

THE INFLUENCES OF PARENTING STYLES ON CHILDREN'S CLASSROOM  
MOTIVATION

A Thesis

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## ABSTRACT

This study was part of a larger, longitudinal project investigating the relationships between family stress processes and children's development. The purpose of the current study was to examine the relationship between authoritarian, permissive, and authoritative parenting styles and children's classroom motivation as measured by child interviews and teacher perceptions.

The population of this study included 281 first and third grade students and their parents in a mid-sized Southern city. Parenting styles data for this study were collected via mailed questionnaires consisting of the Primary Caregivers Practices Report (Robinson et al., 1995) and questions used to obtain demographic information. Motivation data were collected via child interviews using the Self-Report Scale of Intrinsic versus Extrinsic Motivation in the Classroom (Harter, 1981) and the Teacher-Report Scale of Intrinsic versus Extrinsic Motivation in the Classroom (Harter, 1981), which was given to teachers to complete.

Correlation analyses were performed to determine which demographic characteristics should be used as control variables. Regression analyses were performed to examine the relationship between parenting styles and children's classroom motivation. In general, the results of the current study did not support the researcher's expectations that the authoritative parenting style would be positively related to children's intrinsic motivation, and authoritarian and permissive parenting styles would be negatively related to children's intrinsic motivation. The results were inconclusive. As expected by the researcher, mothers' authoritative parenting was found to be positively related to first graders' mastery motivation, fathers' authoritarian parenting was found to be negatively related to first graders' mastery motivation, and mothers' permissive parenting was negatively related to teachers' perceptions of children's classroom

motivation. Contrary to the researcher's expectations, fathers' authoritarian parenting was found to be positively related to third graders' mastery motivation and teachers' perceptions of children's classroom motivation.

## CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION

“There is no way in which parents can evade having a determining effect upon their children’s personality, character, and competence” (Baumrind, 1978, p. 239). The functions of parenting greatly influence how children develop (Arendell, 1997). One important task of parenting is the socialization of children. This task requires parental expectations and guidance that change with the development of the child to encourage positive child outcomes. The socially competent child can be described as possessing independence, social responsibility, vigor, and achievement orientation, which is the drive to seek intellectual challenges and solve problems efficiently and with persistence (Baumrind, 1978). Achievement orientation is more simply described as motivation. The role of parenting cannot be overlooked when assessing the development of motivation in children (Harter, 1978).

A great deal of literature published before the 1990s examined the effects of parenting styles on children’s outcomes, particularly establishing the benefits to children of authoritative parenting as opposed to the negative outcomes produced by authoritarian and permissive parenting (Demo & Cox, 2000). More recently, studies of parenting styles have examined the adequacy of traditional parenting style ideologies in describing minority groups (Abell, Clawson, Washington, Bost, & Vaughn, 1996; Bloir, 1997; Chao, 1995). Abell et al. (1996) and Bloir (1997) investigated the effectiveness of describing African American families with traditional parenting styles, while Chao (1995) examined East Asian families in light of traditional parenting styles. All three studies found that the traditional parenting style ideologies were not adequate to describe the effects of parenting and parent-child interactions of minority families. Other studies have attempted to establish a relationship between the correlates of parenting

styles and cultures outside of the United States (Dekovic & Garris, 1992; Rohner, Kean, & Cournoyer, 1991).

The quality of parent-child interactions has been shown to influence the development of children's motivation. Messer's study (1993) indicated that a mother's level of warmth, responsiveness, and acceptance was strongly related to the development of effectance motivation in young children. Effectance motivation is the tendency to interact with and master the environment (White, 1959). Intrinsic motivation (Harter, 1981) is one aspect that characterizes effectance motivation and is considered in this study.

The purpose of this study is to investigate the relationship between family processes and children's classroom motivation using families with children in first and third grades in a large school district in a mid-size Southern city. Parenting styles, one aspect of family processes, moderate the effects of specific parenting practices on children's developmental outcomes (Cummings, Davies, & Campbell, 2000). Specific parenting practices influence the development of children's motivational orientations (Deci & Ryan, 1987; Ginsburg & Bronstein, 1993; Gottfried, Fleming, & Gottfried, 1998), and motivational orientations influence children's academic achievement and school-related competence (Boggiano, Main, & Katz, 1988; Gottfried, 1985; 1990). The age group included in the present study has been understudied, and this topic has not generated much research. Because most of the existing studies that examine the relationship between family processes and children's classroom motivation are comprised of families with adolescents (e.g. Leung & Kwan, 1998; Leung, Lau, & Lam, 1998; Wentzel, 1998), there is a need to study families with younger children to allow parents to understand their children's classroom motivation in light of their own parenting practices and to fully realize the implications of these practices on their children's current and future academic success. It is

possible that this age group has been neglected because this is a slower period of development so child outcomes are not as apparent as in adolescence.

### Theoretical Framework

Belsky's (1984) model of the determinants of parenting was developed based on studies of child maltreatment. It examined the factors that influence parenting and, consequently, child outcomes, and it sought to answer the question of 'why do parents parent the way they do?'

Belsky (1984) stated that "the determinants of parenting shape childrearing, which in turn influences child development" (p. 84).

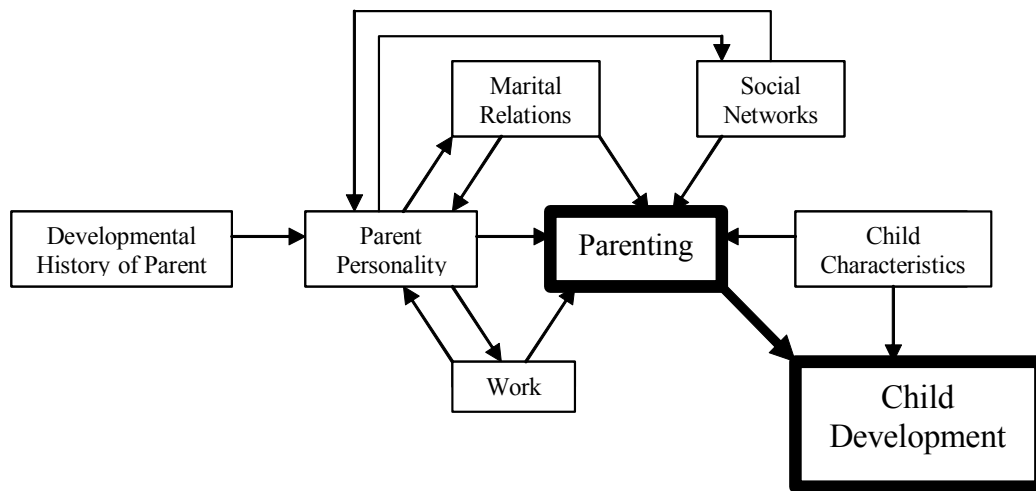


Figure 1. Belsky's (1984) Model of the Determinants of Parenting

The model of the determinants of parenting contains three domains of determinants: (1) the personal psychological resources of the parents; (2) the characteristics of the child; and (3) contextual sources of stress and support, that include the marital relations, the social networks, and the occupational experiences of parents (Belsky, 1994). Recent research has indicated the need to include goodness-of-fit between parent and child as a fourth determinant in the model

(Bogenschneider, Small, & Tsay, 1997). Goodness-of-fit is a term used to describe how well or how poorly the parent's personality meshes with the child's characteristics. For example, a patient mother would be a good fit with a baby with cholera, whereas a depressed mother would not be a good fit.

