). These parents are not rational and issue-oriented, and do not consider the reality of the child's interests, abilities and needs in their parenting. Instead, they demand conformity to parental wishes without being flexible (Baumrind, 2008:5). It is very difficult for authoritarian parents to know the preferences, strengths and needs of their children (Moonie, 2005:154).

Authoritarian parents are likely to bond only partially with their children (Balswick & Balswick, 2007:112), and are highly demanding (Callahan, 2005:73). They usually say to their children, "Don't ask me why; just do it" (Flannery, 2006:73). Much of the interaction between authoritarian parents and their children is characterised by the one-sided obligation that the child should do what the parents want, but the parents do not need to do what the child wants (Lao, 2008). They are not parents who involve their children in dialogue (Pressley & McCormick, 2007:305). Because of this, the parents tend to demonstrate a low level of communication with their children, and if there is communication, it is mostly one-way, in which the parents instruct their children what to do (Crosser, 2005).

These parents believe that they are responsible for providing for their children. The children do not have the right to tell them how best they are to do it (Lao, 2008). They often discourage their children when they attempt to be autonomous. However, they try to shape their children to acquire attitudes and behaviour that the parents believe is desirable (Bornstein, & Zlotnick, 2009:282). An authoritarian parenting style is summarised by the phrase, "Children must be seen and not heard" (Lichtman, 2011:55).

If authoritarian parents require obedience, they use punishment (Arinoldo & Arinoldo, 2007:61), and they tend to use this relatively frequently (Kay, 2006:50). If the children

of authoritarian parents are disobedient, the consequences are harsh (Crosser, 2005:119). Therefore, the children learn to respect their parents' instructions, not because they believe the parents' rules are fair or reasonable, but for fear of the consequences if they do not obey the rules (Douglas, 2004:62-63). In addition, the children of authoritarian parents tend to conceal the identities of their friends, and to conceal their true behavior, as they do not want to be punished by their parents. Because of this, the parents have little knowledge about how their children behave away from home (Davies, 2011:77).

In addition to the above, when authoritarian parents control their children, they enforce strong limits and control their children excessively (Dolecki, 2012:68). They do not show affection, and are not sympathetic to their children's requests. They often expect their children to indicate behaviour that is not appropriate for their age (Lichtman, 2011:55), for example, expecting of pre-schoolers to be quiet for a long time. They also do not consider their children's interests, abilities and needs (Baumrind, 2008:5).

Authoritarian parents have a tendency to believe that 'warmth' is not an important dimension of childrearing (Lao, 2008), with the result that they are fault-finders, and are often overly critical. These parents rarely admire their children for the timely completion of everyday jobs, or for achieving good grades. They also do not encourage their children's initiatives. They control their children's activities, and compel them to follow unreasonable rules (Baumrind, 2008:5). This rigid control proceeds even when their children are mature (Weiten, Dunn & Hammer, 2009:365). As a result, an authoritarian parenting style tends to be dictatorial (Moonie, 2005:154), and is extremely damaging. This style impedes the child's ego and prevents him or her from learning optimally (Dalpiaz, 2004:102).

Children whose parents are authoritarian have a tendency to be emotionally detached from their parents at an early age. Such detachment is probably similar to rejection (Weiten, et al., 2009:365). The children of this parenting style are among

those who have a tendency to flee from home, or to leave home as soon as they become financially able. Sometimes these children purposely register at a college that is a great distance from home so that they can be as far away from their parents as possible. Also, if these children believe that their parents misunderstand them, their childhood experiences may lead them to a lifetime of isolation from their family (Lao, 2008), or they may develop extreme negative feelings towards their parents, and that then leads to conflict (Dalpiaz, 2004:103). In addition, the children of authoritarian parents learn to be disrespectful, selfish and unfair. The main lesson that authoritarian parents teach is that, “I just have to wait until I grow up, then I can do what I like” (Dalpiaz, 2004:103).

The children of parents with an authoritarian style of parenting commonly indicate poor communication skills. This is because they lack practice in meaningful verbal interaction with the central figure(s) during their childhood days (Lao, 2008), as authoritarian parents do not value communicating with their children. These children also have relatively poor interpersonal skills, and thus may experience social problems (Kay, 2006:50).

If parents are highly controlling, their children commonly show low levels of initiative. The children of authoritarian parents live with the idea that anything that they do without their parents’ approval may result in punishment by their parents (Lao, 2008). The consequence of this belief is that they would rather not do anything or wait for permission, rather than risk punishment. In the end the children subjected to authoritarian parents do not learn to live with the consequences of their behaviour (Crosser, 2005: 120). As a result, they generally lack confidence, and are often concerned whether they do things well, or get positive feedback, or not (Moonie, 2005:154).

An authoritarian parenting style is associated with negative outcomes, that include the fact that the children are withdrawn, discontented, with greater levels of anxiety and depression (Crosser, 2005:120; Sclafani, 2004:47). They often experience social

problems, exhibit aggressive behaviour (Kay, 2006:50; Shergill, 2010:412), and have poor academic skills (Abar, Carter & Winsler, 2009:269; Kay, 2006:50). Such children also tend to be irritable, conflicted, and moody (Shergill, 2010:412). They are often prone to school misconduct, delinquency and drug-abuse (Garcia & Gracia, 2009:121). Alternatively, Crosser (2005:120) indicated that these children often have a tendency to acceptable school behaviour and academic performance.

2.2.2.2 Authoritative parents

Woolfolk (2010:69) describes *authoritative parents* as parents who "set clear limits, endorse rules, and expect mature behaviour". They listen to their children's concerns, give reasons for rules, and follow democratic decision-making methods. Parents who are authoritative are highly responsive, as well as highly demanding (Couchenour & Chrisman, 2011:124).

Parents using authoritative parenting styles have a tendency to allow their children more freedom with responsibility than parents who are authoritarian, and they foster individuality and independence within limits (Robbins, 2012:226). They also aim to have children who are assertive, socially responsible, self-regulated, and cooperative (Baumrind, 1991:62). The independent behaviour which is expected and demanded by authoritative parents is appropriate for the age of the children (Sclafani, 2004:46). Even though these parents expect their children to be independent, they also place restrictions on what their children are allowed to do (Pardeck, 1998:43). Authoritative parents have clear guidelines for how their children should behave, and they monitor them accordingly (Bornstein & Zlotnick, 2009:282).

Parents who are authoritative tend to expect a lot from their children (Flannery, 2006:75). They expect mature behaviour that considers their children's range of physical and cognitive abilities (Arinoldo & Arinoldo, 2007:63). An age-appropriate explanation which focuses on the consequence of 'good' and 'bad' behaviour is given to the children (Weiten, et al., 2009:365). If the parents observe good behaviour and

achievement and the children meet that expectation, they reward them, instead of punishing them when they fail to meet the expectations (Pressley & McCormick, 2007:305). However, they do criticise their children when there are actions that require change (Baumrind, 2008:5). This means that such parents use supportive methods rather than punitive methods in order to maintain control and to discipline their children (Baumrind, 1991:62). Authoritative parents also engage in negotiation with their children (Weiten, et al., 2009:365). If the children want to violate the boundaries that are set by their parents, authoritative parents evaluate the situation and take into consideration the children's wishes, reasons and risks. They then strive to reach consensus. They are willing to amend their rules, to negotiate with their children or to provide clear reasons as to why things have to be as they are. These parents commonly say to their children, "I do not know if that is such a good idea, but I am willing to talk about it" (Lao, 2008). Therefore, authoritative parents are assertive in their interaction, rather than intrusive or restrictive (Mital & Saksena, 2006:97).

The interactions between authoritative parents and their children are warm (Pressley & McCormick, 2007:305), as authoritative parents show affection and understand their children's views (Lichtman, 2011:54). These parents love their children and are responsive to their needs by showing warmth and sensitivity to their needs, and by establishing an effective pattern of communication early on (Kay, 2006:48). Authoritative parents are eager to see their children perform well. They give their children time and attention, and respond to their children's needs (Moonie, 2005:154). These parents believe that they have the responsibility to make their children happy, but within limits. An authoritative parenting style is more likely to show bilateral constraints. The parents have the tendency to show a high degree of interaction with their children in which both the children and the parents are expected to adapt their behaviour to enhance mutual happiness (Lao, 2008).

The children of authoritative parents do not try to be seen as obedient. They learn and evaluate the reasons for the limitations of their parents, and may come to internalise these reasons, but not in an uncritical way, as the children of authoritarian

parents do. The values that the children of authoritative parents internalise are based on reason and not on fear (Lao, 2008), because these parents discuss, negotiate and set clear limits (Kay, 2006:48). Authoritative parents are also more likely to facilitate two-way communication (Douglas, 2004:62). Additionally, authoritative parents expect their children to be independent and self-directing (Balswick & Balswick, 2007:113). They support initiation during childhood, so that their children have the tendency to be willing to try new ventures (Lao, 2008).

The children of authoritative parents are independent, assertive, responsible, and confident. The decisions of the children of authoritative parents are wise. The children manifest positive self-competence and appropriate social skills (Crosser, 2005:121). The children of authoritative parents also have a tendency to be competent, are well-liked and industrious (Nease & Austin, 2010). In addition, they indicate a tendency for high social competency, self-reliance and social responsibility (Pardeck, 1998:43). Furthermore, children of authoritative parents display less behavioural problems than children of authoritarian and neglectful parents (Crosser, 2005:121; Garcia & Gracia, 2009:121; Querido, Warner & Eyberg, 2002:275). They are well-adjusted, self-confident children who respect themselves and others, and they show self-control. They are less likely than the children of other parents to be rebellious when they reach adolescence (Douglas, 2004:64), and they are more likely to be achievement-oriented (Douglas, 2004:64; Sclafani, 2004:46). Additionally, the children of authoritative parents are likely to be well-behaved, self-assured, goal-oriented in their daily activities, are effective as self-managers, and are acquainted with strategies to cope with stress, and to handle problems calmly and purposively. Children who have authoritative parents are very good friends who respect adults and authority figures, and act in a cooperative and compliant fashion, instead of in a disobedient or challenging way (Sclafani, 2004:46). They tend to have high aself-esteem (Moonie, 2005:154), are mature, perform well academically and are socially confident (Kay, 2006:49). Newman, Harrison, Dashiff and Davies (2008:147) concur that the children of authoritative parents display highly protective, and little risky behaviour.

2.2.2.3 Indulgent parents

Indulgent parents are characterised by child-centred, warm and responsive attitudes, even though the parents are low in exhibiting control (Crosser, 2005:120). This parenting style is also called a *permissive* parenting style (Pressley & McCormick, 2007:305). Indulgent parents are warm and nurturing, and have few rules and consequences for their children when they break the rules (Woolfolk, 2010:69). They are indulgent to accept and fulfil the impulses and desires of their children (Lichtman, 2011:56). They allow their children to control themselves (Levine, 2005:45), and allow them a lot of freedom in their decision-making (Robbins, 2012:226). According to Sclafani (2004:47), "Indulgent parents view children as free spirits who need a lot of room to grow and flower". They allow their children a great deal of self-regulation, even when they are very young (Arinoldo & Arinoldo, 2007:61). Indulgent parents give their children permission to decide for themselves on how to manage their daily activities (Pressley & McCormick, 2007:305). They also tend not to have rules and guidelines for their children's daily activities, such as going to bed, and when to eat (Moonie, 2005:154). Furthermore, indulgent parents do not demand mature and competent behaviour from their children (Baumrind, 1991:62). These parents do not teach their children how to control their behaviour. The children are unrestricted. Therefore the children tend to act immaturely (Nease & Austin, 2010). They may behave egotistical, and are unacceptable to their peers and adults, because they do not consider the rights and feelings of others (Kay, 2006:47). When their children show undesirable behaviour which the parents want to stop, the parents use bribing, the withdrawing of love, or making the child feel guilty. When the child opposes the set limits, indulgent parents avoid confrontation in order not to be perceived as authority figures, but rather as good friends (Baumrind, 2008:5). Accordingly, indulgent parents distort the clear difference between being a parent and being a friend (Moonie, 2005:154).

Parents who are indulgent may emphasise the needs, and especially the happiness of their children (Moonie, 2005:154). Indulgent parents believe that they have the responsibility to make sure that their children are pleased. This is a parenting style which often results from having had a rough time themselves as children. The parents have therefore decided that they would do everything they can to please their children (Lao, 2008). Thus, parents who are indulgent have a tendency to be highly responsive to the needs and desires of their children, and the parents show low levels of demand (Kay, 2006:48). In effect, indulgent parents use an extremely supportive approach of interaction, and often to such an extent that the children wind up controlling the situation. Parents who are indulgent believe that, “Nothing is too good for my child”, and they are willing to go out of their way to make their children happy (Lao, 2008).

Parents who are indulgent tend to interact positively with their children, which enhances the children’s self-esteem (Moonie, 2005:154). However, since these children lack boundaries, they may be egocentric in their behaviour, with the result that they do not consider the feelings and rights of others. They may also be insecure and unhappy (Kay, 2006:47). Children who lack self-confidence (self-efficacy) are more likely to be impulsive. These children do not set specific aims for their lives, and live without any clear direction. They are often moody, dominant and rigid, and try everything to have their way, instead of working towards their goals, or of making an effort (Sclafani, 2004:46). Additionally, children of indulgent parents may be aggressive and throw temper tantrums when they are frustrated. When they reach adolescence, their behaviour may be hostile, selfish, and rebellious (Crosser, 2005:120). The children of indulgent parents show less self-regulation, and are less achievement-oriented. Indulgent parenting contributes to dependency rather than to responsible self-sufficiency. It has also been found that adolescents subjected to indulgent parenting are more likely to use drugs than children of demanding parents (Baumrind, 2008:5).

In contrast to the above, some researchers have found that the children who perceive their parents as indulgent, score equal or better on several indicators of psychological adjustment, than the children of authoritative parents. Garcia and Gracia (2009:122-123), as well as Gracia, Garcia and Lila (2008:121), indicated that in Spain the indulgent parenting style is the dominant type of parenting style.

2.2.2.4 Neglectful parents

Neglectful parenting is characterised by an adult-centred (Berg-Cross, 2001:172), unresponsive and a low in controlling interaction of parents with their children (Crosser, 2005:120; Kay, 2006:51). Since they demonstrate a parent-centred lifestyle, they would rather give priority to their own personal needs than to what is best for their children (Bornstein & Zlotnick, 2009:283). The child-rearing practices of neglectful parents neither have structure nor possess a monitoring system. They may even completely reject their responsibility of child-rearing (Baumrind, 1991:62), and request very little responsibility from their children, e.g., they rarely assign their children household tasks (Lao, 2008). These parents also show low levels of responsiveness to their children (Lichtman, 2011:56), and do not want to be involved in their children's lives (Harmening, 2010:115). In particular, neglectful parents are not likely to get involved in helping their children with their homework, supervising them, and spending time with them (Weiten, et al., 2009:365). The attitude of neglectful parents is not the result of not loving their children, but the outcome of the belief that their children must live their own lives and be free of parental control as far as possible (Lao, 2008). Besides these factors, neglectful parents also do not like the burden of child-rearing responsibilities (Baumrind, 2008:5).

In addition to the above, neglectful parents bond little with their children, due to their low levels of support and control (Balswick & Balswick, 2007:110). In the most extreme form, the neglectful parenting style may appear to others as negligence in respect of, or the abandonment of their children (Bornstein & Zlotnick, 2009:283). Such abandonment can be expressed in different ways, such as physical neglect, or

the denial of love or affection (Shergill, 2010:413). Neglectful parents commonly say, “You have to learn from your own experience” (Lao, 2008). These parents make little contribution of governance or education to their children’s development of character or competence (Baumrind, 2008:1).

Most of the children of unengaged parents are likely to feel unimportant and rejected, and show the poorest outcomes in all domains (Lichtman, 2011:56). They are likely to be insecure, do less well educationally and socially, and manifest emotional and behavioural difficulties (Kay, 2006:51). For example, they have the tendency to become emotionally needy, so that they need emotional guidance and reassurance from others, in particular from those who are close to them (Lao, 2008). These children also show moderate or low levels of self-esteem (Sclafani, 2004:47), which expose them to others who may try to manipulate them and take advantage of them (Lao, 2008). The children of unengaged parents are also likely to have a low self-image or little self-confidence, and act without purpose and responsibility. These children are likely to be moody, and impulsive, and not able to follow rules or to adhere to authority (Sclafani, 2004:48). When they reach adolescence, they may manifest conduct-disorder, tend to be alcohol and drug users, and may be involved in juvenile delinquency and gangsterism (Harmening, 2010:115). Accordingly, Crosser (2005:120) indicates that children of neglectful parents may be hostile, selfish, and rebellious. Sclafani (2004:48) mentions the likeliness of these children to be high school dropouts.

2.3 SELF-REGULATED LEARNING (SRL)

In this section the emphasis is on the nature of SRL, the social cognitive theory models of SRL, and SRL strategies.

2.3.1 The nature of SRL

Self-regulation refers to "...the self-generated thoughts, feelings and actions that are planned and cyclically adapted to attain personal goals" (Zimmerman, 2000:14). It can also be said that *self-regulation* is a self-directive process of transformation in which students change their mental ability to acquire academic skills (Zimmerman, 2002:65).

Although self-regulation can be applied to sport, health, and industry (Magno, 2009:26), in this study the main focus was on SRL in respect of academic performance. SRL implies learning regulated by the students themselves, and is not motivated and regulated by external factors and people. The students' management of their own learning, the steering and directing of cognitive activities and motivation to the attainment of learning goals, are the main features of SRL (Boekaerts & Cascallar, 2006:199-200; Woolfolk, 2010:359). Thus, *SRL* refers to the high involvement of the individuals themselves in their learning, and is characterised by the meta-cognitive, motivational and behavioural processes that enhance learning (McCaslin, Bozack, Napolean, Thomas, Vasquez, Wayman & Zhang, 2006:228). *Meta-cognitively,* self-regulated students are students who plan, set goals, organise, self-monitor and self-evaluate their learning at different points in the process of the acquisition of knowledge. *Motivationally*, self-regulated students report high self-efficacy, self-attribution and intrinsic interest, while *behaviourally* they select structure and create an environment which contributes to optimum learning (Zimmerman, 1990:5).

Self-regulated students are independent students. They have the ability to manage their learning as they focus on their studies. They plan and study ahead to score the highest possible marks in tests, and they use applicable strategies to recall facts. These abilities enable self-regulated students to eventually achieve high academic outcomes (Magno, 2009:26). According to Woolfolk (2010:258), SRL is influenced by knowledge, motivation and volition.

2.3.2 The social cognitive theory

There are various theories on SRL. These theories include the operant theory (Mace, Belfiore & Hutchinson, 2001:39-66), phenomenological views (McCombs, 2001:67-124), the social cognitive theory (Schunk, 2001(b):125-152), the information-processing theory (Winne, 2001:153-190), the volitional theory (Corno, 2001:191-226), the Vygotskian views (McCaslin & Hickey, 2001:227-252), and constructing theories (Paris, Byrnes & Paris, 2001:253-288).

This study applied the social cognitive theory for its usefulness, as is explained next. The social cognitive theory indicates that the self-regulatory development of children can be initiated by adult modelling and support, and those children are then able to practise the academic skills that they have acquired independently. Accordingly, Martinez-Pons (2002:128) suggests that the parents most probably serve as the models of self-regulation for their children.

According to the social cognitive perspective, self-regulation is considered to be the interaction of personal, behavioural and environmental factors which is a triadic and cyclic process (Sungur & Tekkaya, 2006:308), as indicated in Figure 2.1.

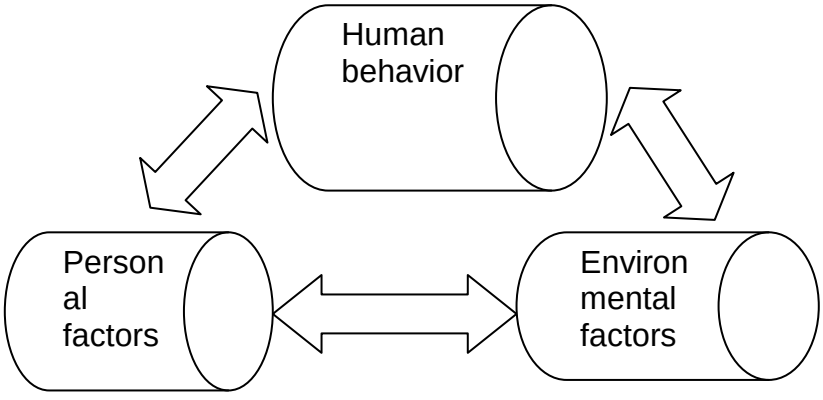

Figure 2-1: Self-regulation as a triadic and cyclic process (Pajares, 2005:341)

Figure 2.1 illustrates the social cognitivist model of interacting factors that constitute the three factors, and involve triadic determinism (Bandura, 1989:2). The *personal* process entails the knowledge of the students, their meta-cognitive processes, the goals they set, and the effects thereof. The *behavioural* process involves self-observation, self-judgment, and self-reaction. The *environmental* process includes enactive outcomes, modelling and verbal persuasion (Sungur & Tekkaya, 2006:308).

In the social cognitive theory, the reciprocal nature of the causes of human functioning leads to the possibility of giving more emphasis to personal, environmental or behavioural factors. For instance, young people's well-being can be advanced by improving their emotional, cognitive or motivational processes, and by improving the skills they possess, or by changing the social conditions in which they live. Teachers can do many things in the school to foster their students' confidence and competence by contributing to the improvement of the students' personal factors, their behaviour, and environmental factors. Pajares (2005:340) agrees that teachers support the students to rectify faulty self-beliefs and habits of thinking (personal factors), to improve their academic skills, and to enhance their self-regulatory practices (behaviour). Teachers can also change the school and classroom structures which may impede the students' success in their academic work (environmental factors).

2.3.3 Models of SRL

There are two common models of SRL that are derived from the social cognitive theory, namely Zimmerman's social cognitive model of self-regulation, and Pintrich's general framework for SRL (Xu, 2008:19).

2.3.3.1 Zimmerman's Social Cognitive Model of Self-regulation

Zimmerman (2002:67) states that, according to the social learning theorists, there are three cyclical phases in a self-regulation process, namely forethought, the performance phase, and self-reflection.

These are indicated by Figure 2-2.

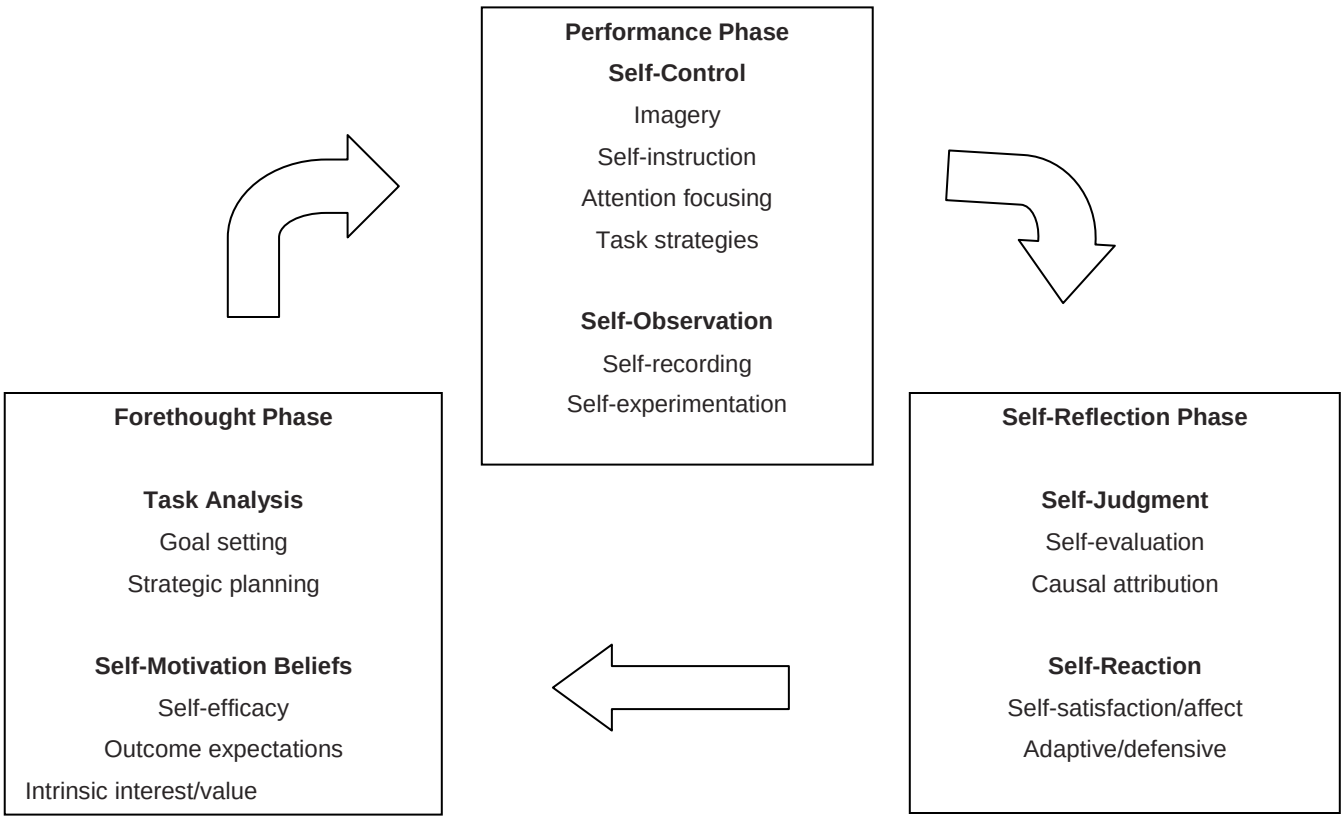

Figure 2-2: Zimmerman's Social Cognitive Model of Self-regulation (Zimmerman, 2002:67)

In respect of Figure 2-2, the first phase is the *forethought* phase, which refers to processes and beliefs that occur before learning (Zimmerman, 2000:16). It consists of task analysis (i.e., entails goal-setting, strategic planning and the activation of

perceptions), and knowledge of the task, as well as self-motivation (Haibach, Reid & Collier, 2011:179; Ommundsen & Lemyre, 2007:148). Goals are characterised by the duration of time that they take to be achieved in the future. If goals are achieved quickly within a short period of time, it is called *proximal goals.* A *proximal goal* implies higher motivation and better self-regulation than long-term goals or distal goals (Schunk, 2001a:2). Therefore, goal-setting is found to be more effective in proximal goals than in distal goals (Brophy, 2004:68).

Self-motivation involves the students' beliefs about the importance of activities, the extent of intrinsic interest in the activities, and the extent of their self-efficacy beliefs. *Self-motivation* also refers to the personal ability to learn, and to personal consequences of outcome-expectations (Haibach, et al., 2011:180). *Self-efficacy* is the belief or judgement of one's ability to complete a task successfully. It may have an impact on the type and quality of the tasks that are chosen and that students are engaged in (Brophy, 2004:64). If students demonstrate high self-efficacy beliefs, they are willing to select challenging academic tasks, and tend to indicate positive attitudes toward learning (Alkhatib, 2010:67). For instance, if students feel self-efficacious about learning to divide fractions, and if they expect to use this knowledge for college entrance examinations, then they are motivated to learn in a self-regulated manner. *Intrinsic interest* refers to the students' valuing of the task skill for its own merits, and *learning goal orientation* refers to the students' valuing of the process of learning for its own merits. For instance, if students discover that the subject matter of history is interesting, and that it is enjoyable to try and master it, they are motivated to learn in a self-regulated manner (Zimmerman, 2002:68).

The second phase in the model is the *performance* phase, that involves two main categories (Zimmerman & Moylan, 2009:302), namely self-control and self-observation. In the self-control phase, the students start the action by performing volitional control, and by using strategies like self-instruction, imagery, self-monitoring, and attention-control (Bembenutty, 2011:5). The main types of self-control strategies that are used include imagery, self-instruction, attention-focusing, and task

strategies (Ommundsen & Lemyre, 2007:148). These strategies are essential to enhance the students' performance by means of the attention to their work, and how they utilise their efforts in an effective way (Zimmerman, 2000:18).). For instance, if an English-speaking student learns the Spanish word 'pan' for 'bread', this student can form an image of a bread when seeing the word 'pan', or can learn autonomously by using the phrase 'bread pan'. In order to improve controlling their attention, the students can look for places that are free of distracters when they are studying. When using task-strategies, the students are able to group the Spanish word 'pan' with related words of foods (Zimmerman, 2002:68).

Self-observation means that the students monitor their own performance systematically (Zimmerman, 1989:333). Self-observation can be used as a source of information and motivation. The information which is found during observation is used to know to what extent the individuals are making progress to meet their goals (Schunk, 2001b:130). Self-observation entails self-recording events or self-experimentation with personal events to discover their possible causes. For example, in order for students to understand how much time they spend studying, they are often asked to keep record of how they use their time. They may notice that they finish their homework quicker by studying alone rather than by studying with friends. In order to test this hypothesis, they may conduct self-experiments by studying alone, and by comparing the time used in comparison to when they were studying with friends.