Belsky, Robins, and Gamble (1984) define competent parenting as "the style of child rearing that enables the developing person to acquire the capacities required for dealing effectively with the ecological niches that she or he will inhabit during childhood, adolescence, and adulthood" (p. 251). Competent parenting has been found to be related to warmer, more accepting, and more helpful styles of parenting (Bogenschneider et al., 1997). Authoritative parenting is competence-inducing in that it recognizes the child's need for control and individuality, views the rights and duties of parents and children as complementary, and is characterized by sensitivity to children's capabilities and the developmental tasks they face (Belsky et al., 1984).

In the current study, Belsky's (1984) model of the determinants of parenting guides the research based on the assumption that the determinants of parent resources, child characteristics, and sources of stress and support influence the relationship between parenting and child outcomes. Based on this assumption, this model provides the framework in which the current study will investigate the relationship between parenting styles and children's classroom motivation. This model provides a direct link between parenting and child outcomes. This study will focus on that aspect of the model to empirically establish this link with younger children.

## Objectives

The objectives of the study are to examine the relationship between

1. Parenting styles: (a) authoritarian, (b) permissive, and (c) authoritative and children's classroom motivation as measured by child interviews.
2. Parenting styles: (a) authoritarian, (b) permissive, and (c) authoritative and children's classroom motivation as measured by teacher perceptions.

## Delimitations

1. The sampling method was nonprobability because the participants in this study were volunteers.
2. This sample of this study is geographically limited. It includes only first and third grade students and their families in a mid-size Southern city.

## Assumptions

1. It is assumed that parents and guardians' responses were truthful and represent their actual behaviors and experiences in their role as caregivers.
2. It is assumed that parents and guardians completed their own surveys rather than have spouses complete their surveys for them.
3. It is assumed that the teachers have sufficient knowledge of their students, and that their responses validly and reliably reflect their students' classroom motivation.
4. It is assumed that the children's responses validly and reliably reflect their level of motivation in the classroom.

## Abbreviations

1. PCPR is the abbreviation used for the Primary Caregivers Practices Report (Robinson, Mandleco, Olsen, & Hart, 1995).
2. The Child Scale is the abbreviation used for the Self-Report Scale of Intrinsic versus Extrinsic Motivation in the Classroom (Harter, 1981).
3. The Teacher Scale is the abbreviation for the Teacher-Report Scale of Intrinsic versus Extrinsic Motivation in the Classroom (Harter, 1981).

## Definitions of Terms

1. Authoritarian Parenting: Parenting behaviors and attitudes characterized by high levels of control and low levels of warmth (Baumrind, 1978) as measured by the Primary Caregivers Practices Report (Robinson et al., 1995).
2. Permissive Parenting: Parenting behaviors and attitudes characterized by low levels of control and high levels of warmth (Baumrind, 1978) as measured by the Primary Caregivers Practices Report (Robinson et al., 1995).
3. Authoritative Parenting: Parenting behaviors and attitudes characterized by high levels of control and high levels of warmth (Baumrind, 1978) as measured by the Primary Caregivers Practices Report (Robinson et al., 1995).
4. Effectance Motivation: Behavior characterized by curiosity, exploration, and experimentation propelled by the feeling of efficacy that comes with mastering one's environment (White, 1959).
5. Intrinsic Motivation: The degree to which an individual's tendency to engage in learning activities is driven by internal motivational factors (Harter, 1981).

6. Classroom Motivation: The level of a child's intrinsic motivation to engage in classroom learning activities (Harter, 1981), as measured by the Self-Report Scale of Intrinsic versus Extrinsic Motivation in the Classroom (Harter, 1981) and the Teacher-Report Scale of Intrinsic versus Extrinsic Motivation in the Classroom (Harter, 1981).
7. Mastery Motivation: A variable of children's classroom motivation as measured by the Curiosity, Independent Mastery, and Preference for Challenge subscales of the Self-Report Scale of Intrinsic versus Extrinsic Motivation in the Classroom (Harter, 1981).
8. Judgment Motivation: A variable of children's classroom motivation as measured by the Independent Judgment and Internal Criteria subscales of the Self-Report Scale of Intrinsic versus Extrinsic Motivation in the Classroom (Harter, 1981).

## CHAPTER 2. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between family processes, specifically parenting styles, and children's classroom motivation using families with young elementary-aged children. Gottfried et al. (1998) found in their longitudinal study of academic intrinsic motivation that home environment was significantly related to academic intrinsic motivation beginning in childhood and lasting through early adolescence. This finding indicated short- and long-term effects extending throughout a child's development. The current study examines how individuals' overall manner of parenting relates to their children's classroom motivation, based on both the children's own perceptions and their teachers' perceptions.

### Parenting Styles

A plethora of studies exists that examine parenting styles (e.g., Abell, et al., 1996; Beyer, 1995; Bloir, 1997; Bluestone & Tamis-LeMonda, 1999; Darling, 1999). Mize and Pettit defined parenting styles as "aggregates or constellations of behaviors that describe parent-child interactions over a wide range of situations and that are presumed to create a pervasive interactional climate" (p. 291, as cited in Hart, Nelson, Robinson, Olsen, & McNeilly-Choque, 1998). Baumrind's (1978) three parenting styles of authoritarian, permissive, and authoritative are often used in studies investigating parenting styles in relation to diverse child outcome variables, such as academic achievement, self-confidence, aggression, delinquent behavior, and substance abuse (Dornbusch et al., 1987; Hart et al., 1998; Hill, 1995; Lamborn, Mounts, Steinberg, & Dornbusch, 1991; Shumow, Vandell, & Posner, 1998). Although most indicative of Western society, these parenting styles have been validated in other countries as well, including Australia, China, and Russia (Hart, et al., 1998; Leung et al., 1998). Researchers typically have identified these three parenting styles based on the levels of control and warmth displayed by

parents on a regular basis and in a variety of situations. Additionally, each of these parenting styles has been associated with child outcomes.