Self-monitoring is another form of self-observation that is done internally, and refers to the cognitive tracking aspect of performance. Self-monitoring is illustrated by, for example, observing the frequency with which an individual makes a mistake to capitalise words in writing an essay (Woolfolk, 2010:223; Zimmerman, 2002:68).

The third phase of Zimmerman's Social Cognitive Model of Self-regulation is *self-reflection. Self-reflection* refers to the process which occurs following the performance

effort. It has an impact on the response of students to that experience (Ommundsen & Lemyre, 2007:148).

Self-reflection includes self-judgment and self-reaction (Bembenutty, 2011:5). If one's performance is compared against one's goals, it is called self-judgment (Schunk & Zimmerman, 2003:67; Zimmerman, 1989:334). Self-judgment also involves self-evaluation and causal attribution (Zimmerman, 2000:21), and entails the comparison of self-observed performance to a previous performance, or another performance, or even to a kind of external standard. *Causal attribution* refers to the belief that students have with regard to the cause of the errors they have made, or the success they have experienced (Zimmerman, 2002:68). Research on the causal attribution of performance indicates that effort and persistence are higher if students ascribe their performance to internal causes, instead of ascribing it to external or uncontrollable causes (Brophy, 2004:62).

Self-reaction involves the negative or positive evaluation of the progress that students make to achieve set goals (Weiss, 1995:63). The self-reaction toward the progress of the students to reach their goals may motivate their behaviour (Shih, 2002:267). *Self-reaction* implies that the students react according to the goals they have accomplished. If they judge their progress towards set goals as acceptable, and experience satisfaction from having accomplished them, they are more motivated to complete the given task. When they believe that they have the ability to improve their work by hard work, their motivation does not decline even though there may be a negative evaluation. The opposite is true when they believe that they lack the ability to complete the tasks (Schunk & Zimmerman, 2003:68).

Self-reaction includes feelings of satisfaction and positive effect in relation to one's performance and adaptive/defensive responses. *Defensive reactions* refer to the efforts that students make to protect their self-images by using, for example, a withdrawal system to avoid opportunities to learn and perform (e.g., dropping out of a course, or being absent for a test). In contrast, if adjustments are made to foster the

effectiveness of one's method of learning, it is called *adaptive reaction* (e.g., if an individual rejects or improves ineffective learning strategies) (Ommundsen & Lemyre, 2007:148; Zimmerman, 2002:68).

Zimmerman developed a model for SRL which is very helpful in showing how students use specific strategies to study and to achieve course objectives. These strategies include their own willingness, motivation, and meta-cognition (Cheng, 2011:2).

Apart from Zimmerman's model, Pintrich's model has been found to be an important model that tries to integrate the various processes and activities that are very helpful in enhancing SRL (Montalvo & Torres, 2004:4).

This model is explained in the next section.

2.3.3.2 Pintrich's Framework of SRL

Pintrich (2000:453) stated that there are four phases of self-regulation, namely (i) forethought, planning and activation; (ii) monitoring; (iii) control; and (iv) reaction and reflection. In each of these phases there four factors that play a role, namely cognition, motivation, behaviour and context.

These phases are summarised in Table 2.1.

Table 2-1: Pintrich's framework of SRL (Pintrich, 2000:454)

	Areas of self-regulation			
Phases	**Cognition**	**Motivation/affection**	**Behaviour**	**Context**
Forethought, planning and activation	Target goal-setting Prior content knowledge activation Meta-cognition knowledge activation	Goal orientation adoption Efficacy judgment Ease of learning judgments (EOLs); perception of task difficulty Task value orientation Interest activation	(Time and effort learning) (Planning for self-observations behaviour)	(Perception of task) (Perception of context)
Monitoring	Meta-cognitive Awareness and monitoring of cognition	Awareness and monitoring of motivation and affect	Awareness and monitoring of effort, time use, need for help	Monitoring changing task and context conditions
Control	Selection and adaptation of cognitive strategies for learning, thinking	Selection and adaptation of strategies for managing motivation and affect	Increase/ decrease effort	Change/ renegotiate task
Reaction and Reflection	Cognitive judgments Attribution	Affective reaction Attribution	Choice behaviour	Evaluation of task Evaluation of context

The four phases in Table 2-1 are explained in more detail in the next sections.

2.3.4 The four phases of Pintrich's model

2.3.4.1 The forethought, planning and activation phase

The forethought, planning and activation phase refers to the phase of the model that entails the planning, goal-setting, and activation of the perception (knowledge) of the task and the task context, and personal knowledge of the self with regard to the task (Pintrich & Zusho, 2002:65). In the cognitive area, three general types of planning or activation are included, namely target goal-setting, the activation of relevant prior content knowledge, and the activation of meta-cognitive knowledge (Schunk, 2005:86).

Setting learning goals involves planning how to perform a learning task that leads to low, medium and high learning attention (Boekaerts, 2003:19). In target goal-setting, *goals* entail the setting and modification of the specific goals of a task that can be used to assess progress (Kadhiravan & Suresh, 2008:128). Goal-setting can be done at any time during a performance, so that students can perform their tasks by setting specific goals for learning, goals for time-use, and goals for eventual performance, which can be modified by monitoring, control and reflection processes (Pintrich, 2000:457).

In the activation of relevant prior content, learning takes place when the students integrate the new content from the instruction they experience with previous knowledge that exists in their memory. Therefore, the activation of relevant prior knowledge in the long-term memory facilitates this integration (Clark, 2008). The activation process can happen automatically. However, this process can also be regulated and done by using prompts and self-questioning, for example, "What do I know about this domain, subject area, topic, problem type, etc.?" (Pintrich, 2000:457).

The activation of meta-cognitive knowledge can also take place with conscious effort, or without conscious control. The activation involves knowledge of learning strategies

that are essential for the task at hand (Ireson, 2008:64). Meta-cognitive knowledge implies knowledge about knowing and learning (Woolfolk, 2010:270). It involves three kinds of knowledge, namely *declarative knowledge*, including learning strategies like rehearsal strategies and note-taking, *procedural knowledge,* that refers to the way that learning strategies are implemented (why), and *conditional (or self-regulatory) knowledge,* referring to the time and reason to use different strategies (when and why) (Petroselli, 2008 :68; Schunk, 2005:86; Woolfolk, 2010:270).

The motivational aspect of the forethought phase involves goal-orientations, self-efficacy, the perception of the difficulty of the task, the value of the task, and interest (Ireson, 2008:64). *Goal-orientations* are key in this model, and refer to the students' reasons for becoming involved in the tasks (Schunk, 2005:86). *Self-efficacy* refers to the belief that students have about their abilities when they learn or act at a certain level (Pajares, 1996:545; Schunk, 1991:210). "Self-efficacy beliefs regulate human functioning through cognitive, motivational, affective, and decisional processes," according to Bandura (2002:271).

The students' views of the ease of learning or their judgment of the difficulty of the task refers to their ability to judge the level of difficulty of the learning material (Nelson & Narens, as cited in Pintrich, 2000:462). For example, when the teacher introduces a lesson or assigns a worksheet, project or paper in the classroom the students judge the level of the difficulty of the task (Pintrich, 2000:462).

Task value beliefs refer to the students' perceptions of the importance, relevance and usefulness of a specific learning task (Wigfield & Eccles, 2000:72). The students' valuing of a task and their competence both have an impact on their performance and their choice to carry on with the activities. For instance, the students may engage in courses and decide on their future careers if they think they can succeed, and that these choices have value for them (National Research Council, 2007:198). When students value a learning task (for example, if the students view the task as very important, personally relevant or attractive), they are ready to exert greater effort with

the task in comparison to students who do not value the task positively (Boekaerts, 2003:20).

The *behavioural* area of forethought includes the students' activities when they plan the management of their time, as well as the efforts that are needed for the tasks, and how they will do self-observation (Pintrich, 2000:466). *Time-management* and *effort-planning* refer to the preparation of a schedule for studying and for providing the time for different activities. *Planning for self-observation* refers to the decisions that are made by the students on the methods that are used in order to assess their progress and regulate their behaviour (Schunk, 2005:86). The strategies that are used by the students may involve different time-management activities. For example, the students may schedule revision for the examination or homework, self-observation and monitoring, or they may record the number of French words that they learn, or the number of new novels that they read in one week's time. Based on the information that is found by means of self-observation, they may make further plans, and take action (Moseley, Baumfield, Elliot, Gregson, Miller, Higgins & Newton, 2005:239).

The *context* area of forethought includes the students' perceptions of the tasks and the contexts in which these tasks will take place. These perceptions result in cognition. However, the focus of these perceptions is external from the individuals' own cognition or motivation and toward the tasks and context. The *perception of the task* refers to the *nature* of the tasks that are accomplished according to the classroom norms (for example, if a task is done individually or in a group), the *type* of task, and the *grading practices* of the task (Doyle, et al., as cited in Pintrich & Zusho, 2002:84). *Context* also involves the perceptions of the classroom norms and the climate that facilitate or hinder learning. For example, when the students are in the classroom, they have to adhere to the classroom rules and to certain norms. When in the classroom situation they may, for instance, not be permitted to talk, as this may be considered as cheating. All activities can have an impact on how the students behave in the classroom, and on the quality of their learning (Pintrich & Blazevski, 2004:54).

2.3.4.2 The monitoring phase

Phase two of the model includes different types of monitoring processes which indicate the meta-cognitive awareness of the different aspects of the self or the task and the context (Lajoie & Azevedo, 2006:812). Accordingly, the *monitoring* phase entails the awareness of actions and its outcomes which provide information that helps the student to control cognition, behaviour, motivation, and context (Ireson, 2008:64).

Cognitive monitoring refers to the awareness and monitoring of the students' cognition which is related to 'meta-cognition'. Pintrich identifies two main types of monitoring activities, namely *judgment of learning* - this means the determination of the students' success when they learn, and a *feeling of knowing* - this is when the students believe that they know an answer but cannot recall it immediately (Moseley, et al., 2005:237). *Judgment of learning* is involved when the students actively monitor their reading comprehension by asking questions and remembering what they have learnt in class when they are preparing for a test (Pintrich & Blazevski, 2004:39).

Motivational monitoring means that the students become aware of their own self-efficacies, values, attributions, interests and anxieties (Schunk, 2005:86). Research indicates the indirect method that students use to control and regulate their motivation and affect (Pintrich & Blazevski, 2004:46). "In cognitive research, it can be assumed that for individuals to try to control their efficacy, value, interest, or anxiety, they would have to be aware of their beliefs and affects, and monitor them at some level", according to Pintrich (2000:463).

Behavioural monitoring includes the degree of monitoring of the effort and behaviour in relation to the progress that is made (Moseley, et al., 2005:239). The students can monitor their time-management and effort levels, and attempt to adjust their efforts to fit the task. For example, if a student plans to spend only two hours reading certain

chapters in a textbook, but then realises that it is more difficult than he or she anticipated and that it would take more time, it implies the monitoring of their activities (Pintrich & Zusho, 2002:81).

The students cannot and should not only monitor their cognition, motivation and behaviour, but they should also monitor the task and contextual features of the classroom. In the classroom they are not free to do whatever they like, because they engage in social systems that have opportunities and constraints which influence their behaviour (Pintrich & Blazevski, 2004:54). Contextual monitoring, awareness and the monitoring of the classroom rules, the grading practices, the requirements of the task, the reward structures and the general behaviour of the teacher are all important aspects for the students to consider. If the students do not consider these issues they are less likely to adjust their behaviour to be in line with these requirements (Pintrich, 2000:470).

2.3.4.3 The control phase

The third phase in Pintrich's framework of SRL is the control phase. This phase includes the effort that is exerted to control and regulate the various types of the self or the tasks and contexts (Lajoie & Azevedo, 2006:812). In this phase the students attempt to control their cognitions, their motivation, their behaviour, and the contextual factors by the information gained through monitoring with the aim of boosting their learning (Schunk, 2005:86).

The cognitive area involves the various types of cognitive and meta-cognitive strategies that the individuals use to control and regulate their cognition (Kadhiravan & Suresh, 2008:128)**.** Cognitive control and regulation are highly related to cognitive monitoring, which involves the selection and use of cognitive strategies for memorising, reasoning, and problem-solving (Pintrich, 2004:393). *Controlling* indicates the efforts of the students who actively manage, modify or change their strategies to sustain their effectiveness in whatever they are doing. When the

students try to control, regulate and change their cognition, it is associated with monitoring activities. Monitoring activities provide information on the students' progress toward the set goal, and whether there is still a gap between the goal and the current situation. When the students are given a reading assignment and the goal of the assignment is to understand it, they should monitor their comprehension to gain information, or whether they need to change their reading strategies (Pintrich & Blazevski, 2004:40).

The *motivational* control area involves different strategies that can be used to control motivation and affect. Among the strategies that are used in this area is self-efficacy, which entails selecting positive self-talk, selecting positive outcomes, focusing on the contingency of high academic performance, and controlling anxiety (Kadhiravan & Suresh, 2008:128).

The *behavioural* control area involves persistence, exerting effort, and asking for help when needed. If the students are good self-regulators, they know when they have to ask for help. They are then selective in requesting support rather than asking indiscriminately. They ask for help when they want to understand a particular point, or to understand the information from an informative source (Schunk, 2005:87).

Contextual control and regulation is very challenging, as it is beyond the direct control of the students (Pintrich & Blazevski, 2004:55). The *contextual* area of control involves strategies that are helpful in creating a context which is favourable for learning. Avoiding or minimising distractions, as well as attempts at negotiating the requirements of a task are examples of contextual control. If an assignment which is given to the students is very long, and if the students ask their teacher to reduce the number of problems to be solved or the number of pages to be read, this is contextual control. Choosing peers to work with, selecting places where they have to work, and avoiding situations which are distracting, are examples of contextual control (Schunk, 2005:87).

2.3.4.4 The reaction and reflection phase

In this phase the cognitive area involves the students' judgments and evaluation of their performance in the task, as well as their attributions for performance (Pintrich & Zusho, 2002:75). The cognitive reaction and reflection process refers to the personal reflection that is made, based on the performance, and includes evaluation and the acknowledgment of personal outcomes that were reached.

If the students are effective self-regulators, they tend to ascribe their performance outcomes to their own efforts and strategies, instead of to ability (Moseley, et al., 2005:237). The students assess their performances, and these assessments form the basis of their efforts to regulate their motivation, behaviour and context. *Motivation reactions* refer to the efforts that are made to foster motivation when the students discover that they have lost their motivation. For example, they can ascribe their poor performance to a lack of effort instead of to a lack of ability, and they can feel proud after experiencing success, or get angry when they have failed (Schunk, 2005:87).

Behavioural reaction and reflection refer to the cognition of behaviour that entails the wise use of time or the utilisation of adequate effort. *Contextual reaction and reflection* involve the evaluation of task demands and contextual factors (Kadhiravan & Suresh, 2008:129). Therefore the students can conduct a general evaluation of the task or the classroom environment, based on their general enjoyment, comfort and learning achievements (Pintrich & Blazevski, 2004:56). Effective self-regulation involves the students' appraisal of their capacity to accomplish tasks, and of the extent to which the environment is favourable for learning, or if changes are required to enhance learning (Schunk, 2005:87).

Both Pintrich and Zimmerman developed cyclical models of self-regulation that place the emphasis on the interdependence of the different aspects of self-regulation. For example, if the students do not have confidence in their own learning capacities, they are less likely to use effective strategies (Duckworth, Akerman, McGregor, Salter &

Vorhaus, 2009:6). Although Pintrich's and Zimmerman's models are to a great extent similar, the researcher is more concerned with Pintrich's model, as it is directly related to the measuring instrument that is used in the collection of the data.

2.3.5 SRL strategies

SRL strategies are basic elements of SRL (Erden & Uredi, 2008:26). They refer to the actions used by the students to get information, or to the skills that involve agency, purpose and instrumentality perceptions (Zimmerman, 1989:329). According to Pintrich and De Groot (1990:33), three SRL strategies are very important in classroom performance, namely cognitive strategies, meta-cognitive strategies, and effort management strategies.

2.3.5.1 Cognitive strategies

Cognitive strategies are used when the students actively organise information that they have to learn to enhance their achievement (Slater, 2004:47). Pintrich, et al., (1991:19-21) indicated that cognitive strategies include rehearsal, elaboration and organisation.

Rehearsal strategies, as a form of cognitive strategy, are important for simple tasks, and entail reciting and naming items from a list to be learned. Rehearsal is one of the best strategies to organise information in the short-term memory rather than in the long-term memory. Rehearsal strategies do not help students to relate or to integrate new information with existing information. Instead, by rehearsing the material, the students try to memorise keywords. However, they rarely identify the essential terms that are used in a course (Baharom, Idos & Razak, 2003:7; Pintrich, et al., 1991:19; Woolfolk, 2010:242). Rehearsal strategies are also important in learning complex information when it is used beyond repeating information. Among the rehearsal

procedures that help complex learning are the underlining and summarising of facts (oral or written) (Schunk & Zimmerman, 2003:62).

Elaboration strategies refer to the strategies that are helpful to organise information in the long-term memory by relating items that are going to be learned to each other (Baharom, et al., 2003:7; Pintrich, et al., 1991:20). This means that the strategies are essential to integrate and relate new information to the previous information, and thus for making a connection with the information they have already learned (Weinstein, Jung & Acee, 2011:138). Some of the elaboration strategies that are used are imagery, mnemonics and questioning (Schunk & Zimmerman, 2003:62).

Organisational strategies refer to strategies that are essential in the selection of appropriate information, and to relate information in a form of meaningful categories, hierarchies and sequential structures. Therefore, the student is able to visualise, analyse, understand and store the information in the memory in a way that gives meaning (Weinstein, et al., 2011:139). Organisational strategies include the outlining and mapping of information and facts (Schunk & Zimmerman, 2003:63).

2.3.5.2 Meta-cognitive strategies

Meta-cognition is defined as thinking about thinking. Thus, this refers to the internal processes that help to control the thinking behaviour, or to assist the students to learn. It is designed to check or determine whether learning is taking place. When there is no learning, meta-cognition activates other processes that are helpful to rectify the condition (Tuckman & Monetti, 2011:300). *Meta-cognitive knowledge* refers to the knowledge that students have on how, when and what cognitive strategies to use, and to control cognition. A meta-cognitive self-regulatory activity is an activity that involves three general processes, namely planning, monitoring, and regulating (Pintrich, et al., 1991:23).

Planning activities involve two aspects, of which the first is goal-setting. For example, it is a decision which the student needs to make about the level of performance that he/she wants to achieve. When a student sets the goal to score an “A”, the answer to the question will be different from that of a student who sets the goal to score a “C”. *Planning* implies designing a way that is helpful to achieve the set goals (Tuckman & Monetti, 2011:300). In general, planning activities involve goal-setting and task-analysis which are essential to trigger relevant aspects of previous knowledge that facilitates organising and comprehending material (Pinitrich, et al., 1991:23).

Monitoring comprehension is an important aid in deciding if the students apply appropriate procedural and declarative knowledge to the material that is learned, if their strategies are effective, or if a better strategy is required, and why the strategy used improves learning (Schunk & Zimmerman, 2003:63). The monitoring of their thinking and their academic behaviour is a very important element of SRL. Monitoring activities involves the activities that are used to direct the attention when the students read text or listen to a lecture. The students test themselves by asking questions to make sure that they understand the text material and the lecture, or use test-taking strategies by monitoring their speed to be able to adjust to the time which is available in an examination situation (Hofer, Yu & Pintrich, 1998:68; Pintrich & Schrauben, 1992:162).

Regulating activities refer to activities to enable the students to continuously adjust their cognitive activities. Regulatory activities are essential to improve the students’ performances by checking and correcting the activities before proceeding with their tasks (Pinitrich, et al., 1991:23). A regulation strategy is highly related to monitoring. Many self-regulatory strategies exist that are used by the students. For example, when the students read the text material, they ask themselves questions to monitor their comprehension. When they do not follow what they have read they have to regress and reread the text. This reading is a self-regulatory strategy. This strategy is used by students to learn and to correct problems in their understanding of the material (Hofer, et al., 1998:68; Pintrich & Schrauben, 1992:162).

2.3.5.3 Effort-regulation

Self-regulation refers to the capacity of the students to control their efforts and attention, even though there are distractions and the task is not interesting (Ndon, 2010:260; Pinitrich, et al., 1991:27; Woolfolk, 2010:277). *Effort management* involves self-management and reflection on the commitment to complete one's study, even though there are difficulties or distractions. It is essential for academic success. This ensures that the students are committed to their goals, and regulate their use of learning strategies (Pinitrich, et al., 1991:27; Woolfolk, 2010:277).

2.4 CONCLUSION

In chapter 2 the researcher discussed the theoretical framework of the parenting styles and SRL. The nature and kinds of parenting styles were discussed in detail. In addition, the nature of SRL, the social cognitive theory, the common models of SRL, with particular reference to the models of Zimmerman and Pintrich, and different types of SRL strategies were discussed.

In chapter 3 the researcher focuses on the parenting styles and the learners' academic outcomes. This includes the relationship between parenting style and academic achievement; parenting style and SRL; as well as parenting style, SRL and academic achievement. The literature review highlights the research results of other researchers in this field.

CHAPTER 3

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PARENTING STYLE, SELF-REGULATED LEARNING AND ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT

3.1 INTRODUCTION

In chapter 2 the researcher discussed the theoretical framework of parenting style and SRL. The nature of parenting style, the types of parenting styles, and how they are classified were explained in detail. In addition, the researcher discussed the nature of SRL, the social cognitive theory, and common models of SRL, with particular reference to the models of Zimmerman and Pintrich, as well as different types of SRL strategies.

In chapter 3 the researcher focuses on parenting styles and the children's academic achievement that involves the relationship of parenting and academic achievement, parenting styles and SRL, as well as parenting styles, SRL and academic achievement.

3.2 PARENTING STYLE, SRL AND THE CHILDREN'S ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT

Parenting is a complex activity that involves certain styles of behaviour that exert their influence on child outcomes individually and collectively (Shaffer & Gordon, 2005:16). For example, the parenting style predicts risk behaviours in adolescence (Newman, et al., 2008:147), test anxiety (Thergaonkar & Wadkar, 2007:11), youth well-being (Driscoll, Russell & Crockett, 2008:201), mental health (Dwairy, Achoui, Abouserie & Farah, 2006:268), adolescent delinquency (Okorodudu, 2010:78), conscientiousness and academic achievement (Heaven & Ciarrochi, 2008:459). Among the outcomes of

the different parenting styles, the researcher was particularly concerned with the relationship between parenting style, SRL and academic achievement.

3.2.1 Parenting style and academic achievement

It is widely claimed that the parents strongly affect the academic performance of their children. For instance, research which has been conducted on parenting practices shows that the parents' involvement in their children's education and the monitoring of their after-school activities (monitoring the completion of homework, supervising activities with peers, and checking on school progress) may help their children's achievement and educational attainment, though the involvement decreases during the middle school years (Spera, 2005:141).

Parental *styles* have been found to influence the children's educational outcomes, and also the lowering of school dropout rates, rather than the more specific activities of parental involvement, e.g., household rules, or the parents' attendance of and participation in school functions (Blondal & Adalbjarnardottir, 2009:743; Jeynes, 2007:100). Kazmi, Sajjid and Pervez (2011:584) concluded that different types of parenting styles are practiced at home, and these styles influence the academic achievements of the children at school.

3.2.1.1 Parenting style and positive and negative influences on academic achievement

Talib, Mohamad, and Mamat (2011:31) studied the effects of parenting style on children's development by involving 200 families that consisted of full-time working mothers, full-time working fathers and the 200 children. According to Talib, et al. (2011:31), the study revealed that mothers and fathers who are authoritative, positively influence their children's behaviour and academic achievement. On the other hand, mothers and fathers who are permissive or authoritarian negatively influence their children's behaviour and academic achievement. Similarly, the

influence of the father-child relationship on the educational achievement of their children at elementary school level, using three types of fathering styles (authoritative, authoritarian and permissive), has been investigated. The achievement of the children was the dependent variable. The study indicated that there was a positive relationship between the fathers' authoritative parenting styles and academic achievement (Kazmi, et al., 2011:584).

Dornbusch, Ritter, Leiderman, Roberts and Fraleigh (1987:1256) also studied the relationship between parenting style and academic performance in a sample of 7 836 adolescents. Baumrind's typology of authoritarian, permissive, and authoritative parenting styles were used in the study. It assessed the relationship of parenting style to performance across gender, age, parental education, ethnicity and family structure. The data for this study were mainly collected by means of a questionnaire that was completed by the adolescents. The results of the study indicated that adolescents who described their families as more authoritarian, more permissive or less authoritative scored lower grades in school than adolescents with authoritative parents. Dornbusch, et al. (1987:1256) thus concluded that authoritative parenting positively correlates with grades.

Steinberg, Lamborn, Sanford, Dornbusch and Darling (1992:1274) explored the influence of authoritative parenting on adolescents' school achievement, focusing on an ethnically and socio-economically heterogeneous sample of approximately 6,400 Americans of 14 to 18 years. Adolescents with authoritative, somewhat authoritative, somewhat non-authoritative and non-authoritative parents were compared against school performance and school engagement in a longitudinal study. An authoritative parenting style tended to affect the adolescents' performance and engagement strongly during their high school years. Based on the different types of authoritativeness of the parents in the households, it was also indicated that adolescents from clearly authoritative homes were likely to score better than adolescents from households that were not unquestionably authoritative and unquestionably non-authoritative. Adolescents from not unquestionably authoritative

and unquestionably non-authoritative homes, in turn, were found to score better than adolescents from definitely non-authoritative homes. Steinberg, et al. (1992:1274) therefore concluded that authoritative parenting supports adolescents to be better academic achievers.

Attaway and Bry (2004:243) investigated the relationship between maternal belief in control and responsiveness and adolescent academic achievement in a sample of 59 black mothers and female guardians. The data were collected through interviews. It was determined that when the relationship between the parents and the children is characterised by a high degree of control, children may achieve poor grades. Poor achievement may be the result of a lack of intrinsic motivation to succeed in school due to a high measure of control by the parents. Therefore, as was found with other ethnic groups, when Black American parents are highly controlling, their adolescent children achieve lower grades. It was concluded that authoritarian parenting may result in lower academic achievement by their children (Attaway & Bry, 2004:240).

Hickman, Bartholomae and McKenry (2000:49) investigated the influence of parenting styles on the adjustment and academic achievement of traditional college freshmen in a sample of 101 college freshmen. A parental authority questionnaire, quick-word testing, the Rosenberg self-esteem inventory and family structure, were self-reported questionnaire data that were used to examine the relationship of parenting styles, academic achievement and the adjustment of traditional college freshmen. The study revealed that there was a strong positive influence of authoritative parenting on academic adjustment. Similarly, Lambourn, et al. (1991:1062) conducted a study on patterns of competence and adjustment among adolescents from authoritative, authoritarian, indulgent and neglectful families by using approximately 4,100 adolescents as sample. Lambourn, et al. (1991:1062) indicated that adolescents of authoritative families are likely to be better adjusted and more competent than adolescents from non-authoritative families.

Chan and Koo (2011:394) studied parenting and youth outcomes in the UK in a sample of 10,300 individuals. The results of the study indicate that in comparison to children whose parents are authoritative, children of authoritarian and permissive parents are less likely to achieve academically. In addition, the children of permissive parents are more likely to leave school to go and work than studying, or they may even be unemployed. Furthermore, Blondal and Adalbjarnardottir (2009:743) investigated parenting practices and school dropout in a sample of 427 Icelandic youth. The 427 subjects were classified into four groups on the grounds of the parenting styles of their parents. Thus they were classified as having authoritative, authoritarian, indulgent or neglectful parents. A longitudinal study was done. Blondal and Adalbjarnardottir (2009:743) found that 14 year-old adolescents who perceived their parents as authoritative tended to complete upper secondary school earlier that adolescents of authoritarian, neglectful or indulgent parents.

Lambourn et al. (1991:1062) investigated the patterns of competence and the adjustment of adolescents from authoritative, authoritarian, indulgent and neglectful families in a sample of 4,100 adolescents of different ethnic groups. Lambourn et al. (1991:1062) indicated that adolescents from authoritative families were more likely to have confidence in their capacity, and in areas of achievement and, compared to their peers, tended to be less involved in trouble than adolescents from neglectful families. Adolescents of authoritarian families also scored reasonably well in respect of obedience and conformity to the standards of the adults. Their academic performance was better than that of their peers, and they tended to be less engaged in deviant activities, even though they had poorer self-concepts. The children of indulgent parents had a strong sense of self-confidence, but they indicated a tendency towards substance abuse, school misconduct, and less engagement in school activities. However, the children of authoritarian and authoritative parents did not differ significantly in grade point average, and in the use of drugs, and delinquency variables. The children of authoritative and of indulgent families also did not differ significantly in respect of the self-reliance, social competence and delinquency variables. Finally, authoritatively-reared youngsters did not score

significantly worse on all variables than the other adolescents (Lambourn, et al., 1991:1057-1058).

A study was conducted in Ethiopia on the inter-relationship between parenting style, psycho-social adjustment and the academic achievement of Addis Ababa high school students, using the four types of parenting styles, namely authoritative, authoritarian, indulgent and neglectful. It was found that the children of authoritative parents achieved academically better than those with non-authoritative parents (Tilahun, 2002:81). Seleshi and Sentayehu (1998:65) conducted a similar study on parenting style differences among four ethnic groups in Ethiopia (Oromo, Amhara, Gurage & Harrari) in respect of authoritative, authoritarian, indulgent and neglectful parenting styles. The study revealed that the parenting style was independent of the family's ethnic background. It was also indicated that an authoritative parenting style was common practice among the four ethnic groups even though, as recent as two decades ago, an authoritarian parenting style was the common style. Authoritative parenting styles result in more positive outcomes, such as higher academic achievement and a lower level of misbehaviour.

In general, the children of authoritarian parents are found to manifest poor academic skills and they tend to display school misconduct and aggressive behaviour (see section 2.2.2.1). The children of authoritative parents were indicated to have a high self-esteem, to be mature, to academically perform better, and to be socially more confident than the other children (see section 2.2.2.2). The children of indulgent parents were found to be hostile, selfish, rebellious, less self-regulatory, and less achievement-oriented than the other children (see section 2.2.2.3). It was found that the children of neglectful parents are generally hostile, selfish, and rebellious, and tend to be high school dropouts (see section 2.2.2.4). Therefore, according to various studies, an authoritative parenting style is related to positive outcomes (Bouffard & Stephen, 2007:4).

However, because of the influence of social class, gender and ethnicity, different outcomes contradict the above patterns (Phoenix & Husain, 2007: 12).

In the next section the influence of ethnicity, socio-economic status and neighbourhood risks on the parenting styles will be discussed.

3.2.1.2 Parenting style and ethnicity

As the research findings indicated, the effect of parenting styles vary in different ethnic and demographic groups owing to the different cultural traditions, norms and contextual factors found among the people (Mandara, in Bouffard *&* Stephen, 2007:4).

Chao (1994:1116) investigated parental control and an authoritarian parenting style through the cultural notion of *training,* to understand Chinese parenting. Standard measures of parental control, an authoritative parenting style, an authoritarian parenting style and Chinese child-rearing items that are relevant to the concept of 'training' were given to immigrant Chinese and European-American mothers of preschool children. The study was based on the standard measures scale for parental control and authoritarian parenting styles. The findings indicated that Chinese mothers tended to score significantly higher on the measures of parental control and an authoritarian parenting style than European-American mothers. They did not, though, score significantly higher than European-American mothers on the authoritative parenting style scale. It was also found that Chinese mothers scored significantly higher than European-American mothers on a Chinese child-rearing ideologies scale. Even after controlling their scores on the standard measures of parental control and authoritarian or authoritative styles and their education, the Chinese mothers still scored significantly higher than the European-American mothers on the child-rearing ideology scale known as 'training'. Chao concluded, therefore, that *training* parenting styles were better than authoritarian parenting styles to appropriately describe the school success of the Chinese children.

Li, Philip, Costanzo and Putallaz (2010:347) investigated the relationship between the perceived maternal socialisation goals, the perceived maternal parenting styles and social-emotional adjustment between Chinese and European-American young adults. The perceived maternal *socialisation goals* scale involved self-development, filial piety, and collectivism. The perceived maternal *parenting styles* scale involved authoritative, authoritarian, and training styles. Finally, the *social-emotional adjustment* scale involved self-esteem, academic self-efficacy, and depression. The study found that even though the perceived maternal authoritative parenting correlated with socio-emotional adjustment for both Chinese and European-American young adults, the correlation of perceived maternal authoritarian and training parenting styles and socio-emotional adjustment was limited to Chinese young adults.

Chao (2001:1841) investigated the influence of parenting style and parent-adolescent relationships on the school performance of a sample of over 500 adolescents of Chinese (148 first and 176 second generation) and European-descent (208 primarily third generation or more) families. ('First generation' implied that the adolescents had lived in the United States for between two and five years. 'Third generation' meant that the adolescents and their parents were born in the United States.) The adolescents were selected from seven different high schools, and responded to paper-and-pencil surveys that involved the following measures, namely (i) parenting style; (ii) parent-adolescent closeness (the cohesion subscale from the Family Adaptability and Environment Scales II and relationship satisfaction); and (iii) school performance. In comparison to Chinese adolescents of authoritarian families, the first generation, Chinese adolescents of authoritative families did not achieve better academically. On the other hand, European-American adolescents of authoritative families did significantly better at school than those adolescents from authoritarian, European-American families. When European-American and first generation Chinese adolescents were compared in terms of authoritative parenting styles, it was observed that authoritative parenting styles were likely to have consistently positive effects on school grades and school effort for European-American adolescents. Therefore, Chao concluded that, in comparison to authoritarian parenting, the

authoritative parenting style tended *not* to better predict school performance in the first generation Chinese American youth.

Keshavarz and Baharudin (2009:71) stated that, in general, individuals learnt to help one another within communities made up of families and communities. In this regard, the Asian culture was found to be particularly group-oriented. If individuals in Asian countries were encouraged to be independent as in the Western countries, their parenting may not work as effectively. Malaysia is an example of this. Malaysian parents are from the collectivist countries and accept collectivist values, and thus make use of authoritarian parenting styles, rather than of individualistic parenting styles. Even though the authoritarian parenting style tends to be a negative style of parenting in an individualistic society like the Western society, in a collectivist group it is the normative parenting style that fosters appropriate development. The researcher therefore concluded that Malaysian parents of the three ethnic groups (Malay, Indian and Chinese) make use of authoritarian parenting styles more than of individualistic parenting styles. This may not have a negative effect on the children's development. However, the investigation by Besharat, Azizi and Poursharifi (2011:1280-1283) of the correlation between parenting style and academic achievement of 371 high school students with 342 fathers and 364 mothers of Iranian families, revealed that parenting style did have an impact on academic achievement. The researchers found a negative correlation between both authoritative and authoritarian parenting styles and academic achievement. In addition, a permissive parenting style and academic achievement did not show a significant correlation.

Boon (2008:12) also studied the family, motivational and behavioural associations of indigenous Australian people. He was concerned with the role of parenting variables, including the strictness or supervision, and warmth and involvement in relation to school achievement, as well as cognitive and behavioural characteristics. The sample consisted of 112 urban indigenous Australian adolescents. Although the sample size was small, the results revealed that adolescents who perceived their parents' parenting styles as neglectful, had the lowest achievements in tests, the lowest self-

efficacies, and the lowest motivation orientations. On the other hand, adolescents who perceived their parents as authoritarian had the highest achievement of all the groups. And adolescents who perceived their parents as authoritative had higher achievements than adolescents who perceived their parents as neglectful. In general, even though authoritarian parenting styles are associated with negative outcomes in most studies, the children of authoritarian parents sometimes showed acceptable school behaviour and academic performance (see section 2.2.2.1).

Martinez and Garcia (2007:745) also conducted research to uncover the relationship between parenting style, adolescent self-esteem and the internalisation of values in a sample of Spanish adolescents. The sample consisted of 1,456 adolescents and their parents. Parenting style was classified into one of the following groups, namely authoritative, authoritarian, indulgent or neglectful, based on the adolescents' reports. The outcomes were measured across two different contexts, namely (i) values (measured by universalism, benevolence, security, conformity and tradition); and (ii) level of self-esteem (measured by academic, social, emotional, family and physical self-esteem). Even though the children of indulgent and of authoritative families had high scores on self-esteem, in this study the children of indulgent families scored higher in academic achievement and self-esteem in comparison to the children in authoritative families. It was also indicated that the children in authoritarian families scored the worst. Indulgent parenting styles were found to be the optimum type of parenting style in Spain (see section 2.2.2.3).

Steinberg, et al. (1992:1275) indicated that an authoritative parenting style may not only promote higher academic achievement but also that authoritative parenting may not necessarily foster high academic achievement. For instance, the relationship between authoritativeness and adolescent achievement was found to be significantly lower in African-American adolescents than in Asian, European or Hispanic American adolescents.

Unlike previous studies, a study investigating the influence of socio-cultural contexts and parenting style on the scholastic achievement of Iranian adolescents indicated, by means of tests on mediation and moderation effects, that parenting style was not significantly related to academic outcomes and the socio-cultural context (Assadi, et al., 2007:177).

According to Pong, Johnston and Chen (2010:71), the culture difference in the effect of parenting style may be highly exaggerated. They investigated the correlation between parenting style and academic performance among Asian adolescents. Their study revealed that there was a negative relationship between an authoritarian parenting style and the school achievement of children in both the United States and Taiwan, and among European-Americans and Asian-Americans.

In summary, regarding the relationship between parenting style and ethnicity, the effect of the different parenting styles varies among different ethnic and demographic groups. This is probably related to the differences in cultural traditions, norms and contextual factors amongst people from different cultures. For example, it was found that a *training* child-rearing style, rather than an authoritative parenting style, was the appropriate type of parenting style for the school success of Chinese children. It was also found that an authoritative parenting style was not better than an authoritarian parenting style to predict school performance of first generation Chinese American youth. In general, since individuals learn to help one another within the large society, Asian cultures are more group-oriented. If individuals in Asian countries are encouraged to be as independent as in the Western society, their parenting styles may not be as effective. Therefore, Keshavarz and Baharudin (2009:71) conclude that Malaysian parents of the three ethnic groups (Malay, Indian and Chinese) make use of the authoritarian parenting style more than of an individualist parenting style, and this does not have any negative effect on the children's development. Boon (2008:12) also indicated that children who perceived their parents as authoritarian enjoy the highest achievement of all the groups; the children who perceived their parents as authoritative enjoy higher achievement than the children who perceived

their parents as neglectful. Moreover, the relationship of authoritativeness and adolescent achievement was found to be significantly lower in African-American adolescents than in Asian, European or Hispanic American adolescents. In general, the children of authoritarian parents are likely to demonstrate acceptable school behaviour and academic performance even if their parents' authoritarian parenting styles are associated with negative outcomes in many studies. Though it was stated that the children of indulgent families and those of authoritative families scored high in self-esteem, the children of indulgent families in Spain scored higher in academic achievement and in self-esteem in comparison to the children in authoritative families, as mentioned. An indulgent parenting style was thus the optimum type of parenting style in Spain. Researchers found a negative relationship between both authoritative and authoritarian parenting styles and academic achievement in the Iranian society. Finally, Pong, et al. (2010:71) revealed that there was a negative relationship between an authoritarian parenting style and the school achievement of children in both the United States and in Taiwan, and among European-Americans and Asian-Americans. It can therefore be concluded, that this issue has not been fully resolved, as the research results are different for the different ethnic groups.

3.2.1.3 Parenting style, socio-economic status and adolescent functioning

According to Katz, et al., (2007:21) the neighbourhood environment and the personal characteristics of the parents impact on their parenting styles. For example, Roche, Ensminger and Cherlin (2007:897-898) investigated the way in which the perception of neighbourhood conditions modified associations between parenting and delinquency, symptoms of depression, and school problem-behaviour in a sample of 800 African American and Latino 10 to 14-year olds. Permissive and disengaged parenting styles tended to be significantly related to school-related problem-behaviour and delinquency among Latino and African American males who lived in dangerous or socially disorganised neighbourhoods. Punitive parenting was also found to be related to both delinquency and school-related problem-behaviour among African-

American males if their mothers perceived the neighbourhood to be dangerous and socially disorganised rather than safe.

In addition to the above, Pittman and Chase-Lansdale (2001:217-218) investigated the relationship of parenting style and adolescent functioning in a sample of 302 African-American adolescent girls and their mothers from impoverished neighbourhoods. A mixed-methods research design was used which included a questionnaire and interviews. The mothers' depression and financial strain, their marital status and household incomes, participation in welfare, and teenage pregnancy were found to be covariates which influenced parenting. Even after controlling for these covariates, the relationship of parenting style and adolescent functioning was found to be significant. Pittman and Chase-Lansdale (2001:217-218) concluded that an authoritative parenting style tended to be less effective for African-American adolescent girls as a result of the influence of environmental factors and family status. These influences included the characteristics of the neighbourhood, the socio-economic status of the family and the marital status of the parents. For example, families who enjoyed a lower socio-economic status were punitive, and focused on obedience. In contrast, families with a higher socio-economic status used reasoning, and encouraged independence and creativity (Berns, 2010:155). It was, however, indicated that there was no causal relationship between parenting style and poverty. Different people react differently to financial hardships that caused some to be more stressed, depressed or irritable. This, in turn, influences their parenting practices and styles. Therefore, it was concluded that it was *disrupted parenting* and not *poverty* that influenced the outcomes for children (Katz, et al., 2007:37).

In conclusion, the neighbourhood environment and the personal characteristics of the parents impact on their parenting styles (Katz, et al., 2007:21). Permissive and disengaged parenting styles tended to be significantly related to school-related problem-behaviour among Latino and African-American students. Disrupted parenting also influenced the children's functioning, and thus their academic achievement (Katz, et al., 2007:37).

3.2.2 Parenting styles and SRL

It was found that the support of the parents was essential in enhancing the development of the self-regulatory skills of the children. These skills were helpful to improve the children's academic achievement (Larkin, 2010:41). Lee, Hamman and Lee (2007:5) investigated the relationship of family closeness with college students' SRL and school adjustment. They found that family closeness was the best predictor of SRL. The participants, who reported close relationships within the family, were likely to have more confidence in their general learning subjects, utilised specific study methods, managed their time wisely, studied in a place that added to their concentration, and sought help from their teachers or peers when needed. However, if the students experienced conflict with their parents, they were more likely to avoid seeking help, and tended to rather cheat in the examinations (Bong, 2008:208).

Xu (2004:1794), who investigated the help given by the family and the management of homework in urban and rural secondary schools, indicated that high and middle school students developed effective study habits when their parents supported them with their homework. The parents were able to organise an environment conducive to studying, and for avoiding attention distractions. It was indicated that the children were more able to manage their workplace and control their emotions when they were assisted with their homework by the members of their families. Of course, when the children were in middle and high school the parents tended to be less involved in their homework in comparison to when the children were younger. When the parents encouraged and helped them in managing their homework even at this level, it helped them to complete their homework more accurately, and to develop self-regulation and self-monitoring (Bouffard & Stephen, 2007:3).

Hoang (2007:13-14) studied the association between parenting and adolescent motivation. Parenting practices involved parenting style and parental involvement. The parenting styles were classified as authoritative, authoritarian or permissive. The

involvement of the parents consisted of cognitive, personal or behavioural involvement. *Behavioural* involvement refers to the participants' perceptions that indicated to what extent their parents attended school functions, and were involved or interested in their schooling. *Cognitive* involvement refers to the participants' perceptions that showed to what extent their parents created opportunities to expose them to cognitively-stimulating activities outside of school. *Personal* involvement refers to the participants' perceptions that indicated to what extent their parents were concerned with the academic as well as the social aspects of the school. Motivation involved a mastery-performance approach, and performance-avoidance goal-orientation, and relative autonomy. The study indicated that children who believed that their parents were authoritative tended to adopt high goal-orientations, and performed and regulated their academic behaviour. On the other hand, children who believed that their parents were permissive were less likely to adopt or master goal-orientations. In addition to this, the children who believed that their parents were authoritarian or permissive were more likely to adopt a performance-approach orientation. Furthermore, when the children believed that their parents were involved personally and behaviourally, they tended to adopt a performance-avoidance orientation (they went to school to avoid feeling inferior to others).

According to Mohsenpour, Hejazi and Kiamanesh (2008:163), when the students adopt *mastery* goals, they focus on enhancing their levels of self-efficacy. In addition, they are likely to use intensive learning strategies, and to place great effort and persistence in mastering difficult mathematical tasks. In contrast, when the students adopt *performance* goals, their self-efficacy and persistence in tasks are not strongly influenced.

Chen and Wang (2011:207) investigated the relationship between parenting style and SRL among Taiwanese Junior High School students. The sample size was 1,140 students, and the instruments that were used included a parental authority questionnaire and a motivated-for-learning questionnaire. Chen and Wang found that children of authoritative parents scored higher in SRL than children of indulgent,

authoritarian or neglectful parents. Children of authoritarian or neglectful parents tended to be passive, and to suffer from a lack of self-confidence. They also indicated poor SRL abilities. However, in comparison with children who have authoritarian and neglectful parents, children with indulgent parents exhibited higher SRL (see section 1.2).

Strage (1998:21) investigated family context variables and the development of SRL in college students, by making use of a sample of 465 college students. Strage (1998:21) indicated that children who perceived their parents as authoritative and as emotionally close were more likely to exhibit confidence and a positive sense of the self, a positive goal-orientation, a general concern about the future, a positive adjustment to college, the view of their study course as interesting, and to rate their general time and effort-management abilities favourably. In contrast, when parents were perceived as authoritarian and as nagging, the children tended to be more concerned about preparing for the future, and to rate their study courses as difficult.

Colman, Hardy, Albert, Raffaeli and Crockett (2006:432) studied early predictors of SRL in middle childhood. They indicated that if the mothers were 'warm', and used less physically punitive parenting strategies in early childhood, the children were more likely to be competent regulators of their attention, behaviour and emotions in middle childhood than other children. This relation remained strong at a later stage.

Grolnick and Ryan (1989:151) indicated that parental autonomy positively correlated with the development of children's self-regulation. Using a structural equation model, Puustinen, Lyyra, Metsapelto and Pulkkinen (2008:168) also showed that paternal emotional warmth enhanced emotional stability and self-confidence in girls. The girls then became individuals who faced difficult problems bravely by taking time to think before deciding to ask for help. However, maternal and paternal nurturance (the parents' increased sensitivity to their daughters' needs), was related to a lesser ability to autonomously apply the hints and explanations they received to complete tasks.

On the other hand, the mothers' parenting was not related to their sons' help-seeking - the fathers' increased emotional warmth was associated with boys that tended to seek help in a negative manner, namely in the form of answers, confirmations, and other questions. This suggests that warm and caring fathers may impede the development of help-seeking as a means of an effective learning strategy in their sons. Mothers and fathers, who encourage autonomy in boys, develop their children's reading and mathematics achievements and their self-reliance (National Institute of Child Health and Human Development Early Child Care Research Network, 2008:903).

In Ethiopia, a study of the relationship between parenting style and SRL in six selected primary schools in Laelay, Machew, and Woreda indicated that the children of authoritative parents rather than students of indulgent, neglectful or authoritarian parents, tended to use SRL strategies. In comparison to the children of non-authoritative parents, the children of indulgent parents tended to use SRL strategies more effectively (Tigist, 2003:48-49).

In conclusion, with regard to parenting styles and SRL, it can be said that the parents are key to the development of self-regulatory skills in their children in as much as that it can be important to improve their academic work. If family members have a close relationship, their children tend to implement SRL. Research indicated that adolescents, or children of parents with authoritative parenting styles adopt high goal-orientations and perform and regulate their own academic behaviour. They focus on enhancing their level of self-efficacy, use intensive learning strategies, indicate an effort and persistence in doing difficult mathematics tasks, and are likely to have confidence and a positive sense of the self, among others. They also exhibit positive goal-orientations, a general concern for the future, a positive adjustment to college, and are able to manage their time and efforts. Parental autonomy supports the development of self-regulation. If mothers and fathers encourage autonomy, it enhances their sons' reading and mathematics achievement, and develops self-reliance. In addition, if the parents support their children with their homework, even

during their middle and high school years, the children are encouraged to complete their homework more accurately and to develop self-regulation. In general, children who perceive their parents as authoritative rate higher in SRL than the children of non-authoritative parents.

In contrast to the above, if the children experience conflict with their parents they do not like to ask for help, and may become dishonest when writing tests. The children of non-authoritative parents also tend to adopt a performance-approach orientation, tend to be concerned about the future, rate their courses as being difficult, tend to be passive, suffer from a lack of self-confidence, and show a poor SRL ability. However, the children of indulgent parents score higher in SRL than the children of authoritarian and neglectful parents. In Ethiopia, it was noticed, the children of authoritative parents tend to use SRL strategies, while the children of indulgent parents also tended to adopt SRL strategies.

3.2.3 Parenting style, SRL and academic achievement

Although quite a lot of research has been done on the relationship between parenting style and SRL, and parenting style and academic achievement, as seen in the above discussion, little research has been conducted on the inter-relationship of all three variables simultaneously. In other words, on the relationships between parenting style, SRL and academic achievement.

Some exceptions are discussed below.

Bembenutty (2006:5) conducted a study, making use of grade 10-students that he selected by means of the National Centre for Educational statistics, to calculate the predictive relationship between gender, ethnicity, parental control, SRL processes, and motivational beliefs. The actions of the parents were assessed using their active and reactive involvement in their children's homework. Parental *active* involvement meant checking their children's homework and helping them with their school

assignments. Parental *re*active involvement included providing rewards and consequences for their children's academic performance. The study found that SRL and motivational beliefs were the strongest positive predictors of academic achievement – more than parental involvement, gender and ethnicity. Parental active involvement, gender and ethnicity tended to be the negative predictors of mathematics achievement, whereas self-efficacy beliefs, efforts at regulation, and intrinsic motivation were found to be strong positive predictors of academic achievement. Parental reactive action to correct the poor completion of homework, tended to have a positive correlation with academic achievement.

Tam and Chan (2009:95) indicated that the parents' provision of guidelines and structure for junior primary school children tended to be associated with the children's efficacy beliefs in academic performance and SRL. It was also found that the non-involvement of parents was significantly related to lower academic efficacy among junior primary school students, though no specific gain in academic outcome was found with high levels of parental involvement over low levels of involvement. This indicates that the parents should not help their children with their homework over a long period of time. If the parents stretched the time of their involvement, it does not result in larger educational gains.

Martinez-Pons (1996:223) tested a model of parental inducement of academic self-regulation, by involving 105 elementary school students in a research study. In the study the parents' influence on their children's academic self-regulation and academic self-regulatory behaviour were surveyed in order to assess the students' perceptions**.** The study found that parenting inducement strongly affected academic achievement and SRL, even though the effect of parental inducement on SRL was greater than its effect on academic achievement. Similarly, Murphy (2009:87) investigated the inter-relationships of parenting practice, independent learning, achievement and family structure. The study revealed that there was a significant relationship between the actions of the parents and independent learning. He also found a significant

relationship between the parents' actions and achievement (Murphy, 2009:87). However, in both instances the relationship was not significant.

Grolnick and Ryan (1989:151) investigated parenting styles associated with the children's self-regulation and competence at school (e.g., academic achievement). Three dimensions of parenting style were assessed, namely autonomy support, involvement, and provision of structure. This was done with 64 mothers and 50 fathers of elementary school children in grades three to six, using structured interviews. The results of the study indicated that there were positive correlations between parental support of autonomy, the children's self-reports of autonomous self-regulation, teacher-rated competence and adjustment, and school grades and achievement. The study also indicated that when parents encouraged autonomy, this autonomy positively predicted understanding, perceived competence, and relative autonomy, which in turn correlated positively with achievement (Grolnick, Ryan & Deci, 1991:514). If the parents were overly engaged in their children's education, the children were better able to cope with learning at school. This was the result of better personal characteristics, e.g. self-concept, control-expectancy, and responsibility for successes and failures derived from causal attributions (Gonzalez-Pienda, Nunez, Gonzalez-Pumariega, Alvarez, Roces & Garcia, 2002:280).

No study has been conducted in Ethiopia on the relationship between all three variables, namely parenting style, SRL, and academic achievement simultaneously. The studies that were conducted tended to focus on pointing out the association between some of these constructs. For instance, Tilahun (2002) and Seleshi and Sentayehu (1998) observed that parenting style was significantly associated with academic achievement. Tigist (2003) also observed that parenting style was significantly related to SRL. From the two findings it can be implied that parenting style, SRL and academic achievement may be inter-related. However, an in-depth investigation is needed to determine the nature of the relationship.

In conclusion, with regard to parenting style, SRL and academic achievement it can be said that little research has been conducted that involves all three simultaneously. The active involvement of the parents, gender and ethnicity are more likely to relate negatively with mathematics achievement. In contrast, SRL, motivation beliefs, self-efficacy beliefs, effort at regulation, and intrinsic motivation tend to be strong positive predictors of academic achievement. Parental reactive actions are positively associated with academic achievement. The parents' provision of guidelines and structure for their junior primary children and the children's efficacy beliefs in academic performance and SRL are also likely to be related. However, there is no specific gain in academic outcome with high levels of parental involvement over low levels of involvement. In addition, it has been found that parental autonomy is positively correlated with the children's reports of self-regulation, teacher-rated competence and adjustment, and academic achievement. When the parents encourage autonomy and involvement at home, it predicts perceived competence and autonomy, and also achievement. The inducement of the parents influences academic achievement, and also SRL in particular. Furthermore, in Ethiopia specifically, not much research has been done on the inter-relationship of parenting style, SRL and academic achievement.

3.3 SRL AND ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT

Research indicates that when students are self-regulated learners, they tend to be self-regulated in other aspects of their lives as well. For example, if adolescents tend to set goals and consciously plan their academic studies, they are likely to plan other areas of their lives, such as their friendships, their health and fitness programmes, their involvement with their families and the community, their engagement in the environment, and in respect of their personal well-being activities (Purdie, Carroll & Roche, 2004:672). Motivational, self-regulated strategies of consequences have also been found as the best predictor of students' high school diploma grades and of the intention to further their education at higher education institutions (Nota, Soresi &

Zimmerman, 2004:211). Self-regulated students have high motivation and adaptive learning methods, which means that they tend to be successful in their academic work, and optimistic about their futures (Zimmerman, 2002:66).

SRL is important in respect of listening and writing. Zhang and Huang (2010:376) conducted a study to explore the influence of SRL on students' academic performance regarding listening. They used a listening comprehension test with 459 students from a Chinese University. The results of the study indicate that there is a significant relationship between the constructs of SRL and of the test scores. This implies that as students are better equipped in meta-cognitive self-regulation, they perform better in their listening comprehension tests. In addition, Chalk, Hagan-Burke and Burke (2005:86) found that a SRL strategy is crucial in writing, because it helps the students to develop strategies for brainstorming, in semantic webbing, in setting goals, and revising.

Therefore, students write more effectively (with regard to how they prepare informative papers and organise papers), and thus achieve higher grades in writing when they employ one or more of the 10 major types of self-regulatory strategies, namely environmental structuring, self-selected models, tutors, books, self-monitoring, self-evaluation of the consequences, self-verbalisation, time planning and management, goal-setting, the setting of self-evaluative standards, and using cognitive strategies and employing mental imagery (Zimmerman & Risemberg, 1997: 94-95).

Radovan (2011:220) conducted research to investigate the relationship of SRL dimensions and students' success in a distance learning programme, with a sample of 319 students (83 males and 236 females). The SRL dimensions consisted of intrinsic goals**,** extrinsic goals, task value**,** control beliefs, self-efficacy, test anxiety, learning strategies, elaboration, effort regulation, meta-cognition, help-seeking, and time-organisation variables. The students' success was measured by the number of examinations written, the frequency of repetition of the examination, and average

course achievement. A questionnaire was used for the collection of the data. The study found that goal-setting, the value of the tasks, self-efficacy and effort-regulation were the key strategies which led to better academic achievement in the distance education programme.

Cheng (2011:9) also investigated the relationship between students' self-regulation ability and their learning performance with a sample of 6,524 students in Hong Kong, using a survey questionnaire. The self-regulation ability involved learning motivation, goal-setting, action-control and learning strategies. Cheng indicated that the self-regulation-ability dimensions had a strong impact on learning performance. From the highest to the lowest the rank-order was action-control, learning-motivation, the use of learning strategies, and goal-setting.

Similarly to the above, Pintrich and De Groot (1990:36) investigated the correlation of motivational orientation, SRL and classroom academic performance with a sample of 173 grade-seven students from eight science and seven English classes. Motivational-orientation involved self-efficacy, intrinsic value and test anxiety. SRL involved the use of cognitive strategies and self-regulation (the use of meta-cognitive strategies and effort-management strategies). Self-regulation, self-efficacy and test anxiety tended to be the main predictors of performance.

Chen (2002:19-20) did a study to identify the *type* of SRL strategies that related to academic achievement. The study used an introductory course in information systems with a sample of 197 students. The information systems course had a 60% delivery by lecture, and a 40% delivery by computer. The SRL strategies involved meta-cognitive self-regulation, the management of time and the study environment, the regulation of effort, peer learning and help-seeking. It was found that *effort regulation* seemed to help the students to do well in a lecture-type of learning environment. The students could control distraction and concentrate to learn computer concepts, so that they achieved high test scores. On the other hand, peer learning did not seem to help the learning of computer concepts, and this approach led to relatively low test scores. However, it was difficult to determine with certainty

which strategies were effective for computer laboratory assignments, as the data did not fulfil the assumptions of normality. The engagement of the students in SRL was highly related to their efficacy beliefs about their ability to do classroom tasks, and to the beliefs that they had about classroom tasks being interesting and worth learning (Pintrich & De Groot, 1990:38). The students' perceptions of efficacy were found to greatly predict their actual goal-setting and their academic success (Zimmerman & Kitsantas, 2005:514).