Past research has included a fourth parenting style called neglectful, which is characterized by low warmth and low control (Dekovic & Gerris, 1992; Glasgow, Dornbusch, Troyer, Steinberg, & Ritter, 1997; Lamborn et al., 1991; Leung & Kwan, 1998). Maccoby and Martin (1983) call this parenting style Indifferent-Uninvolved. They describe these parents as emotionally detached. Indifferent-uninvolved, or neglectful, parents tend to keep their children at a distance, responding to child demands only to make them cease. Little is known about this parenting style, and research on this population of parents is lacking because they are typically not very responsive or involved in their children's lives and, therefore, do not volunteer to be studied. Lamborn et al. (1991) were able to study the adolescent children of neglectful parents by receiving permission from the school to include all children unless the parents contacted the researchers to request their children be excluded from the study. Results of this study indicated that children of neglectful parents scored lowest on measures of psychosocial competence and highest on measures of psychological and behavioral dysfunctions, the opposite of children of authoritative parents. Because these parents, and consequently their children, are difficult to study, the current study will examine only the three previously mentioned parenting styles.

While studies before 1990 established the positive benefits of authoritative parenting and negative benefits of authoritarian and permissive parenting (Demo & Cox, 2000), research during the 1990s focused on the generalizability of Baumrind's parenting styles to minority families in the United States (Abell et al., 1996; Bloir, 1997; Chao, 1995). Abell et al. (1996) and Bloir (1997) found that Baumrind's traditional parenting styles did not adequately describe the

range and effects of parenting behaviors in African American families. The traditional parenting style ideologies were not adequate to describe East Asian families, as well (Chao, 1995).

### Authoritarian

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

### Permissive

Permissive parents typically display high levels of warmth and low levels of control in interactions with their children. This style of parenting dates back to the philosopher Rousseau in the eighteenth century and was strongly promoted in the 1970s by the Children's Movement (Baumrind, 1978). Baumrind (1978) described the idea behind permissive parenting as self-actualization, or the natural tendency of children to learn on their own all they need to know, and to act on this knowledge when ready to do so. This parenting style is characterized by an affirmative, accepting, and benign manner that frees children from restraint. Permissive parents are warm, loving, and child-centered, but they are prone to sudden outbursts of anger when they reach their capacity of tolerance. These parents often use love withdrawal and ridicule as a means of discipline. Though they often grant their children's demands for independence, they fail to engage in independence training of their children (Baumrind, 1973). Like children in authoritarian homes, children reared in permissive homes also display some negative developmental outcomes. These children generally express high levels of self-confidence, but are prone to drug abuse, delinquency, and a lack of interest in school during adolescence (Lamborn et al., 1991). They are also more likely to use tobacco and alcohol as minors (Cohen & Rice, 1997).

### Authoritative

High levels of warmth and high levels of control characterize the authoritative parenting style. Authoritative parenting provides a balance between authoritarian and permissive parenting. Authoritative parents use reasoning and consistency in interactions with their children, placing high value on verbal give-and-take (Baumrind, 1978). These parents are more likely to use positive reinforcement and induction to guide their children. Induction involves explaining

reasons and consequences to aid children in forming and internalizing the concepts of right and wrong. Authoritative parents communicate clearly with their children, and they encourage their children's independent strivings (Baumrind, 1973). Contrary to the previously described parenting styles, "authoritative discipline tends to foster in children a particular kind of social competence which is associated with success in Western society" (Baumrind, 1978, p. 245). Authoritative parenting has been associated with numerous positive child outcomes, such as self-regulation, high social competence, positive social adjustment, and low psychological and behavioral dysfunction (Grolnick & Ryan, 1989; Lamborn, et al., 1991). Hill (1995) found authoritative parenting to be positively correlated with organization, achievement, and intellectual orientation in children. Additionally, children of authoritative parents have also been shown to possess higher levels of autonomy than children of authoritarian and permissive parents (Deslandes, 2000).

### Children's Classroom Motivation

In the earlier half of the twentieth century motivation was thought by those in the field of psychology to be based on "drives," such as animal or instinctual drives (White, 1959). Drive theories, however, could not explain the curiosity or desire to manipulate or control the environment that was evident in research on these theories. Effectance motivation (also called competence motivation) involves behavior characterized by curiosity, exploration, and experimentation propelled by the feeling of efficacy that comes with mastering one's environment (White, 1959). White's theory of motivation brought about a shift in thinking regarding the ideas of motivation prevalent at that time (Harter, 1978). Much research has focused on effectance motivation in regard to intrinsic versus extrinsic motivation orientation (Amabile, Hill, Hennessey, & Tighe, 1994; Boggiano & Barrett, 1985; Harter, 1978; 1981;

Gottfried, 1985; 1990). Boggiano and Barrett (1985) examined motivational orientation as a mediator of the influence of failure feedback on children's future performance. The results of this study indicated that an intrinsic motivational orientation had a positive influence on children's persistence in completing future tasks. Gottfried (1985; 1990) found children's intrinsic motivation to be positively related to academic achievement. Many of these researchers further focused on how intrinsic and extrinsic motivation influenced school behavior.

Past research has focused on the relationships between motivation and varying aspects of school behavior, such as perceptions of academic achievement, personal control, grades, perceptions of academic competence, goal setting, and academic anxiety (Boggiano et al., 1988; Elliott & Dweck, 1988; Gottfried, 1985; 1990; Gottfried et al., 1998). In an investigation of the relationship between motivation and school, Anderman, Griesinger, and Westerfield (1998) examined adolescents' perceptions of and involvement in cheating in relation to their motivational goals and their perceptions of performance and external factors in the classroom. The results of this study indicated that children who cheated thought their class was extrinsically focused and their school was focused on performance. Lange, McKinnon, & Nida (1989) determined that motivational factors directly contribute to young children's recall proficiency. In addition to the desire to understand the relationship between motivation and school, still other researchers sought to find the source of motivational orientation beginning in the home (Ginsburg & Bronstein, 1993; Gottfried, et al., 1994; Hokoda & Fincham, 1995; Wentzel, 1997). Gottfried et al. (1994) found that parental motivational practices play a distinctive role in children's academic intrinsic motivation. In another investigation of parenting behaviors, Ginsburg and Bronstein (1993) found that over- and under-controlling parenting styles were

linked to extrinsic motivation, while parental encouragement in response to grades and autonomy-supporting family styles were linked to intrinsic motivation.

### Intrinsic Motivation

Intrinsic motivation can be defined as the degree to which a child's tendency to engage in classroom learning activities is driven by internal motivational factors (Harter, 1981). Gottfried et al. (1998) defined it as "the performance of activities for their own sake in which pleasure is inherent in the activity itself" (p. 1448). Intrinsic motivation is in contrast to extrinsic motivation which involves behaviors prompted by outside forces such as rewards. Some research has indicated that motivational orientation can change over time. In a seminal study of children across grades three through nine, Harter (1981) found a developmental shift from intrinsic to extrinsic motivation in the area of mastery motivation, which included curiosity, preference for challenge, and independent mastery. Additionally, this study indicated a developmental shift from extrinsic to intrinsic motivation in the area of judgment motivation, which included independent judgment and internal criteria for success or failure. This research indicated that as children grow older, their achievement orientations change depending upon the nature of the tasks in which they are engaged.

Intrinsic motivation has been linked to several positive outcomes for children, particularly in the academic arena. Gottfried (1990) found intrinsic motivation to be positively related to children's achievement, IQ, and perceptions of competence. Boggiano and Barrett (1985) found intrinsically oriented children to be more persistent after a failure experience than their extrinsically oriented counterparts. The influence of parenting on the relationship linking intrinsic motivation to positive academic outcomes for children is the major tenant of the current study.

## Past Empirical Research of Parenting Styles and Children's Development

Studies that examined how parenting styles influenced various aspects of the school processes and outcomes of children of all ages were not abundant (e.g. Chao, 1996; Ginsburg & Bronstein, 1993; Gottfried, Flemming, & Gottfried, 1994), and no studies were found using first and third grade children to investigate how parenting styles relate to children's classroom motivation. Additionally, no studies were found that separated mothers and fathers when analyzing parenting behaviors. Gottfried et al. (1994) studied mothers only, while other studies investigated mothers and fathers as a combined entity (Chao, 1996; Ginsburg & Bronstein, 1993; Leung & Kwan, 1998). In a study of older elementary students and their parents, Ginsburg and Bronstein (1993) found results consistent with other recent research (Dornbusch, Ritter, Leiderman, Roberts, & Fraleigh, 1987; Grolnick & Ryan, 1989; Steinberg, Elmen, & Mounts, 1989) that indicated that authoritative parenting styles lead to intrinsic motivation while authoritarian and permissive parenting styles lead to extrinsic motivation. Leung and Kwan (1998) examined motivational orientation as a mediator between parenting style and self-perceived academic competence in a study of adolescents using measures constructed for the purposes of their study. The results of this study indicate that authoritative parenting leads to intrinsic motivation while neglectful parenting leads to amotivation, which the researchers define as a lack of motivation. The results of this study also indicate that authoritarian parenting leads to extrinsic motivation and amotivation.

Studies were found that used a myriad of variables to examine the relationship between home and school (Boveja, 1998; Dornbusch et al., 1987; Leung, Lau, & Lam, 1998; Wentzel, 1998). Wentzel (1998) examined how the home environment and other factors influenced classroom motivation. The results of this study indicated that parent support, clearly a concept

related to warmth, was a positive predictor of school-related interest and goal orientations. Dornbusch et al. (1987) examined the relationship between authoritarian, permissive, and authoritative parenting styles and adolescent school performance. This investigation found that authoritarian and permissive parenting styles were negatively associated with higher grades, while the authoritative parenting style was positively associated with higher grades. Leung et al. (1998) examined the influence of parenting style on academic achievement. The findings of this study indicated that academic achievement was negatively related to academic authoritarianism. In a study of adolescent minority students (Hispanic American, African American, and Asian American), Boveja (1998) found that adolescents who perceived their parents to be authoritative engaged in more effective learning and studying strategies.

#### Summary

Past empirical research indicated that the traditional parenting style ideologies show positive child outcomes for middle-class, white children of authoritative parents, and negative child outcomes for middle-class, white children of authoritarian and permissive parents (Dornbusch et al., 1987; Hart et al., 1998; Hill, 1995; Lamborn et al., 1991; Shumow et al., 1998). Past research also found these parenting styles to be valid in other countries (Hart, et al., 1998; Leung et al., 1998). Different results were found for low-income, minority families, however. More recent research found these parenting styles to be inadequate to describe minority families, such as African American and East Asian families (Abell et al., 1996; Blair, 1997; Chao, 1995).

Much research has focused on effectance motivation in regard to intrinsic versus extrinsic motivation orientation (Amabile, Hill, Hennessey, & Tighe, 1994; Boggiano & Barrett, 1985; Harter, 1978; 1981; Gottfried, 1985, 1990). Past research of motivation investigated the

relationships between motivation and varying aspects of school behavior (Boggiano et al., 1988; Elliott & Dweck, 1988; Gottfried, 1985; 1990; Gottfried et al., 1998). Intrinsic motivation has been linked to several positive academic outcomes for children (Boggiano & Barret, 1985; Gottfried 1990).

The research reviewed indicated a strong linkage between the home and school in regard to children's outcomes. Based on Belsky's (1984) model and the reviewed literature, the researcher expected a positive relationship between children whose parents reported higher levels of authoritative parenting and children who showed higher levels of classroom motivation based on their own perceptions and their teachers' perceptions. Additionally, the researcher expected a negative relationship between children whose parents reported higher levels of authoritarian and permissive parenting styles and children who showed higher levels of classroom motivation.

## CHAPTER 3. METHODOLOGY

### Design

The current study was part of a larger, longitudinal project being conducted by Dr. Garrison at the Louisiana State University Agricultural Center investigating the relationships between family stress processes and children's development. The purpose of the current study was to examine the relationship between family processes, more specifically parenting styles, and children's classroom motivation.

### Data Collection

Data were collected in the spring of 2001. Participation in the study was requested from the school boards of two school districts of a mid-size Southern city, the local parochial school system, and selected private and university laboratory schools. One school board granted permission to conduct the study on its campuses. Letters were sent to the principals of the 63 public elementary schools and were followed up by personal telephone calls. Seventeen principals did not respond or return phone calls. Twenty-four principals said their schools could not participate. Twenty-two principals agreed to participate, but four of those schools were not in the final sample. (One of the four schools did not receive consent forms because they were very late in making a decision to participate. Two schools received consent forms but did not pass them out to the students. One school passed out consent forms, but none were returned by parents.) Children and their families from 18 of the public schools participated in the study. One of the university laboratory schools also agreed to participate. A total of 19 schools participated in the study.

Parental consent forms were delivered to the schools and picked up upon completion by a member of the research team. Parental surveys were then mailed to each family that agreed to

participate in the study. Families were offered a compensation of \$25.00 for participating in the study.