A study was conducted on self-regulated profiles and academic achievement. The findings indicated that there was a strong positive correlation between SRL and academic achievement (Valle, Núñez, Cabanach, González-Pienda, Rodríguez, Rosário, Muñoz-Cadavid & Cerezo, 2008:729). Self-regulation was found to be the strongest element to predict the performance of successful college students (Lindner & Harris, 1992:9).

Yukselturk and Bulut (2007:78-79) analysed the factors that affected student success in an online computer programming course, by using both quantitative and qualitative methods to collect the relevant data. The study revealed that self-regulation variables significantly affected students' success.

Zimmerman and Martinez-Pons (1990:57) also conducted a survey to describe students' use of SRL strategies, and to predict their verbal and mathematical efficacy. The study was conducted with a sample of 45 boys and 45 girls of 5 th, 8th and 11 th grade students, of whom some were academically gifted, and the others were average. The SRL strategies involved self-evaluating, organising and transforming, goal-setting and planning, seeking information, keeping records and monitoring, structuring the environment, assessing self-consequence, rehearsing and memorising, seeking assistance (from peers, teachers and other adults), and reviewing (tests, notes and texts). It was found that the students who were gifted employed more SRL strategies in their learning than the other students. Gifted students made more use of organising and transforming, assessing self-

consequence, seeking peer assistance and reviewing notes. Self-regulated students chose and used SRL strategies to achieve the intended learning outcomes, based on the effectiveness of their learning, and the feedback on their skills (Zimmerman, 1990:6-7).

Other studies yielded different results from the above. For example, a study was conducted on the association of achievement and SRL in a sample of 222 7th grade students, by describing their use of SRL strategies and their achievement goals. It was found that many students who were high achievers did not necessarily make use of SRL strategies. This was because some high achievers may use other strategies to score high in achievement tests, and others may not be able to identify the strategies that they use (Ablard & Lipschultz, 1998:99).

In addition to the above study, Pelt (2008:69-73) examined the association of SRL with academic achievement in a sample of 89 middle school African-American and European-American students with a high and low socio-economic status. The Motivated Learning Strategies Questionnaire (MSLQ) and SRL Interview Schedule (SRLIS) were used to collect the data. The MSLQ was given to all the middle school students, but the SRL interview schedule was used with only 26 of them. According to the MSLQ results, no significant relationship was found between SRL and academic achievement. However, according to the results of the SRLIS, high-achievers used more SRL and more advanced strategies than the low achieving students. Thus, the MSLQ revealed that SRL may not relate significantly with academic performance (see section 1.2).

Dereje (1997:53) examined the motivational beliefs, SRL strategy components and academic achievement of elementary school students in Awassa, Ethiopia. The sample consisted of students from grades 5, 6, 7, and 8. A total of 680 subjects were randomly selected from three different 2nd cycle elementary schools. Dereje (1997:53) indicated that there was a strong relationship between the use of cognitive strategies and academic achievement, and also between self-regulation and

academic achievement. Tola (1996:87) investigated the motivational orientation, learning strategies and academic achievement of 8th, 9th, 10th and 11th grade high school students in Northern Shoa. He found that the students who used elaboration, organisational, rehearsal, meta-cognitive and effort-management strategies scored higher grades.

The conclusion one can come to is that the results are not conclusive as regards the relationship between SRL and academic achievement, because contradictory results were found. Generally speaking, the research results indicated that self-regulated students are not only self-regulatory in their learning, but also in other aspects of their lives.

Self-regulated students adopt high motivation and adaptive learning methods, are optimistic, and are successful in their academic work. Most research results seem to show that SRL strongly correlates with academic achievement. If the students indicated the use of SRL, they selected and employed SRL strategies for the achievement of their intended learning outcomes, and thus performed better. This was found with online courses, for example. Gifted students also employed more SRL strategies than other students.

On the other hand, many students who are high achievers do not necessarily make use of SRL strategies. They may use other strategies, or may not even be aware which strategies they automatically use. Moreover, SRL may not be significantly related to academic achievement, even though high achievers employed more and advanced SRL strategies in comparison to low achievers.

Research done in Ethiopia found that SRL strongly correlated with academic achievement. If the students employed elaboration, organisational, rehearsal, meta-cognitive and effort-management strategies, they were likely to achieve well.

3.4 SRL AS A MODERATOR OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PARENTING STYLE AND ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT

Parental involvement activities, more than academic achievement, indicated strong relationships with variables that are important for learning, such as attitude, perception of competence, and self-regulation. This implies that parental involvement may affect academic achievement by affecting SRL (Hoover-Dempsey, Battiato, Walker, Reed, De Jong & Jones, 2001:206; Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1995:329). Xu, Benson, Mudrey-Camino and Steiner (2010:257) investigated the relationship between parental involvement, SRL, and reading achievement by analysing the fifth grade data from an Early Childhood Longitudinal Study, Kindergarten Class of 1998–1999 (ECLS-K). Six dimensions of parental involvement that were likely to foster the SRL of fifth graders were involved. These dimensions were, namely school involvement, TV rules, support with homework, the frequency of homework, parental education expectations, and extra-curricular activities. Of these six, only parental education expectations, school involvement, and support with homework were found to strongly impact on SRL. Of the three dimensions, parental education expectations had the strongest beneficial effect on SRL. It is suggested that SRL bridges the relationship between parental involvement and reading achievement.

In accordance with the above, a study by Wong (2008:510) of the relationships between the perceptions of parental involvement and autonomy support, self-regulation, and several important outcomes in adolescence showed that greater perceived parental involvement and autonomy-support may affect effort control and identified regulation. Effort control and identified regulation decreased classroom disruptive behaviour and seemed to influence academic performance.

Martinez-Pons (2002:129) conducted a study on the influence of the parents on their children's self-regulation with 100 elementary school students from grade 5 to grade 8 in a large urban setting. He proposed a model of parental encouragement (inducement) of academic self-regulation which included parental encouragement

and self-regulation. Parental *encouragement* consisted of modelling, encouragement, facilitation, and reward. *Self-regulation* included motivation, goal-setting, strategy-use and self-evaluation. Parental encouragement of academic self-regulation was found to predict student self-regulatory behaviour, which in turn predicted academic achievement. These findings also indicated that the social influence of the parents on the academic achievement of the children was effected by the self-regulatory processes to learn and to perform well at school.

However, once again the findings are not conclusive. Grolnick and Slowiaczek (1994:247) conducted a study on the relationship between parental involvement and the academic achievement of 300 11 to 14 year-old children. Parental involvement consisted of behaviour, intellectual/cognitive attributes, and some personal dimensions. The study found that there was a significant correlation between parental involvement and the children's self-regulation. However, no evidence could be found to support the mediational hypothesis for SRL.

In Ethiopia no researcher has as yet investigated the mediational effects of SRL on the relationship between parenting style and academic achievement. However, according to Tigist (2003), parenting styles significantly related to SRL (see section 3.2.2), while Tilahun (2002) and Seleshi and Sentayehu (1998) indicated that parenting styles were significantly related to academic achievement (see section 3.2.2). In addition to this, Dereje (1997) and Tola (1996) revealed that SRL were associated with academic achievement (see section 3.3). From these results it can be inferred that SRL may mediate the relationship between parenting style and academic achievement.

It can thus be concluded that, regarding SRL as the mediator of the relationship between parenting style and academic achievement, parental involvement activities may influence academic achievement through SRL. It has also been indicated that parental involvement affects reading achievement through SRL. In addition, greater perceived parental involvement and autonomy-support may affect the control of effort

and regulation, which, in turn, may affect academic performance. Furthermore, parental inducement of academic self-regulation predicted the children's self-regulatory behaviour, which predicted academic achievement. These findings also indicated the social influence of the parents on the academic achievement of their children through self-regulatory processes to learn. Most studies done in Ethiopia seemed to indicate that parenting styles correlated with SRL and academic achievement. SRL may mediate parenting styles and academic achievement. However, not all the studies support the mediational hypothesis for self-regulation.

Thus the need for further investigation of this issue.

3.5 CONCLUSION

In chapter 3 the researcher focused on the three relationships: (i) parenting style and academic achievement; (ii) parenting style and SRL; (iii) parenting style, SRL and academic achievement. In addition, the researcher investigated whether SRL mediated the relationship between parenting style and academic achievement.

In chapter 4 the researcher discusses the research design and data-collection methods. Information is presented on the sample, the types of instruments to collect the data, and the methods of data analysis.

CHAPTER 4

THE RESEARCH DESIGN

4.1 INTRODUCTION

In chapter 3 the researcher focused on parenting style and children's academic achievement. This discussion involved the relationship between the parenting styles and academic achievement, the parenting styles and SRL, and also SRL and academic achievement. In addition, the possibility of SRL as mediator of the relationship between parenting styles and academic achievement was deliberated.

In chapter 4 the researcher explains the research design. This entails the research questions and hypotheses, the research design, sampling and data-collection methods, ethical issues, validity and reliability, the pilot study, and the methods of data analysis.

4.2 SPECIFIC RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND HYPOTHESES

In this study on the relationship between parenting style, SRL and academic achievement, three sets of variables were identified, as follows:

- parenting style, namely authoritative, authoritarian, indulgent or neglectful;
- SRL, which includes cognitive strategies and general SRL strategies; and
- academic achievement, namely the students' average academic record for three consecutive semesters.

These variables were analysed to answer the research questions which were formulated in sections 1.3 and 1.4.

The main research question was:

> *What is the relationship between parenting style, SRL and the academic achievement of (upper) primary school students in Ethiopia?*

Based on the above main research question, the following specific research questions and hypotheses were formulated:

Specific research question 1:

What are the children's views on parental acceptance, parental control, the cognitive strategies they use, their self-regulated learning, and the parenting styles of their parents?

No hypothesis 1 was stated for this question.

Specific research question 2:

What is the relationship between parenting styles and SRL (cognitive strategies and general self-regulation) of (upper) primary school students in selected Ethiopian schools?

Hypothesis 2

There are significant differences between the SRL (cognitive style and student self-regulation) of children with parents with different parenting styles (authoritative, authoritarian, indulgent, or neglectful).

Justification: An authoritative parenting style is significantly related to the children's SRL. It is also stated that children who perceive their parents to be democratic and

warm, are possibly more autonomous in their academic behaviour (see section 3.2.2).

On the other hand, authoritarian parenting styles have a significant negative impact on children's SRL. The permissive parenting style negatively impacts on children's SRL. In general, authoritarian and permissive parenting styles do not predict students' autonomous academic behaviour (see section 3.2.2).

Specific research question 3:

What is the relationship between parenting styles and the academic achievement of (upper) primary school students in selected Ethiopian schools?

Hypothesis 3:

There are significant differences between the academic achievement of students with parents with different parenting styles (authoritative, authoritarian, indulgent, or neglectful).

Justification: There is a positive relationship between the fathers' authoritative parenting style and academic achievement. Also, children who perceive their parents as authoritative indicate a better academic performance, and also tend to have higher academic self-efficacy (see sections 3.2.1 and 3.2.1.1).

The literature review also indicated that, in comparison to children whose parents are authoritative, the children of authoritarian or permissive parents are less likely to achieve academically. Mothers and fathers who are permissive and authoritarian negatively influence their children's behaviour and academic achievement (see section 3.2.1 and 3.2.1.1).

Specific research question 4:

Is there a significant relationship between SRL and the academic achievement of (upper) primary school students?

Hypothesis 4

There is a significant positive correlation between SRL and academic achievement, and SRL predicts the academic achievement of (upper) primary school students.

Justification: According to the literature in general, there is a strong positive correlation between SRL and academic achievement. Self-regulation is also found as the strong element in predicting successful college students' performance (see section 3.3).

Specific research question 5:

Does SRL (SRL and cognitive strategies) moderate the relationship between parenting style and the academic achievement of (upper) primary school students?

Hypothesis 5

Parenting style is significantly related to achievement, and moderated by SRL and cognitive strategy. This implies that the researcher is looking at the relationship between parenting style and achievement, with self-regulation and/or cognitive strategy as a covariant.

Justification: It has been found that parental inducement of academic self-regulation predicts student self-regulatory behaviour, and student SRL (which includes cognitive strategies) in turn predicts academic achievement (see section 3.4).

4.3 THE RESEARCH DESIGN

The research problem determines the research design (Alston & Bowels, 2003:66). According to Durrheim (2002:29), “A research design is a strategic framework for action that serves as a bridge between research questions and the execution of implementation of the research.” The *research design* refers to the conceptual structure or the blueprint for the data-collection, measurement and analysis (Kothari, 2004:3; Mouton, 2001:55). It indicates how the data are collected, analysed and reported, and involves the methods of sampling and of data-collection, and how the data are analysed. It is also called the *plan of action* of the researcher, which indicates the way the research is supposed to be executed in investigating the formulated problem.

In the design of the research, four dimensions of decision-making need attention, namely the paradigm, the research purpose, the research context, and the techniques to be used (Durrheim, 2002:33). A research design which is appropriate for a specific research problem takes the following factors into account, namely how the information is gathered, the skills the researcher has, the objective of the study, the nature of the problem, and the time and money needed for the research (Kothari, 2004:31).

This research of the relationship between parenting style, SRL and academic achievement mainly uses a *correlational* design, although it is also an *exploratory* and *descriptive* one. *Correlational* research is research “..in which information on at least two variables is collected for each subject in order to investigate the relationship between the variables” (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010:486). The variables in this

study are parenting style, SRL and acievment, as mentioned before. However, when correlation is used as statistical technique, a high correlation does not prove causation. According to Stangur (2011:177), in applied research, scientists usually employ a correlational design in order to predict one variable based on the knowledge of another.

4.3.1 The quantitative approach

If the research is quantitative in nature, the researcher is viewed as a realist or as a positivist. To realists or positivists, the main aim of a research project is to identify the truth by using objective research methods (Muijs, 2004:4). Therefore, quantitative research relies on measuring a quantity or an amount, and is thus used to measure phenomena that can be quantified – in other words, that can be stated in numbers (Kothari, 2004:3). For instance, quantitative research is applied to express perceptions about human experience in numerical categories, and the results are presented by means of statistics (Marvasti, 2004:7). The quantitative researcher analyses the numerical data that have been collected statistically to identify relationships (Alston & Bowles, 2003:9). Often the main aim in quantitative research is to investigate the relationship between independent and dependent variables within a given population (Singh, 2007:63).

In addition, since quantitative research is deductive in its approach, the researcher begins the research by stating questions and hypotheses, then collects the data, and analyses the data to test the hypotheses (Marvasti, 2004:141-142). This implies that in quantative research the researcher starts with ideas or theories, and tests the theories or ideas empirically. Therefore the structure of the research and the concepts that are going to be researched are carefully planned *before* the researcher starts working in the field (Alston & Bowles, 2003:8). The researcher also indicates to what extent the subjects are representative of the population and if he/she can generalise from the results, as the researcher is concerned about the ‘truth’, and with discovering the ‘laws’ of society (Alston & Bowles, 2003:9).

Futhermore, quantitative research is suitable to answer four types of research questions, namely on

- when a quantitative answer is required;
- when there is a numerical change that should be studied accurately;
- when there is a need to identify the states of something that are important to explain specific phenomena; and
- when there is a need to test a stated hypothesis (Muijs, 2004:7)

The study of the relationships of parenting style, SRL and academic achievement therefore uses a quantitative approach, since the study aims to test hypotheses and numerical change. In addition, the study adopts a postitivistic paradigm which is associated with a quantiative approach.

4.3.2 The population

Quantitative researchers are keen to determine something with regard to large groups of people or things, which are called a *population* (Ruane, 2005:104). The *population* refers to the whole group of individuals from which a sample is drawn, and to which the results can be generalised (Hinton, 2004:48; McMillan & Schumacher, 2010:489; Singh, 2007:88). Accordingly, the population of this study involved all the grade 7 students in upper primary schools in one regional city, Hawassa, in the SNNP state in Ethiopia. Grade 7 students were selected for the study because they are in the middle childhood or adolescent stage. At this stage the learners can already practice self-regulation, and this can build an early foundation which is important later in their school years (Duckworth, et al., 2009: IV).

The population of this study consisted of 6276 upper primary school grade 7 students. As stated, the schools are in the Southern Nation and Nationalities region

in Hawasa. The number of male and female students forming part of the population is presented in Table 4.1 (Ethiopian Minister of Education 2009 Annual Report).

Table 4-1 Population in number

Region/Town	No. of schools	Both sexes	Male	Female
SNNP Region				
Hawasa	19	6276	3410	2866

4.3.3 Sampling

A *sample* is a group of subjects from whom data are collected. The sample is often representative of a specific polulation (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010:490; Singh, 2007:89). There are different types of sampling techniques. Among the sampling techniques are convenience and purposive sampling, which are used when the population is accessible, and has a special reason to be included. According to Alston and Bowels (2003:88-89), *convenience* sampling refers to a sampling strategy that is used when the sample is accessible to the researcher; and *purposive* sampling refers to a sampling strategy that is used to select the sample for specific reasons. In this study these forms of sampling were used to select the schools in one regional city (Hawasa). This region was selected because the researcher could obtain the views of many different ethnic groups, and the schools were accessible to the researcher.

Hawasa has 19 upper elementary schools. Of these schools, two were randomly selected. Hence, the study of the relationship of parenting style, SRL and academic achievement was conducted at the two schools by selecting all the 477 grade 7 students, of both sexes.

4.3.4 The data-collection instrument

The questionnaire was the measuring instrument used in this study. (See Appendix A.) Two types of questionnaires were used, as explained in sections 4.3.4.1 and section 4.3.4.2. The first questionnaire focussed on parenting style, and the second on SRL. In addition, the academic achievement of the students was determined from their school records.

4.3.4.1 The parenting style questionnaire

A parenting style questionnaire was developed by Lambourn, et al. (1991). Since this parenting style questionnaire was adapted and used in the Ethiopian context many times, the researcher adopted it for this study from Abesha (1997). To do this, permission was obtained from the researcher who originally designed the questionnaire (see Appendix B).

This questionnaire consists of two sections. Section one is a demographic section, with items that determine the subjects' biographical data (such as ethnicity, gender, and age).

Section two includes questions on parenting style, and consists of items that measure the two dimensions of parenting style, namely parental acceptance and parental control.

Parental acceptance consisted of nine items on parental closeness and acceptance. It used a Likert scale with four alternatives namely 'strongly agree', 'agree', 'disagree' and 'strongly disagree', which were scored 4, 3, 2, and 1, respectively. Examples of the items were, namely "I can count on my parents to help me if I have some kind of a problem", and "My parents keep pushing me to do my best in whatever I do". The children were expected to indicate their responses in respect of their male and female parents or guardians separately.

Parental control consisted of 10 items that contained varying types and numbers of alternatives, which were scored 1 for the first alternative, 2 for the second alternative, and N for the N^{th} alternative. Examples of the items included, “On a typical weekday, what is the latest your parents allow you to stay out at night?”; and “How much do your parents try to know in respect of whether you go to school or not?”. Once again the children were expected to indicate their responses for their male and female parents/guardians separately.

4.3.4.2 The questionnaire on Self-regulated Learning (SRL)

The second questionnaire collected data on SRL, and consisted of 22 items. The SRL was measured by the Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ). This scale is an adaptation of an instrument developed by Pintrich and De Groot (1990). The MSLQ consists of five scales (i.e., self-efficacy, intrinsic value, test anxiety, cognitive strategies, and self-regulation). Of the five scales, only the two scales, cognitive strategies and self-regulation, were used in this study, as they represented the SRL strategies.

The cognitive strategies consisted of rehearsal, elaboration and organisational strategies. An example of an item is, “When I study for a test, I try to put together information from class and from books”. There were 14 items that measured cognitive strategies.

The self-regulation scale consisted of meta-cognitive strategies and effort-management strategies. The meta-cognitive strategies consisted of planning, monitoring and regulation strategies. There were eight items on self-regulation. An example of an item is, “Before I begin studying, I think about the things I will need to do to learn”.

The items had five alternatives which could be scored 1, 2, 3, 4, or 5, where 1 means ‘never true of me’, and 5 means ‘always true of me’.

Both questionnaires were translated into the Amharic languages. This is because Amharic is the medium of instruction in the SNNP region. The translation was done by native speakers and English major graduates. One of the native speakers and English major graduates translated the questionnaires from English into Amharic. One of the native speakers and English major graduates again, translated them back into English. There were minor mismatches between the two translation versions, so it was modified.

4.3.4.3 Academic achievement

Academic achievement was measured by collecting the students' average academic records for three consecutive semesters. Since the students were from different schools, it was difficult to compare their scores unless they were standardised. Therefore the score was transformed into a T-score.

4.3.5 The data-collection procedure

The data were collected during 2013 in the selected upper primary schools in one regional city (Hawasa) Ethiopia. The questionnaires on parenting style and SRL were used for the study. The questionnaires were administered during school hours and during the mathematics class periods, as negotiated between the researcher and the class teachers. The students were requested to give their honest responses on the parenting style questionnaire and the Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire, by carefully considering the strategies that they used. It took the students approximately 45 minutes to complete the two questionnaires.

4.3.6 Ethical issues in data-collection

Ethics refers to a set of principles "…that are drawn up to guide our actions in the field as well as protect the rights of subjects in research'' (Piper & Simons, 2005:56). Therefore, in this research, all the actions were based on an ethical approach. The

questionnaires were also evaluated by the supervisor, and they were presented to the school principals before being distributed to the students.

Ethical clearance was obtained from the relevant committee in the College of Education at the University of South Africa (see Appendix C for the Ethical Clearance Certificate). In addition, the following methods ensured that the research was carried out in an ethical manner.

4.3.6.1 Informed consent

The subjects who participated in this study were not forced to do so, because forcing someone to participate in research is considered unethical (Marczyk, DeMatteo & Festinger, 2005:240). The research was based on informed consent that was given in writing.

When researchers explain the purpose of a study project to subjects and give them a chance to ask questions, and thus to make an enlightened decision to participate in the research project, it is called *informed consent (*Marczyk, et al., 2005*:*245-246).

In this study the researcher sent formal letters to the children's parents and to the principals of the schools to get their permission for them to participate in the research. (The consent form for parents and guardians appear as appendix D, the permission form for the Head of the District of Education in Hassawa is Appendix E, the memo to the principals to obtain permission is Appendix F). Both the participants' parents and the principals of each of the schools indicated their support for the study. The researcher also informed the participants about the purpose of the research and the procedures that would be followed to complete both the questionnaires. This gave the participants the opportunity to withdraw at any time if they did not feel comfortable to participate. The students also had to sign a letter to indicate their willingness to participate in the research, that is, giving their consent. (See appendix G).

4.3.6.2 Anonymity and confidentiality

Since it is essential to protect the identity of the subjects, researchers usually use pseudonyms for the subjects to keep them unidentifiable (Henn, et al., 2006:85).

In this study the subjects were asked to write their names on the questionnaires, but were assured that the information would be kept confidential. The researcher needed the students' names to collect the data on their academic achievements. The researcher assured the participants' confidentiality by making an effort not to reveal their identity, or any information regarding them (Henn, et al., 2006:85).

4.3.7 Validity and reliability

As pointed out previously, questionnaires on parenting style and SRL were used in the study. These two questionnaires were translated into the regional or local languages, as the students could have had a problem in understanding the language. Nevertheless, before the instruments were used, their quality had to be tested. There are two elements that are used for testing the quality of the measurement instruments, of which the first element is validity.

Validity means to what extent an instrument measures what it intends to measure (Cohen, et al., 2000:105). The main purpose of validity is to enhance the accuracy and usefulness of the findings by avoiding or controlling the confounding variables. This is done to boost confidence in the findings of a given study (Marczyk, et al., 2005:158).

Validity is classified into face, content, criterion and construct validity (Babbie, 2010:153-154). In this study the researcher was primarily concerned with face and content validity. *Face validity* refers to the assessment of a measure by means of which the researchers check if the measure 'looks good' on surface. For example, if an item is supposed to determine meta-cognitive strategies, it should be judged if the

item, taken at face value, indeed tests meta-cognitive strategies. If it does, then the item has face validity (Ruane, 2005:62).

Content validity refers to the extent to which the items cover the whole content area that it should cover (Crano & Brewer, 2002:47). In this study, items on cognitive strategies should cover rehearsal, elaboration and organisational strategies, while the self-regulation scale should consist of meta-cognitive and effort-management strategies. Meta-cognitive strategies should cover planning, monitoring and regulation strategies. The face validity and the content validity of this study were checked by both the researcher and his promoter.

The second important issue is reliability. “The reliability of a measurement procedure is the stability or consistency of the measurement” (Delport, 2005:162). *Reliability* refers to the measuring instrument’s ability to gain consistent measurements when used again under the same circumstances (Bernard, 2000:47). The common methods that are used to calculate reliability are split half reliability and Cronbach’s coefficient alpha (Muijs, 2004:73).

In previous research the parenting style scale which was adapted was used by different researchers in Ethiopia, and its reliability had been determined. For example, Tigist (as cited in Markos, 1996:36) found the reliability of parenting style had two scales, namely parental acceptance and control factors, namely a=.83 for the ‘acceptance’ and a=.82 for ‘control’. Tilahun (2002:31) found the reliability of the scales for parental acceptance was a=0.84, and a=0.74 for parental control. In addition, Pintrich and De Groot (1990:35) tested the reliability of the SRL scale. SRL had two scales. The first scale was self-regulation (meta-cognitive strategies and effort-management strategies), and the second was cognitive strategies. The reliability for the self-regulation scale was found to be .74, and for the cognitive strategy scale .83.

In this study, the reliabilities were also determined by means of Cronbach alphas. The results were as follows:

Parental acceptance for male parents/guardians, .807;
Parental acceptance for female parents/guardians, .779;
Parental control for male parents/guardians, .782;
Parental control for female parents/guardians, .760;
Cognitive strategies, .910;
Self-regulation, .853.

According to McMillan and Schumacher (2010:184), a good rule of thumb is to be wary of reliabilities below 0.7. Since the reliabilities of the constructs for the two questionnaires were all between .76 and .91, they were all acceptable.

4.3.8 The pilot study

Before the instruments were used, a pilot study was conducted with 10 students in one grade 7-class, based on convenience sampling. The aim was to see if the students understood all the items, and if some items had to be reformulated. After piloting the questionnaire with the sample, the instrument was revised. There were items that were misunderstood by the subjects. “The highest level of education completed by our parents” was changed to “The level of education completed by your parents”; and “in this class” was changed to “the maths class”. In addition to the formulation of the items, the researcher also checked the time it took the students to complete the questionnaires. It took the participants in the pilot study 45 to 50 minutes to complete the questionnaires.

4.3.9 The analysis of the data

Descriptive analysis, correlational analysis, ANOVA and ANCOVA analysis were used to analyse the data in this study. Descriptive analysis was applied to the demographic variables and to analyse research question 1. Correlational analysis was applied to hypothesis 4. ANOVA analysis was applied to hypotheses 2 and 3. ANCOVA analysis was used to test hypothesis 5. The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) was used to conduct the different types of analyses.

4.3.9.1 Descriptive analysis

Descriptive analysis was used to calculate the range of the score, the mode, the median and the standard deviation of the key variables.

The raw scores of the questionnaire were interpreted in respect of to the various parenting styles. The median split procedure was applied as follows, namely

- When subjects scored above or equal to the median for both 'acceptance' and 'control' they were considered as having 'authoritative parents'. According to the literature review, authoritative parents are high in responsiveness and high in being demanding. If the subjects' scores were above the median on both 'acceptance' and 'control', their parents were high in responsiveness and high in being demanding. Therefore, the children were considered as having 'authoritative' parents (see section 2.2).

- When the subjects scored below the median on 'acceptance' but on or above the median on 'control', they were considered as having 'authoritarian parents'. According to the literature review, authoritarian parents are low in 'responsiveness' and high in 'demanding'. If the subjects' scores were below the median on 'acceptance' and above the median on 'control', their parents

were low in responsiveness and high in demanding. Therefore, their children were considered as having 'authoritarian parents' (see section 2.2).

- When the subjects scored on or above the median on 'acceptance' but below the median on 'control' they were considered as having 'indulgent parents'. According to the literature review, indulgent parents are high in 'responsiveness' and low in 'demanding'. If the subjects' scores were above the median on 'acceptance' and below the median on 'control', their parents were high in 'responsiveness' and low in 'demanding'. Therefore, their children were considered as having 'indulgent parents' (see section 2.2).

- When the subjects scored below the median on both subscales, they were considered as having 'neglectful parents'. According to the literature review, neglectful parents are low in 'responsiveness' and low in 'demanding'. If the subjects' scores were below the median on 'acceptance' and below the median on 'control', their parents were low in 'responsiveness' and low in 'demanding'. Therefore, their children were considered as having 'neglectful parents' (see section 2.2).

When the subjects lived with two parents, the scores for the mothers and the fathers were averaged. However, when the subjects lived with one parent only, the scores for that single relationship was used (Abesha, 1997:66).

4.3.9.2 Correlational analysis

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Correlation refers to a statistical technique that is used to determine the relationship between two or more variables. It also provides information on the extent to which the correlation is statistically significant (Marczyk, et al., 2005:216). For example, if the relationship between two variables is r=+1, then there is a perfect positive relation. If the relationship between two variables is r=-1, then there is a perfect negative

correlation. If the value of ‘r’ close to 0, there is a smaller relationship between two variables (Dowdy, Wearden & Chilko, 2004:240).

According to the researcher’s hypotheses, there are significant positive correlations expected between an authoritative parenting style and SRL, an authoritative parenting style and academic achievement, and SRL and academic achievement. In addition, a significant negative correlation between indulgent, authoritarian, neglectful parenting styles and SRL is expected, as well as between indulgent, authoritarian, and neglectful parenting styles and academic achievement.

4.3.9.2.1 ANOVA

ANOVA is used to investigate the difference between three or more groups of participants or conditions which have at least one independent variable that has different categories and one numerical (continuous) dependent variable (Foster, et. al., 2006). As a result of this, ANOVA can be one-way or two-way or three-way. One-way ANOVA is used when there is one independent variable in the study. The independent variable can have different categories in accordance with the study conducted, or with the hypothesis that is going to be tested. A one-way ANOVA is conducted with the intention of examining the difference between two or three or more categories of the independent variables. The categories define the amount of variances between the groups and within the groups (Meyers, Gamst & Guarino, 2006:283).

To perform the ANOVA using SPSS, two different analyses were performed. One analysis was performed where SRL was predicted from the knowledge of the parenting styles (authoriative, authoritarian, indulgent or neglectful) as SRL serves as dependent variables, and parenting styles as independent variables. Another analysis was performed where academic achievement was predicted from the parenting style. Academic achievement was the dependent variable, and parenting style was the independent variable. The Scheffe-tests were conducted when

significant differences were found between the means to determine exactly *where* the differences were.

4.3.9.3 Univariate analysis of variance

A univariate analysis of variance with a covariate was used to test hypothesis five. This is an extension of ANOVA to determine if the relationship between two variables is influenced by a third variable (Foster, et al., 2006:12). Figure 4.1 illustrates the hypothesis derived from the literature.

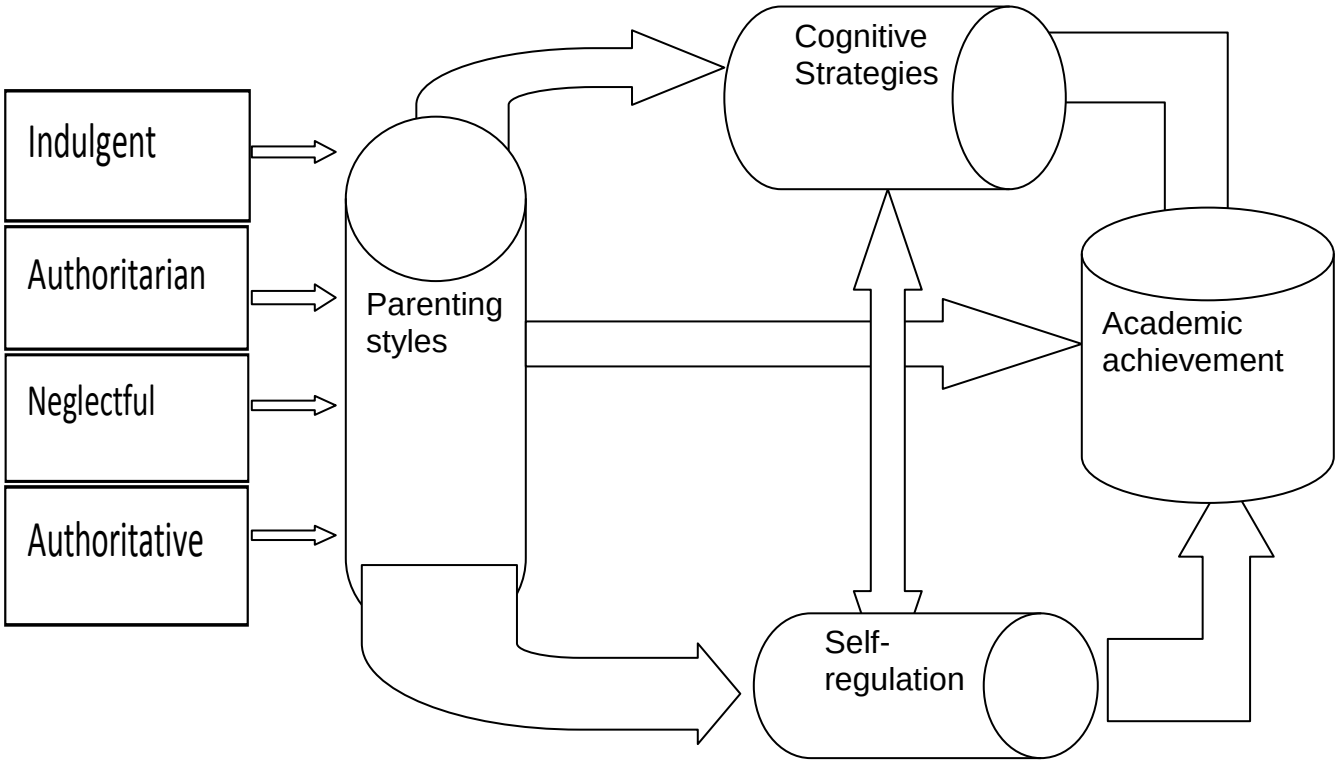

Figure 4-1 Diagram for the hypothesised model predicting the students' academic achievement

Figure 4.1 illustrates the possible inter-relationships that the study explored.

4.4 CONCLUSION

In chapter 4 the research design and data-collection procedures were explained in detail. This explanation included the questions and hypotheses, ethics, the data-collection procedure, the population, sampling, the questionnaires, and the analysis of the data.

In chapter 5 the results of the study are presented and discussed.

CHAPTER 5

THE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION OF THE RESULTS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This study was undertaken in order to gain a better understanding of which types of parenting styles are significantly related to the SRL and academic achievement of a selected group of Ethiopian students. In addition to this, it aimed at determining to what extent, or not at all, SRL mediated parenting style and academic achievement.

In chapter 4 the researcher discussed the research design, which included the research method, the questions and hypotheses, research ethics, the selection of the subjects of the study, the research instruments, and the method of analysis.

In chapter 5 three main sections are presented, namely the results, a discussion of the results, and a summary.

The results are presented in 23 tables and 11 figures. This section presents the children's' views of parental acceptance, their views of parental control, a self-report by the students of the cognitive strategies they use, a self-report by the students of their self-regulation, their views on the parenting styles of their parents, and the testing of the hypotheses that focused on research questions 2 to 5. Finally, a discussion of the results and a summary of the main results are presented.

5.2 THE RESULTS

5.2.1 Demographic data of the respondents

The demographic data of the respondents were determined by means of six questions (see Appendix A). The data appear in Tables 5.1 to 5.6, and in Figures 5.1 to 5.6.

Table 5-1: The ethnicity of the respondents

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative percentage
Valid	Hadiya	21	4.4	4.4	4.4
	Sidama	119	24.9	24.9	29.4
	Welaita	161	33.8	33.8	63.1
	Amhara	61	12.8	12.8	75.9
	Oromo	59	12.4	12.4	88.3
	Tigrie	15	3.1	3.1	91.4
	Guragie	24	5.0	5.0	96.4
	Other	17	3.6	3.6	100.0
	Total	477	100.0	100.0	

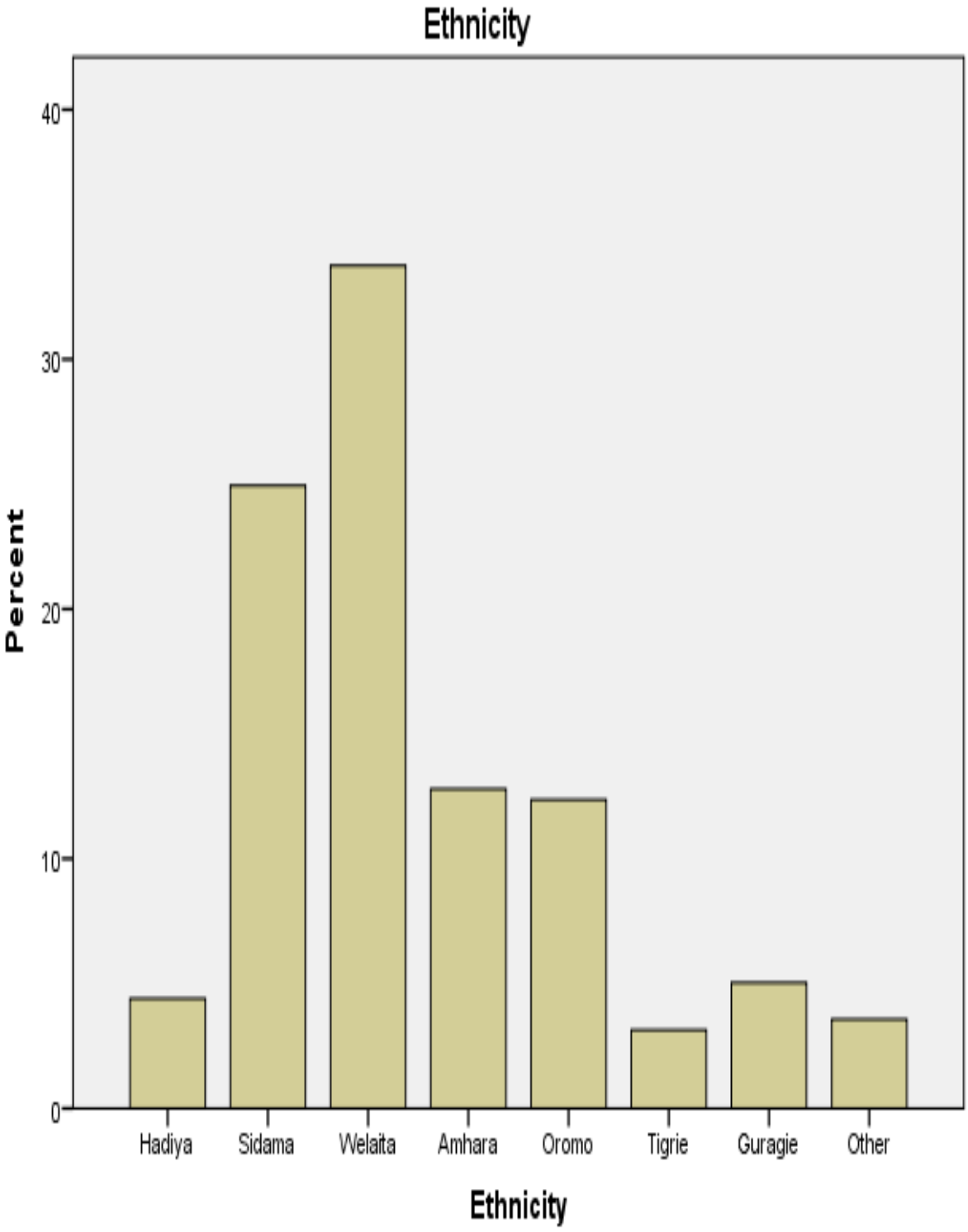

Figure 5-1: The ethnicity of the respondents

Table 5-2: The sex of the respondents

		Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percentage
Valid	Male	216	45.3	45.6	45.6
	Female	258	54.1	54.4	100.0
	Total	474	99.4	100.0	
Missing	System	3	.6		
Total		477	100.0		

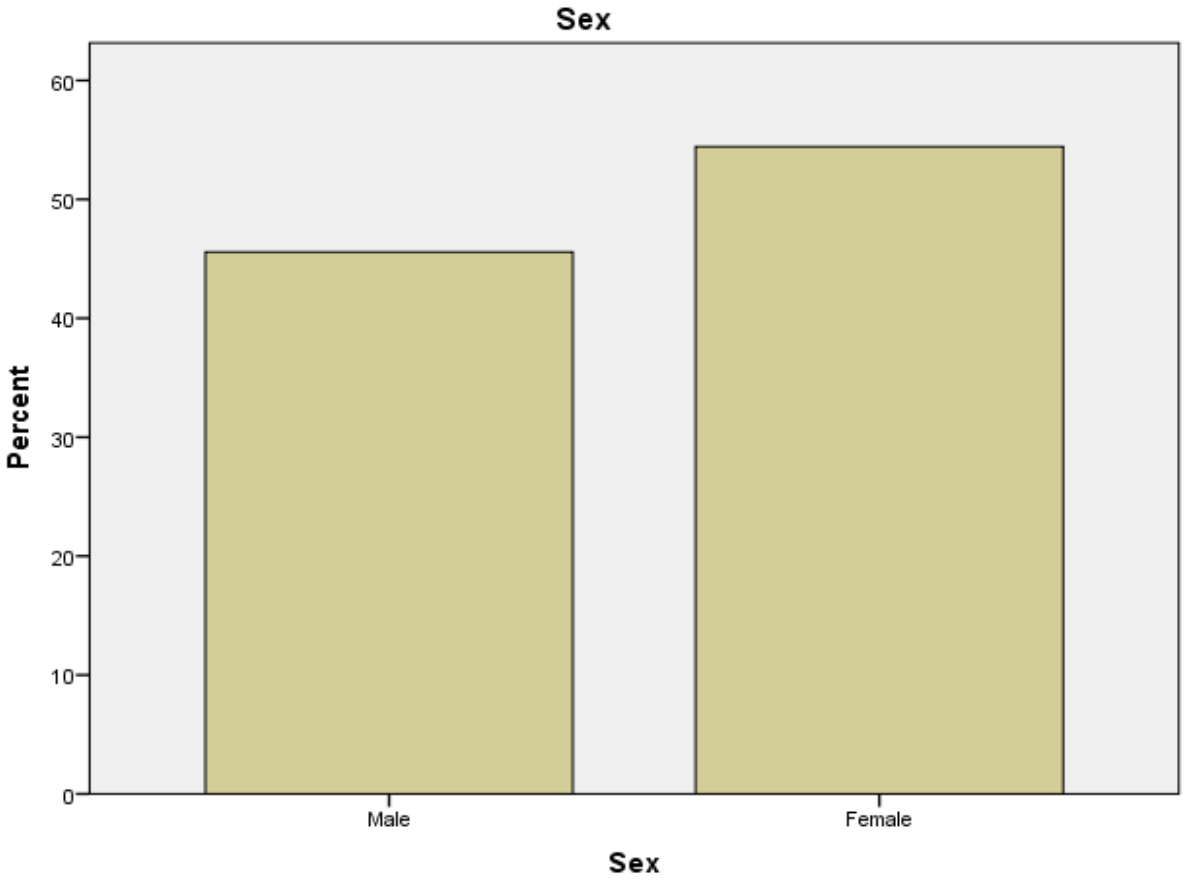

Figure 5-2: The sex of the respondents

Table 5-3: The age of the respondents

		Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percentage
Valid	10	4	.8	.8	.8
	11	8	1.7	1.7	2.5
	12	40	8.4	8.5	11.0
	13	179	37.5	37.8	48.8
	14 and above	242	50.7	51.2	100.0
	Total	473	99.2	100.0	
Missing	System	4	.8		
Total		477	100.0		

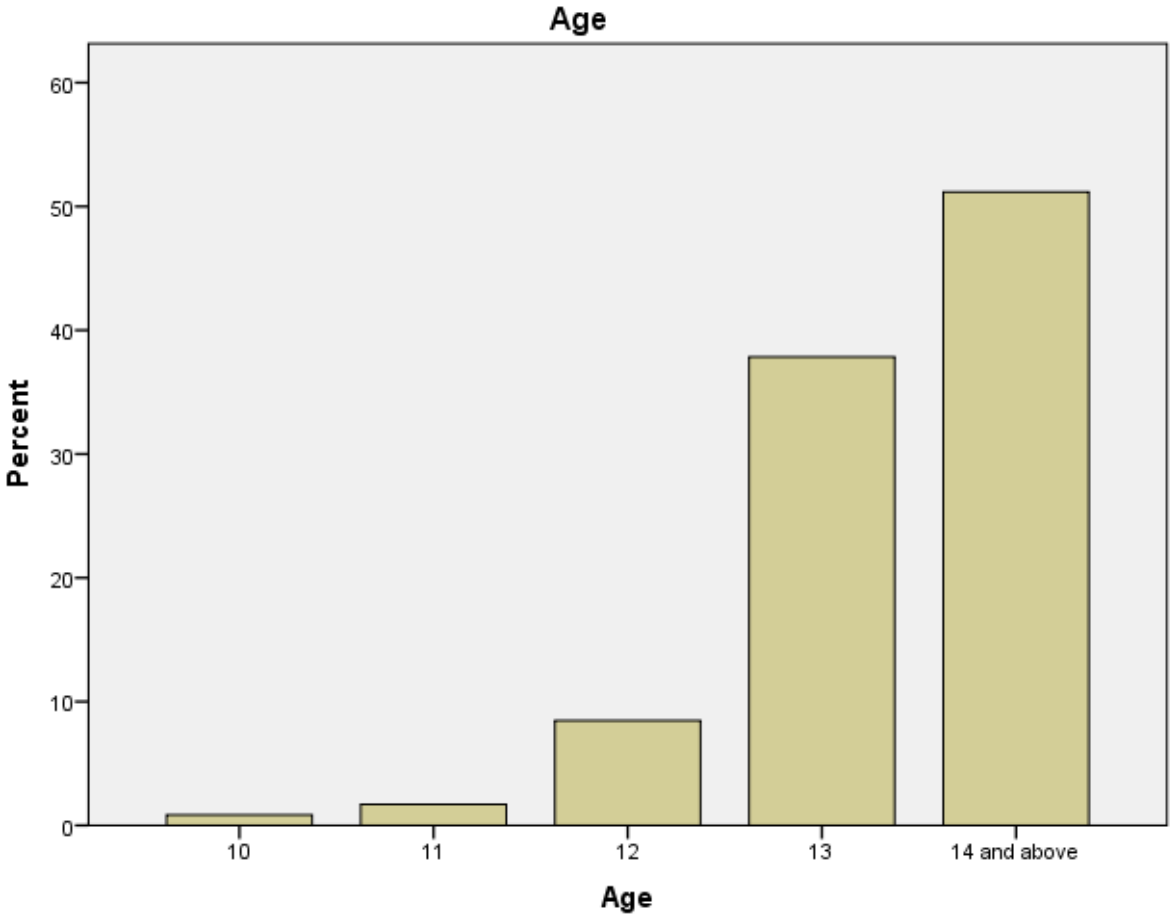

Figure 5-3: The age of the respondents

Table 5-4: The person/s with whom the student lives

		Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percentage
Valid	Both natural parents	315	66.0	66.0	66.0
	Only natural mother	74	15.5	15.5	81.6
	Natural mother and stepfather	8	1.7	1.7	83.2
	Only natural father	8	1.7	1.7	84.9
	Natural father and stepmother	7	1.5	1.5	86.4
	Other	65	13.6	13.6	100.0
	Total	477	100.0	100.0	

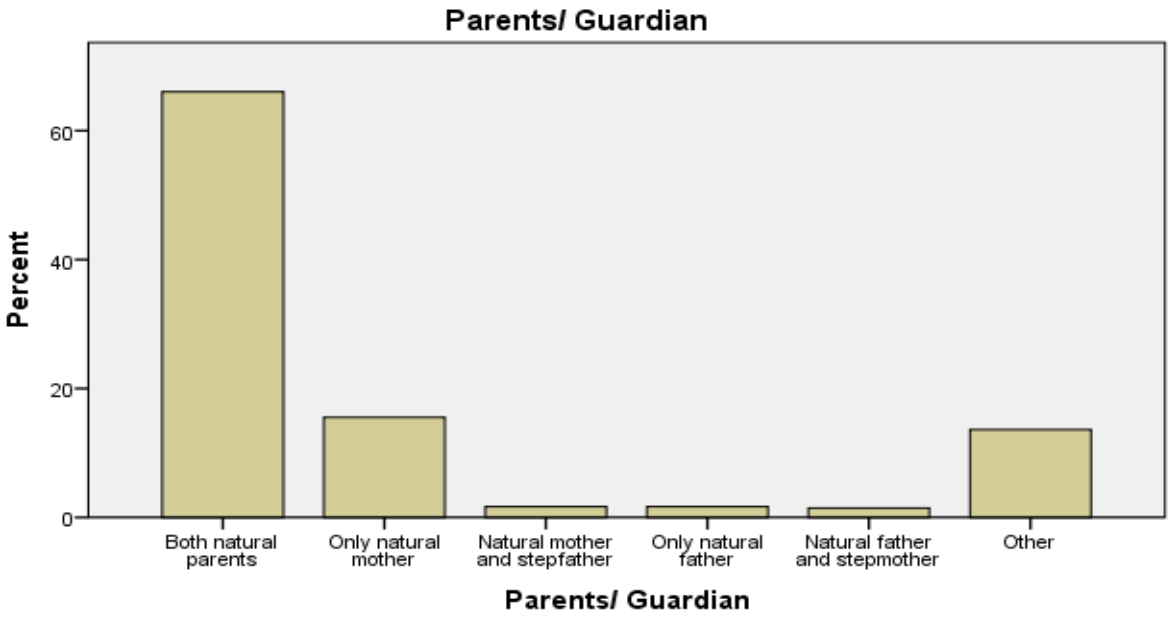

Figure5-4: The person/s with whom the student lives

Table 5-5: The highest level of education of the mother or female guardian

		Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percentage
Valid	Illiterate	58	12.2	14.8	14.8
	Elementary school	148	31.0	37.9	52.7
	Secondary school	102	21.4	26.1	78.8
	Any training after high school	83	17.4	21.2	100.0
	Total	391	82.0	100.0	
Missing	System	86	18.0		
Total		477	100.0		

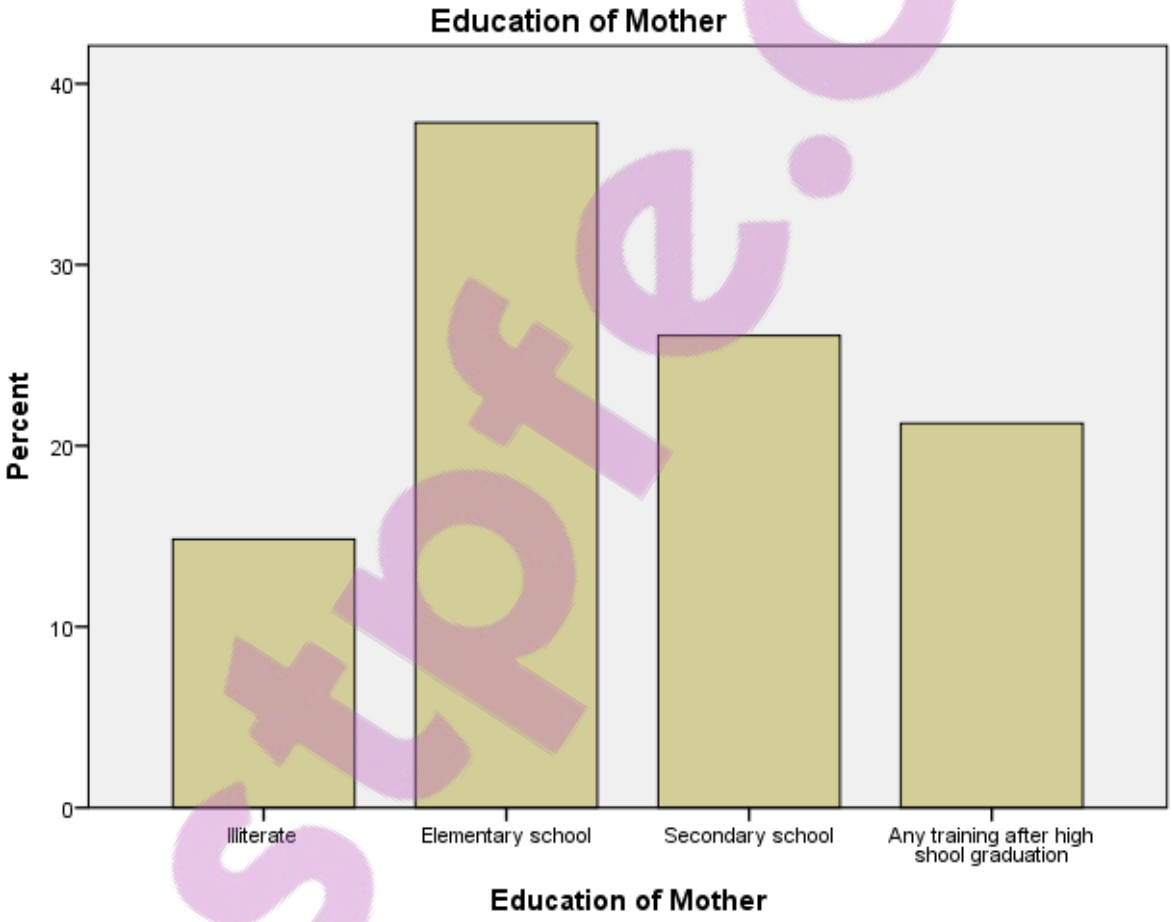

Figure 5-5: The highest level of education of the mother or female guardian

Table 5-6: The highest level of education of the father or male guardian

		Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percentage
Valid	Illiterate	114	23.9	25.1	25.1
	Elementary school	190	39.8	41.8	66.8
	Secondary school	90	18.9	19.8	86.6
	Any training after high school	61	12.8	13.4	100.0
	Total	455	95.4	100.0	
Missing	System	22	4.6		
Total		477	100.0		

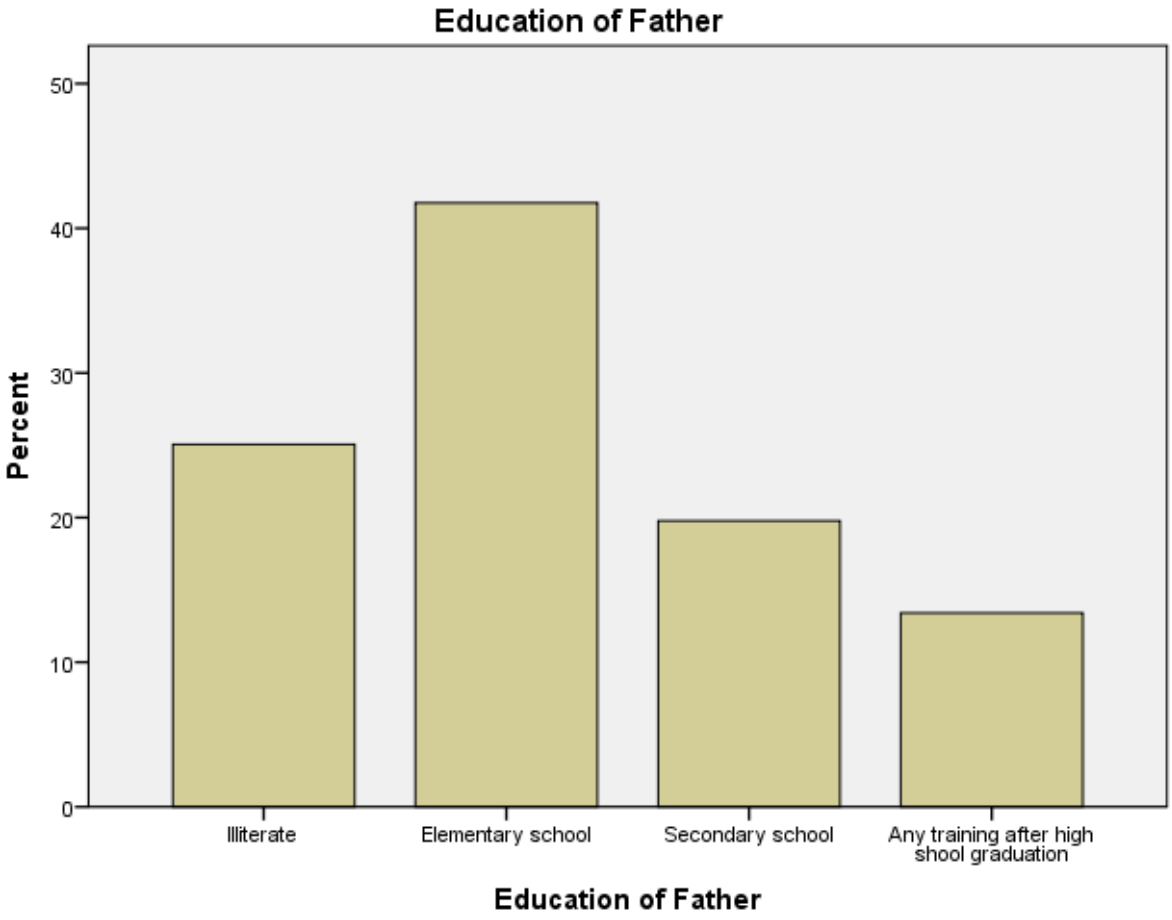

Figure 5-6: The highest level of education of the father or male guardian

Regarding ethnicity, as shown in Table 5.1 and Figure 5.1, the respondents were mostly Welaita and Sidama (33.8 % and 24.9% respectively); 12.8% and 12.4% were Amhara and Omoro, while the smallest percentage was Hadiya and Tigrie (4.4 and 3.1%).