The mailing to the families sent surveys to both parents (when applicable) in separate envelopes. In the first mailing, surveys were mailed to 431 families with children in first and third grades. Two hundred seventy families returned the surveys for a response rate of 63%. For a second mailing, 74 families who did not respond to the first mailing were selected based on expected demographics needed for the study to procure a representative sample (such as family structure, school, race, gender, and grade of child), and they were mailed second surveys. Sixteen of these families responded for a 22% response rate. Additionally, 29 nonrespondent spouses (persons whose spouses previously returned surveys) received surveys in the second mailing. Nine spouses responded for a response rate of 31%. A third mailing sent surveys to select families who had not responded to the first mailing, but were not included in the second mailing. Four of the 32 surveys from these families were returned for a response rate of 13%. In all, 290 of 431 families returned surveys for a total response rate of 67%. From the 290 families, 133 first graders and their families and 148 third graders and their families were interviewed and comprise the final sample of the current study.

#### Variables and Assessments

Data for the proposed study were collected using three separate instruments. The Primary Caregivers Practices Report (Robinson et al., 1995), a self-administered survey, was used to measure parenting styles. The parental survey was also used to assess family socioeconomic and demographic characteristics. Children's classroom motivation was measured using two instruments. Children were administered the Child Scale (Harter, 1981), and teachers completed

the Teacher Scale (Harter, 1981). Sixty-seven teachers completed surveys for this study. The number of students for which each teacher completed surveys ranged from 1 to 11.

All adults in this study, including parents and teachers, completed surveys on their own. Because the same individual interviewed 89% of the children in this study, no interviewer effects are suspected in this study.

### Parenting Styles

Scores from the Primary Caregivers Practices Report (Robinson et al., 1995) (See Appendix A) assess the level of a parent's or guardian's parenting style with respect to Baumrind's primary parenting styles typologies: authoritarian (high control, low warmth), permissive (low control, high warmth), and authoritative (high control, high warmth). The original PCPR consists of 62 items in which the parents or guardians indicate how often the stated behavior is used when interacting with their children. For the purposes of the larger study, 10 items (3 authoritarian, 4 permissive, and 3 authoritative) with low factor loading scores (<0.40) were removed from the copy of the PCPR received by the participants in this study, leaving 52 items in the assessment (see Appendix B for items removed). Examples of the remaining items include (a) 'I encourage my child to talk about her/his troubles' (authoritative), (b) 'I find it difficult to discipline my child' (permissive), and (c) 'I spank my child when my child is disobedient' (authoritarian). Response choices ranged from 'almost never' to 'almost always' on a 5-point Likert-type scale.

Because parenting styles were conceptualized as contextual and not mutually exclusive typologies by the creators of the PCPR (Robinson et al., 1995), a summed score was tabulated as directed for each parent or guardian on each of the three parenting styles, which means that the higher the score, the more the caregiver exhibited that particular parenting style. Thus, the same

parent or guardian may have had high authoritative scores, moderate permissive scores, and low authoritarian scores depending upon that person's self-reported parenting practices. There were 17 items measuring authoritarian parenting, 11 items measuring permissive parenting, and 24 items measuring authoritative parenting style type. The measure of authoritarian parenting (potential range 0-85) was obtained by summing the scores of the 17 items that assess authoritarian parenting. The measure of permissive parenting (potential range 0-55) was obtained by summing the scores of the 11 items that assess permissive parenting. The measure of authoritative parenting (range 0-120) was obtained by summing the scores of the 24 items that assess authoritative parenting. Authoritarian items have a Chronbach alpha of .86, permissive items have a Chronbach alpha of .75, and authoritative items have a Chronbach alpha of .91 (Robinson et al., 1995). The PCPR has been validated in the United States (Robinson et al., 1995) and more recently across cultures, namely Russian (Hart et al., 1998).

#### Children's Perceptions of Classroom Motivation

Classroom motivation was assessed using two instruments. Harter's (1981) Scale of Intrinsic versus Extrinsic Motivational Orientation in the Classroom (Child Scale; See Appendix C) is a 30-item instrument completed by an interviewer who reads the questions to the child and records the child's answers. The Child Scale includes five subscales, each containing six questions: Preference for Challenge, Curiosity, Independent Mastery, Independent Judgement, and Internal Criteria. The reliability of each subscale (KR-20) ranges from .54 to .84 (Harter, 1981). The questions present two different kinds of children. The participant is asked which child is most like her. She then determines if this description is sort of true or really true of her. Each item is scored on an ordinal scale from 1 to 4; a score of 4 indicates the maximum intrinsic motivation.

The Preference for Challenge subscale (reliability = .78 to .84) measures the child's preference for challenging work versus easy work. The Curiosity subscale (reliability = .54 to .78) measures learning motivated by curiosity versus learning in order to please a teacher. The Independent Mastery subscale (reliability = .68 to .82) measures the child's incentive to work at classroom learning activities for personal satisfaction versus working in order to please a teacher and get good grades. The Independent Judgment subscale (reliability = .72 to .81) measures the child's desire to work independently versus her dependence upon a teacher for help. The Internal Criteria subscale (reliability = .75 to .83) measures the child's tendency to use internal criteria versus external criteria to determine success or failure. Based on higher order factor analysis of these five dimensions, two independent factors were revealed: (1) mastery motivation, which includes Curiosity, Independent Mastery, and Preference for Challenge, and (2) judgment motivation, which includes Independent Judgment and Internal Criteria for success or failure (Ginsburg & Bronstein, 1993; Harter, 1981). The current study used these two variables to assess children's classroom motivation as it related to parenting style.

#### Teachers' Perception of Children's Classroom Motivation

Harter's (1981) Teacher Assessment of Intrinsic Motivation in the Classroom (Teacher Scale; See Appendix D) is a 10-item scale that assesses the teacher's perception of the child's overall intrinsic motivation. The Teacher Scale uses the same format and the same learning activities used in the Child Scale. The teacher must choose between two observed tendencies and two degrees of the chosen tendency. The Teacher Scale uses a four-point Likert-type scale. Each item is scored on an ordinal scale from 1 to 4; a score of 4 indicates the maximum intrinsic motivation. The scores from the individual items are then summed to create an overall score of intrinsic motivation.

## Control Variables

Several control variables were considered in the analysis of this study. The age, race, education, income, employment status, and marital status of the parent, the gender of the child, and household size were used as control variables.