Table 5.2 and Figure 5.2 indicate that 45.3% of the respondents were males and 54.1% were female. The two biggest age groups that participated in the research were the 13 year-old group (37.5%) and the 14 year-old and older group (50.7%), as shown by Table 5.3 and Figure 5.3.

It was also indicated in Table 5.4 and Figure 5.4, that the majority of the students (66%) live with both their natural mother and father. The second largest group (15.5%) lives with their natural mother only.

As illustrated in Tables 5.5 and 5.6, as well as in Figures 5.5 and 5.6, the rank-order of the education of the mothers is as follows, namely

elementary training – 31%
secondary training – 21.4%
after high school training – 17.4%
no training (illiterate) – 12.2%.

For the fathers this order is as follows:
elementary training – 39.8%
no training (illiterate) – 23.9%
secondary training – 18.9%
after high school training – 12.8%

The above indicates that the students' mothers were more educated than their fathers.

5.2.2 Research question 1: The children's views of parental acceptance

Nine items focused on parental acceptance, starting with "I can count on my parents to help me if I have some kind of a problem" to "My parents enjoy staying at home with me more than going out with friends" (see Appendix A, Part 2). The results for both the male and the female parents or guardians appear in Table 5.7.

Table 5-7: The children's views on male and female parental acceptance

Statement	Strongly disagree F(%) male Female	Disagree F (%) male female	Agree F (%) male female	Strongly agree F(%) male Female
I can count on my parents to help me, if I have some kind of a problem.	29(6.1) 24(5)	25(5.2) 28(5.9)	105(22) 97(20.3)	229(48) 312(65.4)
My parents keep pushing me to do my best in whatever I do.	27(5.7) 18(3.8)	27(5.7) 25(5.2)	100(21) 128(26.8)	232(48.6) 283(59.3)
My parents allow me to tell them if I think my ideas are better than theirs.	57(11.9) 48(10.1)	57(11.9) 58(12.2)	125(26.2) 133(27.9)	149(31.2) 220(46.1)
My parents always speak to me with a warm and friendly voice.	34(7.1) 31(6.5)	61(12.8) 45(9.4)	93(19.5) 106(22.2)	197(41.3) 278(58.3)
When my parents want me to do something, they explain why.	35(7.3) 33(6.9)	46(9.6) 34(7.1)	118(24.7) 145(30.4)	188(39.4) 241(50.5)
When I get a poor grade in school, my parents encourage me to try harder.	26(5.5) 23(4.8)	32(6.7) 27(5.7)	72(15.1) 88(18.4	259(54.3) 324(67.9)
My parents know who my friends are.	69(14.5) 63(13.2)	63(13.2) 58(12.2)	94(19.7) 96(20.1)	161(33.8) 241(50.5)
My parents spend time just talking to me.	91(19.1) 77(16.1)	84(17.6) 100(21)	101(21.2) 124(26)	108(22.6) 153(32.1)
My parents enjoy staying at home with me more than going out with friends.	62(13) 50(10.5)	65(13.6) 63(13.2)	101(21.2) 105(22)	157(32.9) 241(50.5)

From Table 5.7 a number of observations can be made.

In all the instances, for both the male and the female parents, the highest percentages lie in the 'strongly agree' category. Since all the items were framed

positively for parental acceptance, this indicates that more students experienced parental acceptance than not at all.

In all the instances the percentages in the ‘strongly agree’ category were higher for the females than for the males (e.g., 65.4% versus 48%; 59.3 versus 48.65; 46.1 versus 31.2%, etc.). This shows that the students perceived their female parents/guardians as higher in acceptance than their male parents/guardians.

The poorest level of acceptance lies with “My parents spend time just talking to me”. Only 32.1% and 22.6% of the students strongly agreed with this statement for male and female parents/guardians respectively.

The best levels of acceptance were, in rank-order, with “When I get a poor grade at school, my parents encourage me to try harder” – 67% and 54.3% strongly agreed; “I can count on my parents to help me if I have some kind of a problem” – 65.4% and 48% strongly agreed, and “My parents keep pushing me to do my best in whatever I do” - 59.3% and 48.6% strongly agreed with the statement.

5.2.3 Research question 1: The children’s views on parental control

The students’ views of parental control were determined by means of 10 items in the questionnaire (see Appendix A). The data are presented in Table 5.8 and Table 5.9.

Table 5-8: The children's views on male and female parental control with regard to staying out at night

Statement	Male parent/guardian F(%)	Female parent/guardian F(%)
On a typical weekday, the latest my parents allow me to stay out at night	I am not allowed out: 249(52.2) 8 pm: 88(18.4) 8-9 pm: 38(8) 9--10 pm: 7(1.5) 10-11 pm: 0 11-12 pm: 1(.2) Any time: 5(1) Total: 388(81.3) Missing: 89(18.7)	I am not allowed out: 276(57.9) 8 pm: 132(27.7) 8-9 pm: 37(7.8) 9--10 pm: 7(1.5) 10-11 pm: 1(.2) 11-12 pm: 2(.4) Any time: 5(1) Total: 460 (96.4) Missing:17 (3.6)
On a typical weekend, the latest my parents allow me to stay out at the night	I am not allowed out: 214(44.9). 8 pm: 112(23.5) 8-9 pm: 41(8.6) 9--10 pm: 8(1.7) 10-11 pm: 3(6) 11-12 pm: 4(.8) Any time: 7(1.5) Total: 389 (81.6) Missing: 88(18.4)	I am not allowed out: 240 (50.3) 8 pm: 146(30.6) 8-9 pm 55(11.5) 9--10 pm: 9(1.9) 10-11 pm: 5(1) 11-12 pm: 1(.2) Any time: 7(1.5) Total: 463(97.1) Missing: 14(2.9)

Table 5.8 reveals the following, namely

In all instances the female parents or guardians were stricter than the male parents or guardians: 52.2% of the children said that their male parents/guardians did not allow them out at night during the week, and 57.9% of the children said that their female parents/guardians did not allow them out at night during the week. In addition to this, 44.9% of the children reported that their male parents/guardians did not allow them out at night during a typical weekend, while 50.3% of the children said that their female parents/guardians did not allow them out at night during a weekend.

If the other ‘time’ categories are studied, they show that 18.4% and 27.7% of the children are allowed by their male parents/guardians and their female parents/ guardians respectively, to stay out until 8 pm during the week. During weekends, these figures change to 23.5% and 30.6% for the male parents/guardians and their female/parents / guardians, respectively.

This means that the female parents/guardians control their children more than the male parents/guardians. This is confirmed by the high number of missing values for male parents/guardians, that shows that it is the female parent or guardian that lays down the rules.

Table 5.9 shows the children’s views of both male and female parental control on various issues, according to the respondents.

Table 5-9: The children's views on male and female parental control on various issues

Statement	Male parent/guardian	Female parent/guardian
How much do your parents **try** to know whether you go to school or not?	Doesn't try : 42(8.8) Tries a little : 104(21.8) Tries a lot : 243(50.9)	Doesn't try : 54(11.3) Tries a little : 108(22.6) Tries a lot : 300(62.9)
How much do your parents **try** to know what you do with your free time?	Doesn't try : 47(9.9) Tries a little : 143(30) Tries a lot : 197(41.3)	Doesn't try : 58(12.2) Tries a little: 153(32.1) Tries a lot : 249(52.2)
How much do your parents **try** to know where you spend your time after school?	Doesn't try : 47(9.9) Tries a little : 105(22) Tries a lot : 236(49.5)	Doesn't try : 46(9.6) Tries a little : 130(27.3) Tries a lot : 285(59.7)
How much do your parents **try** to know what you do with your money (when you have)?	Doesn't try : 82(17.2) Tries a little : 120(25.2) Tries a lot : 184(38.6)	Doesn't try : 54(11.3) Tries a little : 155(32.5) Tries a lot : 252(52.8)
How much do your parents **really** know whether you go to school or not.	Doesn't know : 45(9.4) Knows a little : 77(16.1) Knows a lot : 264(55.3)	Doesn't know : 30(6.3) Knows a little : 106(22.2) Knows a lot : 321(67.3)
How much do your parents **really** know what you do with your free time?	Doesn't know : 95(19.9) Knows a little : 54(11.3) Knows a lot : 153(32.1)	Doesn't know : 28(5.9) Knows a little : 45(9.4) Knows a lot : 140(29.4)
Do your parents **really** know where you spend your time after school?	Doesn't know : 45(9.4) Knows a little : 122(25.6) Knows a lot : 217(45.5)	Doesn't know : 30(6.3) Knows a little : 126(26.4) Knows a lot : 300(62.9)
Do your parents **really** know what you do with your money (when you have)?	Doesn't know : 81(17) Knows a little : 120(25.2) Knows a lot : 187(39.2)	Doesn't know : 52(10.9) Knows a little : 141(29.6) Knows a lot : 267(56)

Note: Missing values occurred, thus the percentages do not add up to 100%.

The following observations can be made from Table 5.9, namely

With one exception ("How much do your parents really know what you do with your free time?"), the students indicated that their female parents/guardians tried harder, or knew more than their male parents/guardians (62.9% versus 50.%; 52.2% versus

41.3% 59.7% versus 49.5% etc.). This implies that the female parents/guardians have more information about their children than the male parents/guardians.

About two-thirds of the children indicated that their female parents or guardians, in particular, tried hard to know, or really knew whether they went to school or not, and really knew where they spent their time after school.

However, the results also indicated the children's views that neither the male nor the female parents really knew where they spent their time after school, as indicated by 32.1% and 29.4% for the male and female parents/guardians, respectively. This is in spite of the fact that the children indicated that about 49.5% of their male parents/guardians and 59.7% of their female parents/guardians tried to know where they spent their time after school.

5.2.4 Research question 1: Self-report by the students of the cognitive strategies they use

The last part of the questionnaire focused on SRL (see Appendix A). The first 14 items determined the cognitive strategies that the student used. Table 5.10 illustrates these strategies, according to the data.

The two negative responses ("never true of me" and "seldom true of me") were grouped together. Similarly, the two positive responses ("generally true of me" and "always true of me") were grouped together, to make interpretation easier.

Table 5-10: The cognitive strategies the students use

Statement	Never/ seldom true F(%)	Sometimes true F(%)	Generally/ always true F(%)
When I study for tests, I try to put together information from class and from books.	71 (14.9)	133(27.9)	271(56.8)
When I do my homework, I try to remember what the teacher said in class so that I can answer the questions correctly.	65(13.7)	116(24.3)	286(60)
It is easy for me to decide what the main ideas are in what I have read.	62(13)	104(21.8)	307(64.4)
When I study I put important ideas into my own words.	60(12.6)	84(17.6)	326(68.4)
I always try to understand what the teacher is saying even if it does not make sense.	59(12.3)	73(15.3)	343(71.9)
When I study for a test I try to remember as many facts as I can.	45(9.4)	80(16.8)	349(73.2)
When studying, I copy my notes over to help me remember the material.	55(11.5)	86(18)	326(68.4)
When I study for a test I practise saying the important facts over and over to myself.	47(9.8)	76(15.9)	351(73.6)
I use what I have learned from old homework assignments and textbooks to do new assignments	51(10.6)	129(27)	292(61,2)
When I am studying a topic I try to make everything fit together.	67(14)	100(21)	307(64.4)
When I read material for the maths class, I say the words over and over to myself to help me remember	79(16.6)	100(21)	286(59.9)
I outline the chapters in my book to help me study.	93(19.5)	104(21.8)	276(57.9)
When reading I try to connect the things I am reading with what I already know.	48(10.1)	96(20.1)	332(69.6)
I ask myself questions to make sure I know the material I have been studying.	76(16)	109(22.9)	290(60.8)

Note: Missing values occurred, thus the percentages do not add up to 100%.

A number of observations can be made from Table 5.10. In rank-order, the students made the most use of the following five cognitive strategies:

practicing by saying important facts over and over in preparation for tests (73.6% indicated generally/always true);

trying to remember as many facts as possible while studying for a test (73.2% indicated generally/always true);
trying to understand what the teacher says even if it does not make sense (71.9% indicated generally/always true);
putting important ideas into their own words; and
copying notes to try and remember the material (86.4% indicated generally/always true for both methods).

The method that was used the least was, outlining the chapters in the books (generally used by 57.9%).

5.2.5 Research question 1: Self-report by the students on their self-regulated learning

The students' views on the extent to which they regulated their own learning were determined by the last eight questions in the questionnaire (see Appendix A). The results appear in Table 5.11.

The two negative responses ("never true of me" and "seldom true of me") were grouped together. Similarly, the two positive responses ("generally true of me" and "always true of me") were grouped together, for greater ease of interpretation.

Table 5-11: The self-report by the students on their self-regulation (meta-cognitive and effort-management strategies)

Statement	Never/ seldom true	Sometimes true	Generally /always true
Even when the work is hard, I keep on trying.	90(18.8)	112(23.5)	263(55.1)
I work on practice exercises and answer end-of-chapter questions even if I don't have to.	105(22)	101(21.2)	266(55.8)
Even when the study material is not interesting, I keep on working until I am finished.	93(19.5)	88(18.4)	283(59.4)
Before I begin studying I think about the things I will need to do to learn.	74(13.6)	92(19.3)	309(64.7)
I make sure that I understand what I read for the maths class.	73(15.3)	113(23.7)	286(59.9)
I always listen when the teacher is talking.	51(10.7)	105(22)	318(66.7)
When I am reading I stop once in a while and go over what I have read.	46(9.6)	112(23.5)	316(66.2)
I work hard to get a good grade even if I do not like the maths class.	64(13.5)	55(11.5)	333(69.8)

Note: Missing values occurred, thus the percentages do not add up to 100%.

Table 5.11 indicates that, in rank-order, the students made use of the following meta-cognitive and effort-management strategies, namely

working hard to get good grades even if they don't like the mathematics classes – indicated by 69.8% as generally or always true;
always listening when the teacher is talking – generally or always true: 66.7%;
stopping once in a while to go over what was read - generally or always true: 66.2%;
thinking about the things that they need to do to learn before they begin to study, indicated by 64.7% as generally or always true.

For all eight statements more than half of the sample indicated that in their view, they generally applied meta-cognitive and effort-management strategies.

5.2.6 Research question 1: The children's views on the parenting styles of their parents

Table 5.12 and Figure 5.7 illustrate how the students evaluated the parenting styles of their parents.

Table 5-12: The parenting styles of the parents

Parenting style	Frequency	Percentage
Authoritative	133	27.9
Authoritarian	83	17.4
Indulgent	98	20.5
Neglectful	163	34.2
Total	477	100.0

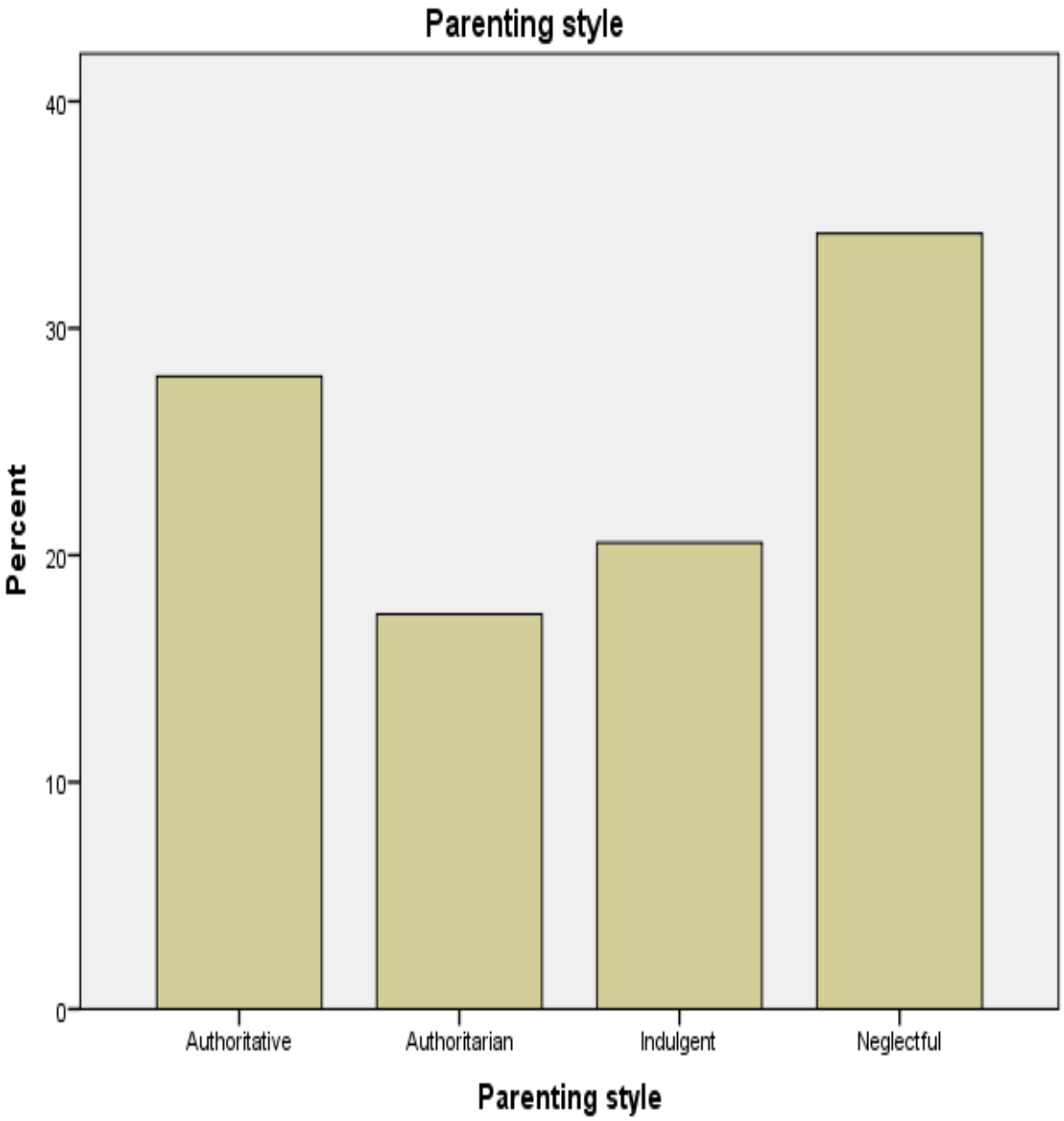

Figure 5-7: The parenting styles of the parents

Table 5.12 and Figure 5.7 illustrate the children's views on their parents' parenting styles.

The following can be observed, namely in rank-order, the students perceived their parents to be

neglectful – 34%;
authoritative – 27.9%;
indulgent – 20.5%;
authoritarian – 17.4%.

5.2.7 Testing of the hypotheses

Four main hypotheses (two to five) were tested.

The results are indicated in the next sections.

5.2.7.1 Research question 2: hypothesis 2

Research question 2

What is the relationship between the parenting styles and SRL (cognitive style and SRL) of (upper) primary school students?

Hypothesis 2

There are significant differences between the SRL (cognitive style and student self-regulation) of children with parents with different parenting styles (authoritative, authoritarian, indulgent, and neglectful).

This hypothesis was tested by means of ANOVA. The results appear in Table 5.13.

Table 5-13: The cognitive strategies and SRL of the children with parents with different parenting styles

Parenting style		N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Cognitive strategies	Authoritative	133	4.1733	.67580
	Authoritarian	83	3.7723	.78034
	Indulgent	98	4.0412	.67235
	Neglectful	163	3.5114	.79536
	Total	477	3.8502	.78486
Self-regulation	Authoritative	133	4.0685	.76578
	Authoritarian	83	3.6574	.84454
	Indulgent	98	3.8598	.78630
	Neglectful	162	3.5135	.82704
	Total	476	3.7650	.83392

Table 5.13 shows that for both cognitive strategies and SRL, the means are from high to low (best to poorest), in the following order, as regards parental style:

- authoritative
- indulgent
- authoritarian
- neglectful

The differences between the means were tested by means of ANOVA. The results appear in Table 5.14.

Table 5-14: ANOVA of tests for significant differences

		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Cognitive strategies	Between Groups	36.669	3	12.223	22.536	.000
	Within Groups	256.548	473	.542		
	Total	293.217	476			
Self –regulation	Between Groups	24.335	3	8.112	12.513	.000
	Within Groups	305.989	472	.648		
	Total	330.324	475			

Since Table 5.14 shows significant differences, the Scheffe post hoc tests were executed to determine *where* the significant differences were. The significant differences for cognitive strategies and for SRL appear in Tables 5.15 and 5.16. Only the values where significant differences were found between the means appear in the tables.

Table 5-15: Significant differences in cognitive strategies (as dependent variable), and parenting styles

Parenting style (I)	Parenting style (J)	Mean difference (I-J)	Std error	Significance
Authoritative	Authoritarian Neglectful	.40092 .66187	.10302 .08606	.002 .000
Indulgent	Neglectful	.52976	.09414	.000

Table 5.15 shows that there are significant differences between the means of the cognitive styles of:

- children with parents who are authoritative (mean of 4.1733), and children with parents who are authoritarian (mean of 3.7723);
- children with parents who are authoritative (mean of 4.1733), and children with parents who are neglectful (mean of 3.5114);
- children with parents who are indulgent (mean of 4.0412), and children with parents who are neglectful (mean of 3.5114).

(The means are portrayed in Table 5.13.)

The above implies that

- the cognitive strategies of children whose parents are authoritative, are significantly better than those of children with authoritarian parents;
- the cognitive strategies of children whose parents are authoritative, are significantly better than those of children with neglectful parents;
- the cognitive strategies of children whose parents are indulgent, are significantly better than those of children with neglectful parents.

Table 5-16: Significant differences in self-regulation (as dependent variable), and different parenting styles

Parenting style (I)	**Parenting style (J)**	**Mean difference (I-J)**	**Std error**	**Significance**
Authoritative	Authoritarian Neglectful	.41103 .55495	.11263 .09421	.004 .000
Indulgent	Neglectful	.34629	.10304	.011

Table 5.16 shows that there are significant differences between the means of the self-regulation of

- children with parents who are authoritative (mean of 4.0685), and children with parents who are authoritarian (mean of 3.6574);
- children with parents who are authoritative (mean of 4.0685), and children with parents who are neglectful (mean of 3.5135);
- children with parents who are indulgent (mean of 3.8598), and children with parents who are neglectful (mean of 3.5135).

(The means are portrayed in Table 5.13.)

The above implies that:

- the SRL of children whose parents are authoritative, are significantly better than that of children with authoritarian parents;
- the SRL of children whose parents are authoritative, are significantly better than that of children with neglectful parents;
- the SRL of children whose parents are indulgent, are significantly better than that of children with neglectful parents.

Figures 5.8 and 5.9 illustrate the means of cognitive style and SRL with parenting style.

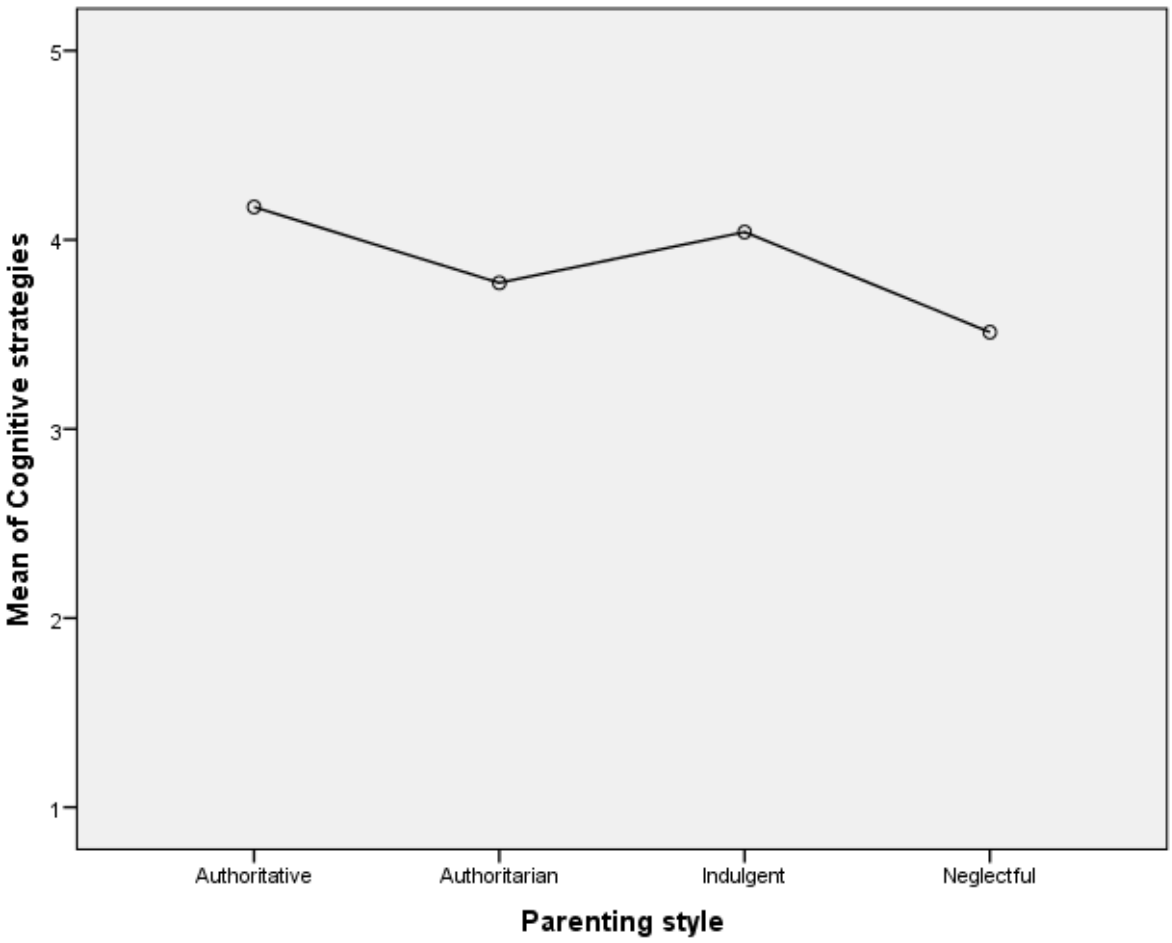

Figure 5-8: The relationship between cognitive strategies and parenting style

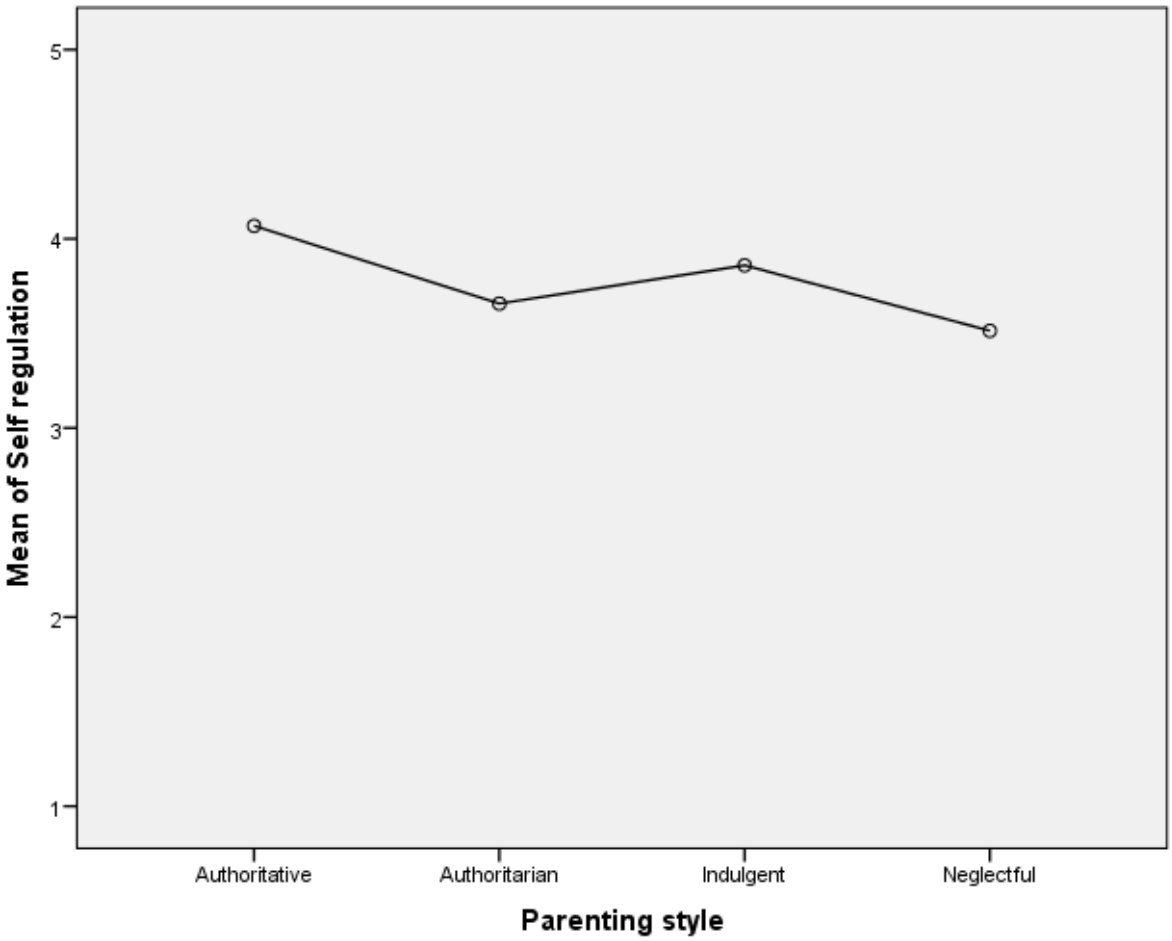

Figure 5-9: The relationship between self-regulation and parenting style

Table 5.9 and Figure 5.9 show that there is a significant relationship between the parenting style and SRL (cognitive style and SRL) of (upper) primary school students. The results confirm that there are significant differences between the SRL (cognitive style and student self-regulation) of children with parents with different parenting styles (authoritative, authoritarian, indulgent, and neglectful). For example, the cognitive styles and self-regulation of children with parents who are authoritative are significantly better than of those children whose parents are authoritarian or neglectful.