## Data Analysis

Preliminary t-tests revealed significant grade effects for children's reports of their motivation. Grade effects were not found for teachers' reports of children's motivation. Based on the results of these t-tests, separate frequency analyses and correlations were performed for first and third graders' reports of motivation, but not for teachers' reports of children's motivation. T-tests also revealed significant gender effects for third graders in the domain of mastery motivation, but not judgment motivation. Significant gender effects were not found for first graders on either motivation variable. The results of the t-test of child's gender established gender as a control variable to be used in the regression analysis of third graders' mastery motivation but not their judgment motivation.

Correlation analyses were employed to establish significant control variables to be used in the regression analyses. A high correlation between income and education was revealed in the analyses examining mothers of first graders. To control for the multicollinearity of these two variables, education and income were combined to create the variable SES (socio-economic status). SES was used as a control variable used in regression analyses examining mothers of first grade children. The corresponding correlations of mothers with third grade children were not high enough to warrant concerns about multicollinearity.

To test relationships between parenting styles and classroom motivation as measured by child interviews and teacher perception (objectives 1 and 2), multiple regression analyses were

employed. Separate analyses for mothers and fathers were performed because 93 of the 290 families in this study were single parent families. Separate analyses for first and third graders' motivation as measured by child interviews were also performed based on the aforementioned t-test of grade effects.

## CHAPTER 4. RESULTS

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between parenting styles and children's classroom motivation. The data used in this study were part of a larger project examining family stress and children's development. Data were collected from 281 first and third grade children and 266 mothers and 134 fathers of these children in a mid-size Southern city, and were analyzed using the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS).

### Descriptive Statistics

Demographic variables were age, race, education, income, employment status, and marital status of the parent, the gender of the child, and household size. Standard questionnaire items were used to measure these variables. A majority of mothers were non-white (57%), mostly African-American, while a majority of fathers were white (61%). The mothers ranged in age from 20 to 61 years with a mean of 35 years ( $SD = 6.67$ ). The ages of the fathers ranged from 21 to 68 years with a mean of 38 years ( $SD = 7.25$ ). The majority of the respondents, both mothers (66%) and fathers (93%), were married or cohabiting. Twenty percent of mothers had a college degree, and 8% of the mothers did not complete high school. Of the fathers, 25% had a college degree, while 6% did not complete high school. Most mothers were employed (70%) and worked 40 or more hours per week (76%). Additionally, most fathers were employed (96%) and worked 40 or more hours per week (83%). Forty-eight percent of mothers and 59% of fathers made between \$20,000 and \$59,000 per year. Thirty-eight percent of mothers and 39% of fathers had four individuals in their households, while 22% of mothers and 28% of fathers had five individuals in their households. Compared to the residents of the catchment area, the mothers of the current study are typical. The fathers are not, however. The fathers in the current study are

more highly educated and earn a higher family income. Additionally, there is a higher percentage of white fathers in this study than the actual percentage in the catchment area.

### Parenting Styles

For the description of authoritarian, permissive, and authoritative parenting styles, items were ranked according to the degree to which each item is practiced by the participating parents. Respondents used a 4-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = agree, and 4 = strongly agree) to rate their behavior. The researcher developed an interpretive scale for reporting the results of the participants' responses: 3.50 or greater = strongly agree, 2.50 to 3.49 = agree, 1.50 to 2.49 = disagree, and less than 1.50 = strongly disagree. The means and standard deviations for each item are presented in the following sections.

#### Mothers' Authoritarian Parenting Style

The possible range of scores for mothers' authoritarian parenting was 0 to 85. Mothers' actual scores ranged from 17 to 55. The mean for their authoritarian scores was 35 (SD = 7). Mothers reported less authoritarian parenting than the theoretical mean of 42.5. The five highest rated authoritarian items for mothers were: 'I tell my child what to do' (M = 3.11), 'I spank my child when my child is disobedient' (M = 2.76), 'I tell my child 'because I said so,' or 'because I am your parent and I want you to,' when my child asks why my child has to obey' (M = 2.59), 'I demand that my child do things' (M = 2.48), and 'I have to yell or shout when my child misbehaves' (M = 2.47) (Table 1). The first three of these five items were in the 'agree' category. The last two of these items were in the 'disagree' category. Overall, the mothers rated the 17 authoritarian items as follows: 14 in the 'disagree' category and 3 in the 'agree' category. No items were rated in the 'strongly disagree' or 'strongly agree' categories.

Table 1. Descriptive Statistics of Mothers' Authoritarian Parenting Style

Item	M	SD
I tell my child what to do.	3.11	0.59
I spank my child when my child is disobedient.	2.76	0.91
I tell my child 'because I said so,' or 'because I am your parent and I want you to,' when my child asks why my child has to obey.	2.59	0.78
I demand that my child do things.	2.48	0.74
I have to yell or shout when my child misbehaves.	2.47	0.78
I punish my child by taking away privileges with few explanations.	2.39	0.93
I scold or criticize my child when my child's behavior doesn't meet my expectations.	2.10	0.77
I use physical punishment (spanking, grabbing, pushing, slapping) to discipline my child.	2.08	0.91
I scold and criticize my child to make my child improve.	1.98	0.80
When two children are fighting, I discipline the children first and ask questions later.	1.92	0.80
I argue with my child.	1.92	0.77
I grab my child when my child is being disobedient.	1.88	0.76
I express strong anger toward my child.	1.77	0.77
I use threats as punishment with little or no justification.	1.72	0.64
I know that my feelings are more important than my child's feelings.	1.62	0.66
I punish my child by putting my child off somewhere alone with few explanations.	1.59	0.65
I slap my child when my child misbehaves.	1.54	0.64

1 = Strongly disagree; 2 = Disagree; 3 = Agree; and 4 = Strongly agree

Fathers' Authoritarian Parenting Style

The possible range of authoritarian scores for fathers was 0 to 85. The actual range of scores measuring fathers' authoritarian parenting style was 18 to 62. The mean of their scores was 37 (SD = 7). Fathers reported less authoritarian parenting than the theoretical mean of 42.5.

The five highest rated authoritarian items for fathers were: 'I tell my child what to do' (M = 3.18), 'I spank my child when my child is disobedient' (M = 2.86), 'I demand that my child do things' (M = 2.75), 'I tell my child 'because I said so,' or 'because I am your parent and I want you to,' when my child asks why my child has to obey' (M = 2.62), and 'I have to yell or shout when my child misbehaves' (M = 2.43) (Table 2). The first four of these five items were in the 'agree' category, while the last of these five items was in the 'disagree' category. As a whole, the fathers rated the 17 authoritarian items as follows: 13 in the 'disagree' category and 4 in the 'agree' category.

Table 2. Descriptive Statistics of Fathers' Authoritarian Parenting Style

Item	M	SD
I tell my child what to do.	3.18	0.53
I spank my child when my child is disobedient.	2.86	0.89
I demand that my child do things.	2.75	0.74
I tell my child 'because I said so,' or 'because I am your parent and I want you to,' when my child asks why my child has to obey.	2.62	0.80
I have to yell or shout when my child misbehaves.	2.43	0.76
I scold or criticize my child when my child's behavior doesn't meet my expectations.	2.36	0.83
I punish my child by taking away privileges with few explanations.	2.24	0.84
I scold and criticize my child to make my child improve.	2.18	0.81
I use physical punishment (spanking, grabbing, pushing, slapping) to discipline my child.	2.17	0.93
When two children are fighting, I discipline the children first and ask questions later.	2.06	0.77
I argue with my child.	2.02	0.80

(Table 2 continued)

I grab my child when my child is being disobedient.	1.95	0.73
I express strong anger toward my child.	1.86	0.76
I use threats as punishment with little or no justification.	1.80	0.68
I know that my feelings are more important than my child's feelings.	1.77	0.66
I slap my child when my child misbehaves.	1.71	0.78
I punish my child by putting my child off somewhere alone with few explanations.	1.66	0.67

1 = Strongly disagree; 2 = Disagree; 3 = Agree; and 4 = Strongly agree

### Mothers' Permissive Parenting Style

Possible responses measuring mothers' permissive parenting ranged from 0 to 55. Mothers' actual responses ranged from 7 to 34. The mean of their responses was 21 (SD = 4). Mothers reported less permissive parenting than the theoretical mean of 27.5. The five highest rated permissive items for mothers include: 'I am confident about my parenting abilities' (M = 3.27), 'I don't scold or criticize my child when my child acts against my wishes' (M = 2.29), 'I threaten my child with punishment more often than I give it' (M = 2.28), 'I spoil my child' (M = 2.22), and 'I find it difficult to discipline my child' (M = 2.10) (Table 3). The first of these five items was ranked in the 'agree' category. The last four of these items were ranked in the 'disagree' category. In general, the mothers rated the 11 permissive items as follows: 1 in the 'strongly disagree' category, 9 in the 'disagree' category, and 1 in the 'agree' category.

### Fathers' Permissive Parenting Style

While fathers' possible response range for permissive parenting was 0 to 55, their actual responses ranged from 13 to 37. The mean of their responses was 21 (SD = 4). Fathers reported

Table 3. Descriptive Statistics of Mothers' Permissive Parenting Style

Item	M	SD
I am confident about my parenting abilities.	3.27	0.66
I don't scold or criticize my child when my child acts against my wishes.	2.29	0.93
I threaten my child with punishment more often than I give it.	2.28	0.87
I spoil my child.	2.22	0.87
I find it difficult to discipline my child.	2.10	0.84
I state punishments to my child but don't actually do them.	2.04	0.75
I am unsure how to solve my child's misbehaviors.	1.99	0.75
I give in when my child makes a fuss about something; for example, in the grocery store or in someone's house.	1.69	0.71
I allow my child to interrupt others.	1.60	0.79
I allow my child to annoy someone else.	1.53	0.74
I ignore my child's misbehavior.	1.40	0.60

1 = Strongly disagree; 2 = Disagree; 3 = Agree; and 4 = Strongly agree

less permissive parenting than the theoretical mean of 27.5. The five highest rated permissive items for fathers were: 'I am confident about my parenting abilities' (M = 3.26), 'I spoil my child' (M = 2.31), 'I threaten my child with punishment more often than I give it' (M = 2.31), 'I don't scold or criticize my child when my child acts against my wishes' (M = 2.15), and 'I am unsure how to solve my child's misbehaviors' (M = 2.03) (Table 4). The first of these five items was ranked in the 'agree' category. The last four of these items were ranked in the 'disagree' category. Overall, the fathers rated the 11 permissive items as follows: 1 in the 'strongly disagree' category, 9 in the 'disagree' category, and 1 in the 'agree' category.

Table 4. Descriptive Statistics of Fathers' Permissive Parenting Style

Item	M	SD
I am confident about my parenting abilities.	3.26	0.73
I spoil my child.	2.31	0.86
I threaten my child with punishment more often than I give it.	2.31	0.81
I don't scold or criticize my child when my child acts against my wishes.	2.15	0.91
I am unsure how to solve my child's misbehaviors.	2.03	0.76
I state punishments to my child but don't actually do them.	2.00	0.76
I find it difficult to discipline my child.	1.96	0.81
I give in when my child makes a fuss about something; for example, in the grocery store or in someone's house.	1.73	0.72
I allow my child to interrupt others.	1.61	0.77
I allow my child to annoy someone else.	1.51	0.63
I ignore my child's misbehavior.	1.45	0.64

1 = Strongly disagree; 2 = Disagree; 3 = Agree; and 4 = Strongly agree

#### Mothers' Authoritative Parenting Style

The possible range of mothers' authoritative parenting was 0 to 120. The actual range for mothers' responses to authoritative parenting style responses was 21 to 96. The mean of their responses was 81 (SD = 9). Mothers reported much higher authoritative parenting than the theoretical mean of 60. The five highest rated authoritative items for mothers were: 'I express affection to my child by hugging and kissing my child' (M = 3.73), 'I give praise when my child is good' (M = 3.70), 'I give comfort and understanding when my child is upset' (M = 3.63), 'I encourage my child to talk about my child's troubles' (M = 3.60), and 'I show sympathy when my child is hurt or frustrated' (M = 3.59) (Table 5). All five of these items were ranked in the

Table 5. Descriptive Statistics of Mothers' Authoritative Parenting Style

Items	M	SD
I express affection to my child by hugging and kissing my child.	3.73	0.53
I give praise when my child is good.	3.70	0.55
I give comfort and understanding when my child is upset.	3.63	0.52
I encourage my child to talk about my child's troubles.	3.60	0.60
I show sympathy when my child is hurt or frustrated.	3.59	0.59
I explain to my child why rules should be obeyed.	3.58	0.51
I am aware of problems or concerns about my child at school.	3.58	0.59
I know the names of my child's friends.	3.57	0.60
I joke and play with my child.	3.56	0.63
I apologize to my child when I make a mistake.	3.53	0.58
I explain to my child how I feel about my child's good and bad behavior.	3.49	0.54
I tell my child that I appreciate what my child tries to do or accomplish.	3.47	0.55
I have warm and intimate time with my child.	3.47	0.64
I emphasize the reasons for rules.	3.43	0.58
I explain to my child the consequences of my child's misbehavior.	3.40	0.57
I respond promptly to my child's needs or feelings.	3.38	0.57
I encourage my child to talk about the results of his/her actions.	3.38	0.59
I talk over my child's misbehavior with my child.	3.37	0.63
I show patience with my child.	3.31	0.62
I tell my child about my behavior expectations before the child does an activity.	3.20	0.76
I think about what my child wants in making plans for the family.	3.19	0.57
I am easy going and relaxed with my child.	3.02	0.65
I allow my child to contribute to making family rules.	2.81	0.70
I consider my child's desires before asking them to do something.	2.75	0.72

1 = Strongly disagree; 2 = Disagree; 3 = Agree; and 4 = Strongly agree

'strongly agree' category. As a whole, the mothers rated the 24 authoritative items as follows: 14 in the 'agree' category and 10 in the 'strongly agree' category.