5.2.7.2 Research question 3: hypothesis 3

Research question 3

Which parenting styles are related to academic achievement of (upper) primary school students?

Hypothesis 3

There are significant differences between the academic achievement of children with parents with different parenting styles (authoritative, authoritarian, indulgent or neglectful).

This hypothesis was tested by means of ANOVA. The results are depicted in Table 5.17.

Table 5-17: The average achievement of the children with parents with different parenting styles

Parenting style	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Authoritative	133	62.88	8.548
Authoritarian	83	63.59	9.676
Indulgent	98	62.50	9.061
Neglectful	163	63.56	9.680
Total	477	63.16	9.231

Table 5.17 shows that the means for average achievement are, in rank-order from best to poorest:

- authoritarian;
- neglectful;
- authoritative; and finally,
- indulgent.

However, the differences between the means are not significant. This indicates that all the children, on average, achieved more or less the same, regardless of the parenting styles of their parents. Figure 5.10 also illustrate this:

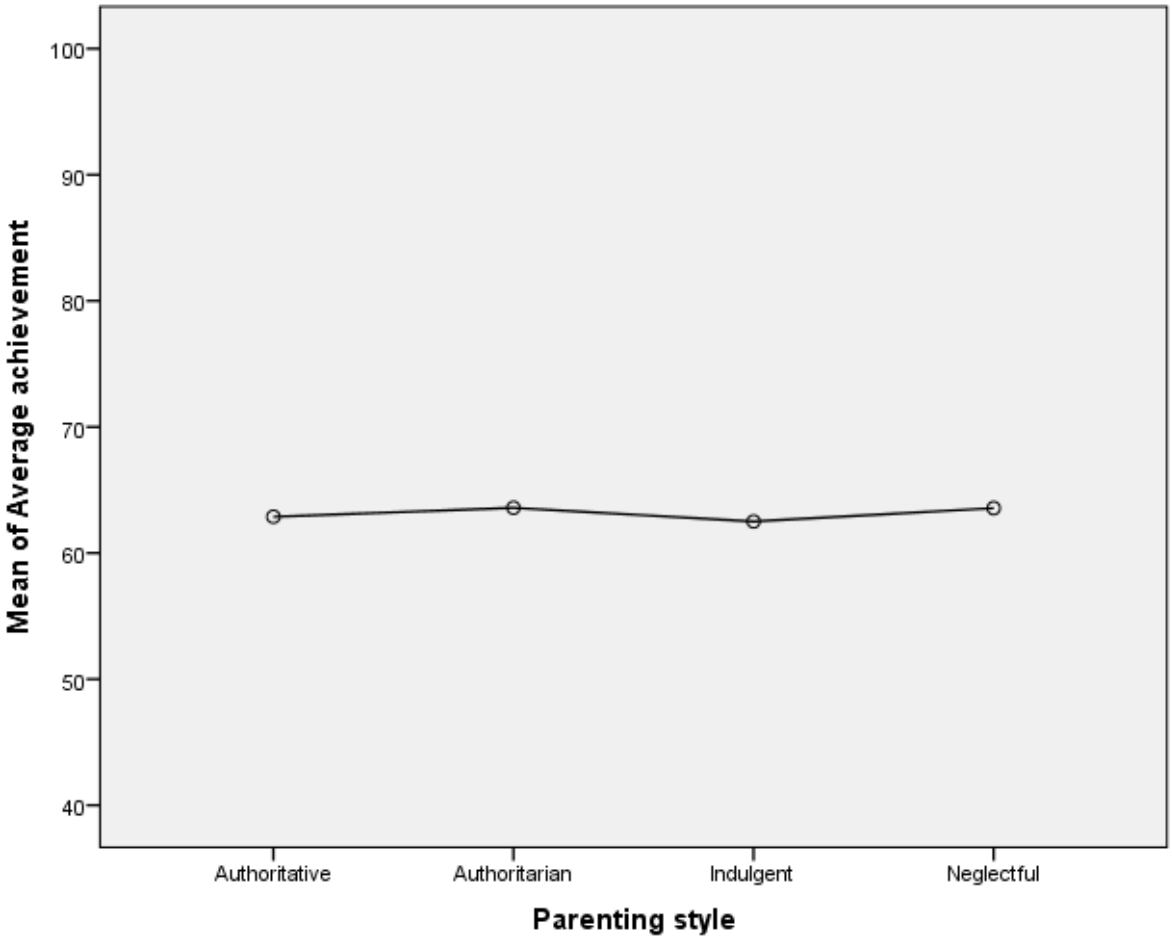

Figure 5-10: The average achievement of children with different parenting styles

To test for the relationship between achievement and parenting style another test was done. The mean achievement scores for the various parenting styles are presented in Table 5.18 below, and indicate very small absolute differences between the groups.

Table 5-18: The average achievement of children with parents with different parenting styles

Dependent variable: Average achievement

Parenting style	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Authoritative	62.88	8.548	133
Authoritarian	63.59	9.676	83
Indulgent	62.50	9.061	98
Neglectful	63.56	9.680	163
Total	63.16	9.231	477

The Levine test of the equality of variances shows that variances of the groups did not differ significantly the ANOVA tests could be used.

Table 5-19 Levine's Test of Equality of Error Variances

Dependent variable: Average achievement

F	df1	df2	Sig.
.809	3	473	.490

Table 5-20: Tests of Between-subjects Effects

Dependent variable: Average achievement

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	93.884[a]	3	31.295	.366	.778	.002
Intercept	1776012.880	1	1776012.880	20759.624	.000	.978
Parenting style	93.884	3	31.295	.366	.778	.002
Error	40465.766	473	85.551			
Total	1943209.180	477				
Corrected Total	40559.650	476				

a. R Squared = .002 (Adjusted R Squared = -.004)

Tables 5.19 and 5.20 show that there is no significant relationship between parenting style and achievement (p=0,778). The difference was also practically negligible in terms of effect size (Partial Eta squared = 0,002). The mean scores are portrayed graphically below. Knowing the parenting style of a student, will only assist in predicting academic achievement with 0,02 % accuracy (R square). In the figure (Figure 5.10), the X-axis shows the full range of the dependent variable, achievement.

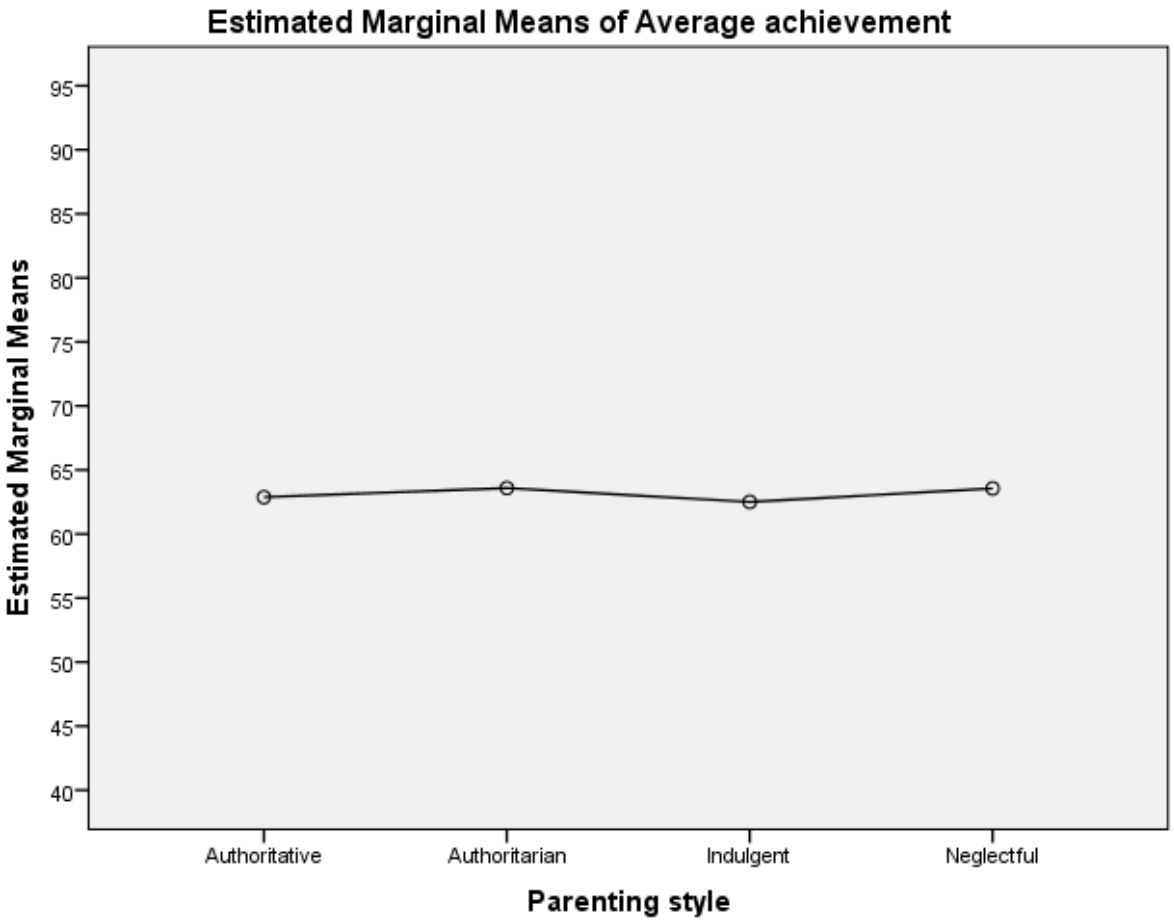

Figure 5-11: The relationship between parenting style and academic achievement

Figure 5.11 once again confirms that for this group of students, there was no significant relationship between parenting style and average achievement.

5.2.7.3 Research question 4: hypothesis 4

Research question 4

Is there a significant relationship between SRL (self-regulation and cognitive strategies) and the academic achievement of (upper) primary school students?

Hypothesis 4

There is a significant correlation between SRL and the academic achievement of (upper) primary school students.

This hypothesis was tested by means of correlation analysis. The results appear in Table 5.21.

Table 5-21: Correlations of self-regulation, cognitive strategies and academic achievement

		Self-regulation	**Cognitive strategies**	**Average achievement**
Self-regulation	Pearson Correlation	1	.763**	.070
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.125
	N	476	476	476
Cognitive strategies	Pearson Correlation	.763**	1	.149**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.001
	N	476	477	477
Average achievement	Pearson Correlation	.070	.149**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.125	.001	
	N	476	477	477

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

Table 5.21 illustrates that there are two significant correlations, namely between self-regulation and cognitive strategies (on the 0.01 level) – this correlation is .763 which is a high positive correlation), and between average achievement and cognitive strategies (also on the 0.01 level) – this correlation is .149 which is a low positive correlation.

A positive correlation means that as the one variable increases, the other one also increases. This implies that if the student's self-regulation increases, his or her cognitive strategies also increase, and vice versa. This is a high correlation. When the cognitive strategies improve, so do average achievement. However, this is a low correlation. In both instances it should be noted that correlation does not indicate cause and effect.

5.2.7.4 Research question 5: Hypothesis 5

Research question 5

Is parenting style significantly related to achievement, and moderated by self-regulation or cognitive strategies?

Hypothesis 5

Parenting style is significantly related to achievement and moderated by self-regulation; and parenting style is significantly related to achievement and moderated by cognitive strategies.

In other words, the researcher is looking at the relationship between parenting style and achievement with self-regulation and cognitive strategies respectively as co-variants. The univariate analysis of variance with a covariate was used to test the hypothesis. The table (Table 5.22), illustrates the results.

Table 5-22: The relationship between parenting style and achievement with self-regulation as a co-variant

Dependent variable: Average achievement

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	370.872[a]	4	92.718	1.088	.362	.009
Intercept	72527.891	1	72527.891	850.805	.000	.644
Self-regulation	281.642	1	281.642	3.304	.070	.007
Parenting style	170.271	3	56.757	.666	.573	.004
Error	40150.960	471	85.246			
Total	1938406.690	476				
Corrected total	40521.832	475				

a. R Squared = .009 (Adjusted R Squared = .001)

Table 5.22 indicates that the relationship between parenting style and achievement with self-regulation as a co-variant is *not* significant. While the relation between parenting style and achievement is particularly small (p=0.573), the relationship between self-regulation and achievement is significant (p=0.070). Partial eta squared, however, shows that the practical effect of this relationship is small.

Table 5-23: The relationship between parenting style and achievement with cognitive strategies as a co-variant

Tests of Between-subjects Effects

Dependent variable: Average achievement

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	1334.709[a]	4	333.677	4.015	.003	.033
Intercept	49083.871	1	49083.871	590.634	.000	.556
Cognitive strat.	1240.825	1	1240.825	14.931	.000	.031
Parenting style	430.267	3	143.422	1.726	.161	.011
Error	39224.941	472	83.104			
Total	1943209.180	477				
Corrected Total	40559.650	476				

a. R Squared = .033 (Adjusted R Squared = .025)

As indicated in Table 5.23, the relationship between parenting style and achievement with self-regulation as a co-variant, was *not* significant (p=0.161). However, the relationship between parenting style and achievement with *cognitive strategy* as a co-variant, is highly significant (p=0.001), with a large effect size (partial eta squared = 0.031).

5.3 DISCUSSION OF THE RESULTS

The main aim of this study was to determine if there is a significant relationship between parenting styles, SRL and the academic achievement of (upper) primary school students in Ethiopia.

To this end, five specific research questions were formulated, namely:

- What are the children's views of parental acceptance and control, their own cognitive strategies and SRL, and the parenting styles of their parents?
- What is the relationship between the parenting styles and SRL (cognitive strategies and self-regulation) of (upper) primary school students in selected Ethiopian schools?
- What is the relationship between the parenting style and the academic achievement of (upper) primary school students in selected Ethiopian schools?
- Is there a significant relationship between SRL and the academic achievement of (upper) primary school students?
- Does SRL moderate the relationship between parenting style and the academic achievement of (upper) primary school students?

The collection of the data was done by means of self-report questionnaires. The results of the study were presented in the above section.

In this section the interpretation of the results and their implications are presented.

5.3.1 Research question 1

5.3.1.1 The children's views of parental acceptance

If the parents are high on acceptance, they demonstrate a great deal of warmth and affection towards their children. On the other hand, if the parents are low in this dimension, they are cool, act as if they are rejecting their children, and have a tendency to criticize or punish their children (Levine & Munsch, 2010:521).

In this study it was found that in general the children experienced parental acceptance. In all the instances, the children perceived their female parents/guardians as higher in acceptance than their male parents/guardians. This is consistent with previous findings namely that, compared to the fathers, the mothers are more involved in child-rearing, such as spending time in actively interacting with their children (Gronlick & Ryan, 1989:152). However, it should be noted that, according to the children, their male and female parents or guardians spend very little time merely talking to them. The best levels of acceptance were in respect of encouraging their children to try harder when they achieve poorly, being able to count on their parents to help them if they have some kind of problem, and being pushed to do their best in whatever they do (see Table 5.7). The children can achieve and attain their educational goals if their parents are involved in their education and monitor their school activities, even though parental involvement decreases during the middle school years (see section 3.2.1).

The literature indicated that, generally speaking, a positive relationship existed between parental acceptance and academic success and competence which is negatively related to parental control (Lakshmi & Arora, 2006:50). Parental acceptance and encouragement play a key role in facilitating school success and competence, and in developing effective socialisation (Garcia & Gracia, 2009:123). (See section 3.2.1.)

5.3.1.2 The children's views of parental control

If the parents score high in the control dimension, they place many demands and restrictions on their children. On the other hand, if the parents score low in this dimension, they place less structure and fewer limits on their children (Levine & Munsch, 2010:521).

In this study the parents were quite controlling, in particular the female parents or guardians, where 52.2% and 57.9% of the children said that their male and female

parents/guardians respectively did not allow them out at night during the week, and 44.9% and 50.3% of students reported that their male and female parents/guardians respectively did not allow them out at night during a typical weekend. In addition to that, 18.4% and 27.7% of the children were allowed by their male parents/guardians and their female/parents/guardians, respectively, to stay out until 8 pm during the week. During weekends, these figures changed to 23.5% and 30.6% for the male parents/guardians and the female parents/guardians, respectively (see Table 5.8). If the relationship between the parents and the children is characterised by a high degree of control, this may lead to a lack of intrinsic motivation to succeed in school, and this in turn may lead to poor grades (see section 3.2.1.1).

5.3.1.3 The cognitive strategies the students use

If the students believed that they have the ability, they tend to report the use of cognitive, meta-cognitive, and effort-management strategies (Pintirch & De Groot, 1990:37).

In this study the students used the following cognitive strategies the most, namely practising by repeating important facts over and over in preparation for tests, trying to remember as many facts as possible when studying for a test, trying to understand what the teacher says even if it does not make sense, putting important ideas into their own words, and copying notes to try and remember the material. This indicates a strong emphasis on memorization as cognitive strategy. The method that was least used was outlining chapters in books, although it was still used by just more than 50% of the students (see Table 5.10). There existed a direct and significant correlation between elaboration and the students' achievement in mathematics (Fadlelmula, 2011:131).

5.3.1.4 The students' views of their self-regulation

If the students are high achievers, they tend to use self-regulatory strategies more than the low-achieving students, but no differences in their use of the cognitive strategy was found (Pintirch & De Groot, 1990:36).

In this study, Table 5.11 illustrates that the students particularly used the following meta-cognitive and effort-management strategies, namely working hard to get good grades, even if they did not like the classes; always listening when the teacher was talking; stopping once in a while to go over what was read; and thinking about the things that they needed to do to learn before they began to study. For all the statements listed, more than half of the students indicated that they generally applied these meta-cognitive and effort-management strategies (see Table 5.11). According to the literature, if the students are better equipped in meta-cognitive self-regulation strategies, they perform better in their listening comprehension tests (see section 3.3).

5.3.1.5 The children's views of parenting styles

When the parents' responsiveness and demands are considered, four parenting styles can be identified, namely authoritative (high both in responsiveness and demand); authoritarian (low in responsiveness, but high in demand); indulgent (high in responsiveness, but low in demand); and neglectful (low both in responsiveness and demand). (See section 1.2).

In this study, as shown by Table 5.12, the children perceived their parents to be: neglectful (34%), authoritative (27.9%), indulgent (20.5%) and authoritarian (17.4%) (see Table 5.12).This finding is contrary to the findings in a previous and much older study that indicated that either authoritative or authoritarian parenting styles are predominately exercised in Ethiopia (Seleshi & Sentayehu, 1998:7). This shows that the new generation of parents seems to have become more democratic in Ethiopia.

5.3.2 Research question 2: Parenting styles and SRL

Authoritative parents are responsive parents who give their children freedom and responsibility. They encourage individuality and independence that is age-appropriate. Authoritative parents aim to have children who are assertive, socially responsible, self-regulated, and cooperative. They also implement supportive methods, instead of using punitive methods, to maintain control, and to discipline their children (see section 2.2.2.2). In contrast, indulgent parents are highly responsive, with low levels of demand. They allow their children the freedom of decision-making, and a great deal of self-regulation can occur (see section 2.2.2.3).

An authoritarian parenting style is high in demand and low in responsiveness. The parents set limits, and expect their children to respect their orders without explaining the rationale for their decisions. They often discourage their children when they attempt to be autonomous. However, they try to shape their children to acquire attitudes and behaviours that the parents believe is desirable (see section 2.2.2.1).

Neglectful parents, on the other hand, are characterised by an adult-centred approach, where the parents give priority to their own personal needs above those of their children. The child-rearing practices of this type of parents neither have structure, nor any monitoring of their children. These parents make little contribution to the education of their children, or to the development of their character or competence (see section 2.2.2.4).

In this study the cognitive strategies and the SRL of the children whose parents were authoritative were significantly better than those of the children with authoritarian parents; the cognitive strategies and the SRL of the children whose parents were authoritative, were significantly better than those of the children with neglectful

parents, the cognitive strategies and the SRL of the children whose parents were indulgent, were significantly better than those of the children with neglectful parents.

This is in line with the findings in the literature regarding the relationship between parenting styles and SRL that determined that an authoritarian parenting style negatively correlates with SRL. There was also a slight negative correlation between a permissive parenting style and SRL (Huang & Prochner, 2004:234-235). This was due to the fact that human beings need love and acceptance. However, authoritarian and neglectful parents are not able to fulfill their children's needs because they are unresponsive to these needs. The result is that their children may be passive. They also have poor SRL abilities (Erden & Uredi, 2008:32).

In contrast to the above, the parents who are perceived to be democratic and warm (authoritative), have children who are more likely to feel autonomous in regulating their own academic behaviour (Hoang, 2007:15). Specifically, there is a positive correlation between the autonomy and self-regulation, competence and adjustment variables (Grolnick & Ryan, 1989:151).

Chen and Wang (2011:207) also found with Taiwanese students, that the children of authoritative parents scored higher in SRL than the children of indulgent, authoritarian and neglectful parents. The children of authoritarian and neglectful parents tended to be passive and indicated poor SRL abilities. However, in comparison with the children who had authoritarian and neglectful parents, the children of indulgent parents exhibited higher SRL. Erden and Uredi (2008) explained this by pointing out that authoritative and indulgent parents are responsive. Therefore, they deliberately foster individuality, self-regulation and self-assertion, by being attuned to and supportive of their children, and attempted to fulfil their children's needs (Baumrind, 1991:62). Other authors also found a strong positive correlation between an authoritative parenting style and SRL (Huang & Prochner, 2004:234). (See section 3.2.2.)

5.3.3 Research question 3: Parenting style and academic achievement

The study revealed that parenting style had no significant effect on the academic achievement of the students in this sample (see Table 5.17). It was found that the achievement scores of the students across the different types of parenting did not vary significantly. In other words, the children of authoritative, authoritarian, indulgent and neglectful parents had almost the same academic achievement scores.

In this regard the findings of the present study contradict those of some previous studies which indicated that different types of parenting styles played a decisive role in the children's academic achievement (e.g., Kazmi, Sajjid & Pervez, 2011:584). Authoritative mothers and fathers *positively* influenced their children's behaviour and academic achievement, whereas permissive or authoritarian mothers and fathers *negatively* influenced their children's behaviour and academic achievement (see section 3.2.1.1). Furthermore, studies that were conducted in Ethiopia (by Seleshi & Sentayehu, 1998:65; and Tilahun, 2002:81) found that the children of authoritative parents achieved academically better than the children of non-authoritative parents. In addition, the children's tendency to drop out from school was minimized by authoritative parenting rather than by neglectful parenting styles (Blondal & Adalbjarnardottir, 2009:743).

However, in line with the present study, a number of previous studies also found no significant relationship between perceived maternal and paternal permissive, authoritarian and authoritative parenting styles (Elias & Yee, 2009:186; Joshi, et al., 2003). Another study found that an authoritative parenting style predicted academic performance, but that there was no significant correlation between permissive or authoritarian parenting styles and academic performance (Turner, et al., 2009:343). Furthermore, the children did not differ significantly in their reading achievement because of the different types of parenting (Fakeye, 2008:212).

A factor that needs to be considered in evaluating the contradictory findings is the fact that the influence of parenting style on academic achievement may be different for lower grade children than for higher grade children (Glasgow, Dornbusch, Troyer, Steinberg, & Ritter, 1997:523; McBride-Chang & Chang, 1998:432-433). During adolescence children develop autonomous characteristics, so that the parents are less responsive and demanding in respect of their academic performance (Paulson & Sputa, 1996:378-379). Peer relationships now start to exert a strong effect on their everyday behaviour at school (Steinberg, Dornbusch, & Brown, in Elias & Yee, 2009: 187).

The effect of the age group of the respondents may also be why the findings from this study differ from those of previous studies in Ethiopia which were generally done with secondary school students (e.g., Abesha, 1997; Markos, 1996; Tilahun, 2002). That may be the reason why the relationship between the parenting style and academic achievement is different, as the students were from secondary schools. In this study the students were selected from *primary* schools.

5.3.4 Research question 4: SRL and academic achievement

This study indicated that there was a significant correlation between (a) self-regulation and cognitive strategies, and (b) average achievement and cognitive strategies. However, self-regulation did not significantly correlate with academic achievement (see Table 5.18).

The findings of this study contradict those of previous studies that indicated that there was a high positive correlation between self-regulation and academic performance (Pintrich & De Groot, 1990:38). In general, if the students are self-regulated learners, they indicate a high level of motivation, and adaptive learning methods. Therefore they are more likely to be successful in their academic work, and optimistic about

their futures. For example, they have the intention to pursue further education at higher education institutions (see section 3.3).

If the students are self-regulated learners, they select and use SRL strategies in order to achieve the intended learning outcomes by getting feedback about their learning effectiveness and skills (Zimmerman, 1990:6-7). In general, self-regulated students are students who are independent learners. They can manage their learning, plan and study ahead to score high marks in tests, and use applicable strategies to recall facts. Since the students are equipped with these kinds of abilities that enable them to be self-regulated, they achieve high academic outcomes (see section 2.3.1). The relationship between SRL and academic achievement has been found to be stronger than the relationship between parenting actions and academic achievement (Murphy, 2009:88).

The findings of this study are in line with those of a previous study by Shores and Shannon (2007:231), namely that there existed no significant correlation between SRL and the academic achievement of mathematics students. In addition to this, another study, by Fadlelmula (2011:131), found that meta-cognive strategies and mathematics achievement were not significantly related. Also, there was no direct relationship between meta-cognitive self-regulation and the total scores of the students (Al-Harthy, Was & Isaacson, 2010:15). Furthermore, Mousoulides and Philippou (2005:327) determined a slight negative correlation between SRL strategies and academic achievement in mathematics. (See section 3.3.)

As indicated, the present study also found no significant correlation between SRL and academic achievement, even though it determined a significant (but low) correlation between cognitive strategies and academic achievement. The reason may be the fact that, since the students' use of strategies were assessed by self-report only, they may not have been objective about their own SRL. In reality, they may use SRL strategies to a limited extent. In addition to this, in Ethiopia the traditional lecture method is still

being used predominantly (Derebssa, 2006:137). Therefore, the students may not have much opportunity for self-regulation.

5.3.5 Research question 5: Parenting style and average achievement with SRL as co-variant

In this study the relationship between parenting style and achievement with self-regulation as a co-variant was *not* significant. This finding differs from what was found in previous studies, as explained in the literature review. For example, a number of authors found that parental involvement activities were significantly related to variables that were important for learning (e.g., attitude, perception of competence and self-regulation). This implied that parental involvement could affect academic achievement by affecting SRL (Hoover-Dempsey, et al., 2001:206; Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1995:329). In one such a study, Xu et al., (2010:257) investigated the relationship between parental involvement, SRL and reading achievement. It was found that three dimensions of parental involvement fostered the SRL of fifth graders, namely parental education expectations, school involvement, and support with homework. The education expectations of the parents had the strongest beneficial effect on SRL. They suggested that SRL was a co-variant of the relationship between parental involvement and reading achievement (see section 3.4).

However, the relationship between parenting style and achievement with cognitive strategies as a co-variant was significant. This is in accordance with a number of studies referred to in the literature review (see section 3.4).

5.4 SUMMARY

The aim of the study was to investigate the relationship between parenting style, SRL and academic achievement.

The major findings were the following:

Most of the children perceived their male and female parents to score high in acceptance. In addition to this, compared to their male parents/guardians, the female parents/guardians scored higher in parental acceptance. The same was true for parental control. Therefore, the female parents determined the rules. However, when the dimension of acceptance and control were interacted, a third of the children perceived their parents as neglectful, and about 28%, as authoritative.

The students generally reported a high use of cognitive strategies, in particular those that focus on memorization. The students also generally reported a high use of SRL, in particular to get good grades, and in listening to the teacher. There was a significant relationship between parenting style and SRL. The children who perceived their parents as authoritative, used significantly better cognitive strategies and SRL than the children who saw their parents as authoritarian or neglectful, and the children who evaluated their parents as indulgent, used significantly better SRL strategies than the children who saw their parents as being neglectful.

There was no significant relationship between parenting style and academic achievement. Moreover, there was no significant correlation between SRL and average achievement. However, cognitive strategy correlated positively with SRL and academic achievement. The relationship between parenting style and achievement with self-regulation as a co-variant was not significant.

In the next chapter the conclusions of the study will be presented. Some limitations will be pointed out, and recommendations will also be formulated.

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND LIMITATIONS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

In chapter 5 the results of the study were presented in 23 tables and 11 figures. The results were also critically discussed in the light of the theoretical framework, and were summarised.

In chapter 6 the conclusions of the study are presented. The conclusions answer the five specific research questions stated in chapter 1 (see section 1.3), and thus focus on the following, namely

Selected Ethiopian, (upper) primary school children's views on

- parental acceptance, parental control, the cognitive strategies they use, their self-regulation, and their parents' parenting styles;
- the relationship between parenting style and SRL;
- the relationship between parenting style and academic achievement;
- the relationship between SRL and academic achievement; and
- to what extent SRL moderates the relationship between parenting style and academic achievement.

Some limitations of the present study are pointed out, and recommendations are formulated. The significance of the study is also delineated, and finally, the study is summarised.

The conclusions in respect of the study follow in the next section. In each instance, the research question and hypothesis (if any) is re-stated, and conclusions are drawn from the results.

6.2 CONCLUSIONS

6.2.1 Research question 1

> *What are the children's views on parental acceptance, parental control, the cognitive strategies they use, their self-regulated learning and the parenting styles of their parents?*

Regarding *parental acceptance*, most of the children experienced parental acceptance. They perceived their female parents/guardians as higher in acceptance than their male parents/guardians. The best levels of acceptance were in respect of the following, namely "When I get a poor grade at school, my parents encourage me to try harder", "I can count on my parents to help me if I have some kind of a problem", and "My parents keep pushing me to do my best in whatever I do". The poorest level of acceptance lies with "My parents spend time just talking to me". (See section 5.2.2.)

With regard to *parental control*, the female parents/guardians seem to control their children more than the male parents/guardians. In general, the female parents/guardians tried harder than the male parents/guardians to know, or really knew, whether their children went to school or not, and where the children spend their time after school. However, the children also believed that neither their male nor their female parents really knew where they spent their leisure time. This is in spite of the fact that nearly half of the male parents/guardians and more than half of the female parents/guardians tried to know *where* their children spent their time. (See section 5.2.3.)

In rank-order, the children perceived their parents to be neglectful, authoritative, indulgent and authoritarian. This indicates that parenting styles in Ethiopia is changing. In previous generations the main parenting style was authoritarian or authoritative. (See section 5.2.6.)

In respect of the *cognitive strategies* the students used, they mostly made use of the following five cognitive strategies, namely practising by repeating important facts over and over; trying to remember as many facts as possible when studying for a test; trying to understand what the teacher says even if it does not make sense; putting important ideas in their own words; and copying notes to try and remember the material. This shows a strong emphasis on memorization. The method that was least used was outlining the chapters in books. (See section 5.2.4.)

Regarding *self-regulated learning*, the students used the following meta-cognitive and effort-management strategies, namely working hard to get good grades even if they did not like the mathematics classes; always listening when the teacher was talking; stopping once in a while to go over what was read; and thinking about the things that they needed to do to learn before they began to study. For all eight statements more than half of the sample indicated that they generally applied these strategies. (See section 5.2.5.)

6.2.2 Research question 2

> *What is the relationship between the parenting styles and SRL (cognitive strategies and self-regulation) of (upper) primary school students in selected Ethiopian schools?*

Hypothesis 2

There are significant differences between the SRL (cognitive style and student self-regulation) of children with parents with different parenting styles (authoritative, authoritarian, indulgent, and neglectful).

The above hypothesis can thus be accepted. (See section 5.2.7.1)

For both cognitive strategies and SRL, the means were from high to low (best to poorest), in the following order as regards parental style, namely authoritative, indulgent, authoritarian, and finally, neglectful.

Moreover,

- the cognitive strategies of the children whose parents are authoritative are significantly better than those of the children with authoritarian parents;
- the cognitive strategies of the children whose parents are authoritative are significantly better than those of the children with neglectful parents;
- the cognitive strategies of children whose parents are indulgent, are significantly better than those of the children with neglectful parents.

6.2.3 Research question 3

What is the relationship between parenting styles and the academic achievement of (upper) primary school students in selected Ethiopian schools?

Hypothesis 3

There are significant differences between the academic achievement of the children of parents with different parenting styles (authoritative, authoritarian, indulgent, and neglectful).

The above hypothesis can thus not be accepted. (See section 5.2.7.2)

The means for average achievement were, in rank-order from best to poorest as follows: authoritarian, neglectful, authoritative and finally, indulgent. However, the differences between the means were not significant. The children, on average, achieved academically more or less the same, regardless of the parenting styles of their parents.

6.2.4 Research question 4

> *Is there a significant relationship between SRL and the academic achievement of upper primary school students?*

Hypothesis 4
There is a significant correlation between SRL and the academic achievement of upper primary school students.

The hypothesis can be accepted for the correlation between self-regulation and cognitive strategies (this correlation is a high positive correlation), and between average achievement and cognitive strategies (this correlation is a low positive correlation). (See section 5.2.7.3)

It can thus be concluded that if the student's self-regulation increases, his/her cognitive strategies also increase, and vice versa - when the cognitive strategies improve, so does the average achievement.

6.2.5 Research question 5

Do SRL and cognitive strategies moderate the relationship between parenting style and the academic achievement of upper primary school students?

Hypothesis 5

Parenting style is significantly related to achievement and moderated by SRL (SRL and cognitive strategies as co-variants).

The hypothesis cannot be accepted for SRL, but it can be accepted for cognitive strategies. (See section 5.2.7.4)

The relationship between parenting style and achievement with self-regulation as a co-variant, is *not* significant. While the relationship between self-regulation and achievement approaches significance, the practical effect of this relationship is small. However, parenting style is significantly related to achievement and moderated by cognitive strategy.

6.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

6.3.1 Recommendations related to the research questions

The schools should present programmes on parental involvement to the parents.

- The parents or guardians should be made aware of the importance of spending more time merely talking to their children in order to make them feel accepted.

- The *male* parents or guardians, in particular, should become more involved with their children.
- Workshops can be held with all the parents on the different parenting styles in order that that they may be able to identify their own styles. They should be made aware of the harmful effects of a neglectful parenting style.
- The parents should be made aware of what an authoritative parenting style is, and of the positive impact of an authoritative parenting style for cognitive strategies and SRL.

Regarding cognitive strategies and SRL:

- The students should be given programmes on study skills so that they can learn more meaningfully, and not to rely on memorisation that much. Student self-regulation should also be promoted. If the student's self-regulation increases, his or her cognitive strategies will also increase, and vice versa - when the cognitive strategies improve, so does the student's average achievement.
- SRL in students can be promoted as follows (Moseki & Schulze, 2010):
  (i) *Forethought* (establishing the basis for learning): The students should be supported to set learning goals and to plan well to reach these goals; their self-motivation beliefs will be enhanced if they can see the value of tasks and if tasks are interesting to them.
  (ii) *Performance* (helping students to focus on tasks and perform optimally): The students should be trained in self-instruction, focusing their attention, and managing the strategies needed for certain tasks; they should also be supported for self-recording of their progress and for self-experimentation.
  (iii) *Self-reflection* (processes that occur after learning has taken place): Students should be trained in self-evaluation, and in identifying possible causes of failure.
- The teacher's teaching methods should facilitate meaningful learning, and develop effective cognitive strategies and SRL in the students. To this end,

workshops should be held for teachers on teaching and learning methods. The schools can facilitate this.

6.3.2 Recommendations for further research

Several recommendations can be made for further research.

Firstly, the achievement of students, which is very complex and affected by various factors, needs further investigation. For example, conducting research on the relationships between parenting styles, motivational beliefs, SRL strategies, the teachers' roles in the development of SRL and academic achievement, may contribute to the efforts made to improve the students' academic achievement.

Secondly, the study included only SRL, such as cognitive strategies, meta-cognitive strategies and effort-management strategies. Future research should include motivational beliefs, and other SRL strategies, such as critical thinking, peer learning, help-seeking and time-management strategies.

Thirdly, research should be done using longitudinal methods, to understand the complex relationship among the different variables.

Fourthly, in this study the data-collection method was a self-report questionnaire, which may not have provided an accurate picture of the students' self-regulation, cognitive strategy-use and the parents' parenting style. Therefore, multiple instruments should be used in future research projects, for example, qualitative methods such as interviews, and the observations of both the teachers and students may give insight into the inter-relationships of the variables.

Fifthly, the sampling method used here was a convenience and purposive sampling one. By means of this method the students were selected from one region, specifically the town of Hawasa. Therefore it is difficult to generalise the results.

Future research should include at least four regions. The sampling method should also be stratified, and include students from different regions.

6.4 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The study has the following major limitations:

In the first place, the sample was a convenience and purposive sample of upper primary school students in South Ethiopia, particularly Hawasa. The students were selected from two classes in five schools. The two classes were selected randomly from each school. This may inhibit generalising the results beyond the setting.

In the second place, the data on parenting styles and self-regulated learning were collected by means of self-report questionnaires. However, the children may not have been objective regarding their perceptions of their parents' parenting styles and the SRL strategies they use.

6.5 CONTRIBUTION OF THE STUDY

Although the study has some limitations, it has practical implications for students' learning. The data of this study confirmed that parents and teachers can significantly influence their children's learning directly or indirectly.

The study succeeded in identifying a number of important issues for teaching and learning in Hawasa, that may also be applicable to other regions. One main issue was the non-involvement of parents, in particular the male parents or guardians, that needs to be addressed. The study indicated that a significant number of children view their parents as neglectful. This is an important finding.

The study also succeeded in identifying memorization as the main study method. This points to a lack of effective study skills by the students in general. In addition, it probably relates to the particular teaching and assessment methods that the teachers generally use. This is also a significant finding.

Another very important finding is that parenting style is significantly related to achievement, and moderated by cognitive strategy.

6.6 SUMMARY

The main research question was, namely

> *Are there significant relationships between parenting styles, SRL and the academic achievement of (upper) primary school students in Ethiopia?*

Based on the above main research question, the following specific research questions were formulated:

- What are the views of (upper) primary school children in selected Ethiopian schools on parental acceptance, parental control, the cognitive strategies they use, their self-regulated learning, and the parenting styles of their parents?
- What is the relationship between parenting styles and SRL (cognitive strategies and self-regulation)?
- What is the relationship between parenting styles and the academic achievement of (upper) primary school students in selected Ethiopian schools?
- Is there a significant relationship between SRL and academic achievement of (upper) primary school students?
- Does self-regulated learning moderate the relationship of parenting styles and academic achievement?

A literature study on parenting style, SRL and academic achievement was undertaken. For the empirical research, the ex post facto research used a correlational design. It was also exploratory and descriptive. Data were collected by means of a self-report questionnaire, while the academic achievement of the students was gained from official records. The questionnaire was completed by 477 students. Two classes in each of five schools in Hawasa, Ethiopia, were randomly selected.

The analysis of the data was conducted, using descriptive, correlation, and ANOVA tests.

The major findings were the following, namely

Most of the children experienced parental acceptance, in particular from their female parents/guardians. The best levels of acceptance were with, “When I get a poor grade at school, my parents encourage me to try harder”, “I can count on my parents to help me if I have some kind of a problem” and, “My parents keep pushing me to do my best in whatever I do”. However, it was clear that the parents seldom spent time merely talking to their children. The female parents/guardians seemed to control their children better than the male parents/guardians, and were more involved with their children. However, the children also believed that their parents/guardians did not really know how they spent their leisure time. The children mostly perceived their parents to be neglectful.

Regarding cognitive strategies, the students particularly made use of memorization. The cognitive strategies of the children whose parents were authoritative, were significantly better than those of the other children. If the student’s self-regulation increased, his or her cognitive strategies also increased and vice versa - when the cognitive strategies improved, so did the average achievement. The parenting style was significantly related to achievement and, at the same time, moderated by the cognitive strategy.

The researcher made a number of recommendations for improved practice and for future research. Certain limitations were pointed out. Finally, the contribution of the study was highlighted.

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APPENDIX A

QUESTIONNAIRE

PARENTING STYLES AND MOTIVATED STRATEGIES FOR LEARNING

		Sect.

V1

Questionnaire on parenting styles

This questionnaire has two parts. The purpose of the questionnaire is to measure parenting style. The information obtained with the questionnaire is helpful for investigating the interrelationship among parenting style, self-regulated learning and academic achievement. Results of the study will pinpoint the ways in which parents or caregivers can facilitate development of self-regulation in students' learning and make their children high achievers .The information you provide is highly confidential. Therefore, please try to answer the questions that follow in a way that you think is right for you.

Thank you in advance for your cooperation.

Part One

Here are some items about students' background information and family characteristics. In some of them, you are required to write the necessary information on the blank space provided. When the questions are in the form of choice, please indicate your response by circling the appropriate answer(s).

Name_____

1. Ethnicity:

Hadiya	1	
Sidama	2	
Welaita	3	
Amhara	4	
Oromo	5	
Tigrie	6	
Guragie	7	
Other	8	V2

2. Sex:

Boy	1	
Girl	2	V3

3. Age

10	1	
11	2	
12	3	
13	4	
14 and above	5	V4

4. Which parents or guardian do you live with?

Both natural parents	1	
Only natural mother	2	
Natural mother and stepfather	3	
Only natural father	4	
Natural father and stepmother	5	
Other (specify)_____	6	V5

5. What is the highest level of education completed by your mother / female guardian?

Illiterate	1	
Elementary school	2	
Secondary school	3	
Any training after high school graduation	4	V6

6. What is the highest level of education completed by your father / male guardian?

Illiterate	1	
Elementary school	2	
Secondary school	3	
Any training after high school graduation	4	V7

Part Two

This part contains nine statements. For these statements you indicate the degree of your agreement to each of the statements by circling one of the four alternative numbers given. The numbers indicate,1 strongly disagree, 2 disagree, 3 agree, and 4 strongly agree.

	Statement	**Male parent/guardian**				**Female parent/Guardian**				**Office use**
1.	I can count on my parents to help me out, if I have some kind of problem.	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	V8,9
2.	My parents keep pushing me to do my best in whatever I do.	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	V10,11
3.	My parents allow me to tell them if I think my ideas are better than theirs.	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	V12,13
4.	My parents always speak to me with a warm and friendly voice.	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	V14,15
5.	When my parents want me to do something, they explain why.	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	V16,17
6.	When I get a poor grade in school, my parents encourage me to try harder	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	V18,19
7.	My parents know who my friends are.	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	V20,21

The numbers indicate,1 strongly disagree, 2 disagree, 3 agree, and 4 strongly agree.

	Statement	Male parent/guardian	Female parent/Guardian	Office use
8.	My parents spend time just talking with me.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4	V22, 23
9.	My parents enjoy staying home with me more than going out with friends.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4	V24, 25

This part contains 10 questions. For each of the following questions choose the number of your choice provided for each of them.

	Statement	Male parent/guardian	Female parent/Guardian	Office use
10.	In a typical weekday the latest time my parents allow me to stay out during the night.	1 = I am not allowed out 2 = 8 pm 3 = 8 - 9 pm 4 = 9 - 10 pm 5 = 10 - 11 pm 6 = 11 - 12 pm 7 = Anytime	1 = I am not allowed out 2 = 8 pm 3 = 8 - 9 pm 4 = 9 - 10 pm 5 = 10 - 11 pm 6 = 11 - 12 pm 7 = Anytime	V26, 27
11.	In a typical weekend, the latest time my parents allow me to stay out during the night.	1 = I am not allowed out 2 = 8 pm 3 = 8 - 9 pm 4 = 9 - 10 pm 5 = 10 - 11 pm 6 = 11 - 12 pm 7 = Anytime	1 = I am not allowed out 2 = 8 pm 3 = 8 - 9 pm 4 = 9 - 10 pm 5 = 10 - 11 pm 6 = 11 - 12 pm 7 = Anytime	V28, 29

For each of the following questions choose the number of your choice provided for each of them.

	Statement	Male parent/guardian	Female parent/Guardian	Office use
12.	How much do your parents **try** to know whether you go to school or not?	1 = Doesn't try. 2 = Tries a little 3 = Tries a lot	1 = Doesn't try. 2 = Tries a little 3 = Tries a lot	V30, 31
13.	How much do your parents **try** to know what you do with your free time?	1 = Doesn't try. 2 = Tries a little 3 = Tries a lot	1 = Doesn't try. 2 = Tries a little 3 = Tries a lot	V32, 33
14.	How much do your parents **try** to know where you spend your time after school?	1 = Doesn't try. 2 = Tries a little 3 = Tries a lot	1 = Doesn't try. 2 = Tries a little 3 = Tries a lot	V34, 35
15.	How much do your parents **try** to know what you do with your money (when you have)?	1 = Doesn't try. 2 = Tries a little 3 = Tries a lot	1 = Doesn't try. 2 = Tries a little 3 = Tries a lot	V36, 37
16.	How much do your parents **really** know whether you go to school or not.	1 = Doesn't try. 2 = Tries a little 3 = Tries a lot	1 = Doesn't try. 2 = Tries a little 3 = Tries a lot	V38, 39
17.	How much do your parents **really** know what you do with your free time?	1 = Doesn't try. 2 = Tries a little 3 = Tries a lot	1 = Doesn't try. 2 = Tries a little 3 = Tries a lot	V40, 41
18..	Do your parents **really** know where you spend your time after school?	1 = Doesn't try. 2 = Tries a little 3 = Tries a lot	1 = Doesn't try. 2 = Tries a little 3 = Tries a lot	V42, 43
19.	Do your parents **really** know what you do with your money (when you have)?	1 = Doesn't try. 2 = Tries a little 3 = Tries a lot	1 = Doesn't try. 2 = Tries a little 3 = Tries a lot	V44, 45

Questionnaire on self-regulated learning

This part contains 22 statements. Please indicate how true each statements by circling **one** of the five numbers given. The numbers have the following meaning.

1 = Never true of me

1 =Seldom true of me

2 =Sometimes true of me

3 = Generally true of me

4 = Always true of me

1.	When I study for tests, I try to put together information from class and from books.	1	2	3	4	5	V46
2.	When I do homework, I try to remember what the teacher said in class so that I can answer the questions correctly.	1	2	3	4	5	V47
3.	It is easy for me to decide what the main ideas are in what I read.	1	2	3	4	5	V48
4.	When I study I put important ideas into my own words.	1	2	3	4	5	V49
5.	I always try to understand what the teacher is saying even if it does not make sense.	1	2	3	4	5	V50
6.	When I study for a test I try to remember as many facts as I can.	1	2	3	4	5	V51
7.	When studying, I copy my notes over to help me remember material.	1	2	3	4	5	V52
8.	When I study for a test I practice saying the important facts over and over to myself.	1	2	3	4	5	V53
9.	I use what I have learned from old homework assignments and textbooks to do new assignments	1	2	3	4	5	V54
10.	When I am studying a topic, I try to make everything fit together.	1	2	3	4	5	V55
11.	When I read material for math class, I say the words over and over to myself to help me remember	1	2	3	4	5	V56
12	I outline the chapters in my book to help me study.	1	2	3	4	5	V57
13.	When reading I try to connect the things I am reading about with what I already know.	1	2	3	4	5	V58
14.	I ask myself questions to make sure I know the material I have been studying.	1	2	3	4	5	V59
15.	Even when work is hard, I keep on trying.	1	2	3	4	5	V60
16.	I work on practice exercises and answer end of						

	chapter questions even if I don't have to.	1	2	3	4	5	V61
17.	Even when study materials are uninteresting, I keep working until I am finished.	1	2	3	4	5	V62
18.	Before I begin studying I think about the things I will need to do to learn.	1	2	3	4	5	V63
19.	I make sure that I understand what I read for math class.	1	2	3	4	5	V64
20.	I always listen when the teacher is talking.	1	2	3	4	5	V65
21.	When I'm reading I stop once in a while and go over what I have read.	1	2	3	4	5	V66
22.	I work hard to get a good grade even I don't like math class.	1	2	3	4	5	V67

Types of schools 1 2 3 4 5

Office use

Average achievement			V68

APPENDIX B

LETTER OF PERMISSION

To whom it may concern

I, Mr TM Tsemrekal (student number 4543-443-3), is a D Ed student at the University of South Africa. I am doing a thesis with the title: Relationships between parenting style, self-regulated learning and academic achievement in terms of selected upper primary school students in Ethiopia.

I hereby request permission to make use of items applicable to my study which I found in the appendix of your article: Patterns of Competence and Adjustment among Adolescents from Authoritative, Authoritarian, Indulgent, and Neglectful Families (Child Development, 1991, volume 62).

Yours sincerely,

Mr..Tigist Merha Tsemrekal

Hello, yes that is fine. Our measures are open for other researchers to use.

Susie Lamborn

----- Original Message -----
From: "TIGIST MERHA" <tigtsem@yahoo.com>
To: slamborn@uwm.edu
Sent: Tuesday, March 27, 2012 1:12:22 AM

You can download the parenting scale from my website.

Laurence Steinberg
Distinguished University Professor
Laura H. Carnell Professor of Psychology
Department of Psychology
Weiss Hall
1701 N. 13th Street
Temple University
Philadelphia, PA 19122
215-204-7485 (voice)
215-204-5539 (fax)
lds@temple.edu
www.temple.edu/psychology/lds

Dear Mr. Tsemrekal,

Thank you for your interest in our measure. You are welcome to use the measure provided you cite the source of the measure in your written work.

Best of luck in your academic endeavors.

Sincerely,

Nina Mounts
Nina S. Mounts, Ph.D.
Associate Professor
Department of Psychology
Northern Illinois University
DeKalb, IL 60115
Phone (815)753-6968
FAX (815)753-8088
Email nmounts@niu.edu

APPENDIX C

ETHICAL CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE

UNISA college of education

Research Ethics Clearance Certificate

This is to certify that the application for ethical clearance submitted by

TM Tsemrekal (45434433)

for a D Ed study entitled

The relationship of parenting style, self-regulated learning and academic achievement in terms of some selected upper primary schools in Ethiopia

has met the ethical requirements as specified by the University of South Africa College of Education Research Ethics Committee. This certificate is valid for two years from the date of issue.

Prof CS le Roux
CEDU REC (Chairperson)
lrouxcs@unisa.ac.za

19 October 2012

Reference number: 2012 SEPT/ 45435227/CSLR

APPENDIX D

LETTER FOR INFORMED CONSENT

FACULTY OF SOCIAL SCIENCE
ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY
P.O. BOX 150 129
ADDIS ABABA
ETHIOPIA

Dear ……,

I hereby request permission to allow your child to fulfil the parenting style and self-regulated questionnaires and use his/her academic records for analysis in a study by Mr Tigist Merha Tsemrekal to determine the relationship of parenting style, self-regulated learning and academic achievement in terms of 400 selected upper primary schools learners in Ethiopia using stratified sampling. The questionnaires which will be administered during class will take 45' to complete. The main aim of the research is not only to provide useful and updated information concerning the appropriate parenting style for promoting self-regulated learning and academic achievement but also to help parents to gear their parenting in a way that enables their children to improve their achievement through the enhancement of their self-regulated learning effort. The results of the investigation will also be informed you by arranging a meeting if you are willing to give permission to your child to fulfill the parenting style and self-regulated questionnaires and use his/her academic record. I will take the necessary measures to ensure that the findings stay anonymous and that your child's privacy is not intruded. I do not think that this research will cause any risks or discomfort to the participants, and the research is approved by the Research Ethical Committee of the College of Education.

If you are willing to allow your child to participate in the study and allow me to use his/her academic record, please sign the letter of consent and provide me the consent letter. Since your child participation is completely voluntary, you do not have

to think that he/she can feel it is compulsory. He/she has the right to not participate in the survey, and to stop the participation at any point.

Please send the letter back to me by your child.

Yours sincerely,

Mr. Tigist Merha Tsemrekal

Doctorial Student at UNISA

Educational Psychology

DIS8615

Signature Date

I, …… parent of …….. hereby give consent that my child may participate in a study by Mr Tigist Merha Tsemrekal to determine the relationship of parenting style, self-regulated learning and academic achievement in terms of some selected upper primary schools in Ethiopia.

…… ……

Signature Date

APPENDIX E

LETTER FOR PERMISSION FROM THE RELEVANT BODIES

HEAD OF DISTRICT OF EDUCATION OFFICE
Hawasa
P.O.BOX 14326
ETHIOPIA

Dear ……,

I have given my permission to allow learners to participate in a study by Mr Tigist Merha Tsemrekal to determine the relationship of parenting style, self-regulated learning and academic achievement in terms of 400 selected upper primary schools learners in Ethiopia that are found in my schools and use their academic records for analysis. I know that the main aim with the research is to provide useful and updated information concerning the appropriate parenting style for promoting self-regulated learning and academic achievement and help parents to gear their parenting in a way that enables their children to improve their achievement through the enhancement of their self-regulated learning effort. I hope one time the results of the investigation will be sent to me on request. I also hope that the researcher will take the necessary measures to ensure that the findings stay anonymous and that our students' privacy is not intruded. I do not think that this research will cause any risks or discomfort to the participants as the research is approved by the Research Ethical Committee of the College of Education.

Since I am willing to allow my students to fulfill the parenting style and self-regulated questionnaires and allow you to use their academic record, you can come to our schools and collect your data at any time.

Yours sincerely,
Mr. Habtu Hilu
Head of District of Education Office

Signature Date

APPENDIX F

MEMO TO THE INSTITUTION REQUESTING PERMISSION TO CONDUCT THE STUDY

FACULTY OF SOCIAL SCIENCE
ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY
P.O.BOX 150 129
ADDIS ABABA
ETHIOPIA

Dear ……,

I hereby request permission to allow learners to participate in a study by Mr Tigist Merha Tsemrekal to determine the relationship of parenting style, self-regulated learning and academic achievement in terms of 400 selected upper primary schools learners in Ethiopia that are found in your school and use their academic records for analysis. The main aim with the research is not only to provide useful and updated information concerning the appropriate parenting style for promoting self-regulated learning and academic achievement, but also to help parents to gear their parenting in a way that enables their children to improve their achievement through the enhancement of their self-regulated learning effort. The results of the investigation will also be sent to you if you are willing to give permission to your students to fulfil the parenting style and self-regulated questionnaires and use their academic record. I will take the necessary measures to ensure that the findings stay anonymous and that your students' privacy is not intruded. I do not think that this research will cause any risks or discomfort to the participants and the research is approved by the Research Ethical Committee of the College of Education.

If you are willing to allow your students to fulfil the parenting style and self-regulated questionnaires and allow me to use their academic record, I can easily conduct my study in the school. Please send me back the letter by P.O. BOX 150129, ADDIS ABABA, ETHIOPIA.

Yours sincerely,

Mr. Tigist Merha Tsemrekal

Signature Date

APPENDIX G

STATEMENT OF INFORMED CONSENT

You are kindly requested to participate in a study with aim to determine the relationship of parenting style, self-regulated learning and academic achievement in terms of some selected upper primary schools in Ethiopia. Students are selected at this age for the study because they were found in middle childhood or adolescence stage. During this stage, learners can practice self-regulation highly and builds early foundation which is more important during later in their school years. Two types of questionnaires will be administered during class by the researcher which will be scheduled by negotiating with the class teachers (If there are students who do not participate in a study, the teachers will tell them to stay out until the other students complete the questionnaires) and you will be told to give response to questionnaires which take 45' to complete. Therefore, if you agree, you can sign on the assent form.

I, _____, (full name) hereby give permission to participate in the research process by completing the questionnaires

I understand that the following aspects will be considered:

1. All information gathered through the study will be kept confidential by the researcher.
2. Whenever I get questions that make me uncomfortable, I am free to refuse even after I decide to participate in the study.
3. There is no way that I can get gift to participate
4. My participation is voluntary.
5. I can withdraw at any time if I do not want to participate any longer without any consequences.
6. I can discuss with my parents/guardians before I sign the form.
7. The researcher must get permission from my parents/guardians before he asks me to sign the agreement.
8. My parents/guardians will receive a copy of the signed form.

9. The information contributes to the research process

Consent signature

…… ……

Signature student Date

…….. ……..

Signature researcher Date

Faculty of Social Science
Addis Ababa University
P.O. Box 150 129
Addis Ababa
Ethiopia