### Fathers' Authoritative Parenting Style

The possible range of scores measuring fathers' authoritative parenting was 0 to 120. The actual range of their responses was 58 to 96. The mean of their responses was 78 (SD = 8). Fathers reported higher authoritative parenting than the theoretical mean of 60. The five highest ranked authoritative items for fathers were: 'I give praise when my child is good' (M = 3.56), 'I encourage my child to talk about my child's troubles' (M = 3.53), 'I joke and play with my child' (M = 3.51), 'I express affection to my child by hugging and kissing my child' (M = 3.51), and 'I explain to my child why rules should be obeyed' (M = 3.49) (Table 6). The first four of these items were ranked in the 'strongly agree' category, while the last of these five items was ranked in the 'agree' category. Overall, the fathers rated the 24 authoritative items as follows: 20 items were in the 'agree' category and 4 items were in the 'strongly agree' category.

### Children's Classroom Motivation

Children's classroom motivation was measured by administering the child motivation measurement to child participants and by self-administered surveys given to the teachers of the child participants. The measurement administered to the children consisted of five subscales of motivation: Challenge, Curiosity, Mastery, Judgment, and Criteria, as named by Harter (1981). The subscales were divided into the two separate variables of mastery motivation and judgment motivation (Ginsburg & Bronstein, 1993; Harter, 1981). The variable of mastery motivation includes the subscales of Challenge, Curiosity, and Mastery, while the variable of judgment motivation includes the Judgment and Criteria subscales.

Table 6. Descriptive Statistics of Fathers' Authoritative Parenting Style

Items	M	SD
I give praise when my child is good.	3.56	0.58
I encourage my child to talk about my child's troubles.	3.53	0.56
I joke and play with my child.	3.51	0.61
I express affection to my child by hugging and kissing my child.	3.51	0.69
I explain to my child why rules should be obeyed.	3.49	0.60
I show sympathy when my child is hurt or frustrated.	3.47	0.60
I give comfort and understanding when my child is upset.	3.47	0.62
I am aware of problems or concerns about my child at school.	3.40	0.59
I apologize to my child when I make a mistake.	3.39	0.58
I tell my child that I appreciate what my child tries to do or accomplish.	3.36	0.59
I explain to my child how I feel about my child's good and bad behavior.	3.36	0.53
I have warm and intimate time with my child.	3.33	0.70
I know the names of my child's friends.	3.31	0.63
I emphasize the reasons for rules.	3.31	0.58
I explain to my child the consequences of my child's misbehavior.	3.30	0.63
I show patience with my child.	3.28	0.58
I encourage my child to talk about the results of his/her actions.	3.28	0.66
I talk over my child's misbehavior with my child.	3.28	0.64
I respond promptly to my child's needs or feelings.	3.26	0.56
I tell my child about my behavior expectations before the child does an activity.	3.11	0.79
I think about what my child wants in making plans for the family.	3.03	0.58
I am easy going and relaxed with my child.	3.02	0.69
I allow my child to contribute to making family rules.	2.76	0.72
I consider my child's desires before asking them to do something.	2.68	0.58

1 = Strongly disagree; 2 = Disagree; 3 = Agree; and 4 = Strongly agree

The possible range for each of the five subscales of the child motivation measurement was 6 to 24, and the theoretical mean was 15. The ranges and means of responses for first and third graders' motivation scores were similar (Table 7). Both first and third graders had a mean score higher than the theoretical mean for the Challenge, Curiosity, and Mastery subscales. Similarly, both sets of participants had a mean score lower than the theoretical mean for the Judgment and Criteria subscales. These results remained constant when the subscales were divided into the two variables of mastery motivation and judgment motivation. The possible range for the variable mastery motivation was 18 to 72 with a theoretical mean of 45. The first and third grade mean scores were both higher than the theoretical mean for this variable. The possible range for the variable judgment motivation was 12 to 48 with a theoretical mean of 30. The first and third grade mean scores were both lower than the theoretical mean for this variable.

Table 7. Descriptive Statistics of Children's Motivation Scores

Subscale	1 <sup>st</sup> Graders (n=131)			3 <sup>rd</sup> Graders (n=148)		
	Range	M	SD	Range	M	SD
Challenge	9 - 24	18.20	3.75	6 - 24	18.74	4.03
Curiosity	8 - 24	15.84	3.19	9 - 24	18.26	3.33
Mastery	7 - 24	15.93	3.98	7 - 24	16.10	3.62
Judgment	6 - 24	9.53	3.61	6 - 23	10.41	3.83
Criteria	6 - 24	11.68	4.22	6 - 24	12.40	4.79
<b>Variable</b>						
Mastery	31 - 72	49.97	7.92	33 - 70	53.11	7.91
Judgment	12 - 45	21.21	6.59	12 - 44	22.81	6.74

The measurement completed by teachers measured the teachers' perceptions of children's intrinsic classroom motivation. The possible range for this measure was 4 to 40. The actual range

was 8 to 40 with a mean of 25 (SD = 7). The mean score of teachers' perceptions of children's intrinsic motivation was higher than the theoretical mean of 22.

### Correlational Analyses

Correlations between the predictor variables and parenting styles were executed to examine bi-variate relationships between variables. Significant correlations were found among two of the mothers' parenting styles and children's motivation and among some of the control variables and children's motivation (Table 8). Mothers' authoritative parenting was found to be

Table 8. Correlations Between Predictor and Response Variables for Mothers' Data

Predictor Variables	1st Graders (n=126)		3rd Graders (n=140)		Teachers (n=217)
	Judgment	Mastery	Judgment	Mastery	
Child's Gender	–	–	-.00	-.19*	-.06
Mother's Age	-.01	-.03	.10	.15	.04
Mother's Race	-.10	.04	.14	-.02	.20*
Mother's Employment	.04	.13	-.10	-.09	.02
Marital Status	-.05	.03	.20*	.06	.17*
SES	.02	.05	–	–	–
Mother's Education	–	–	.07	.12	.12
Mother's Income	–	–	.28*	.04	.21*
Household Size	.02	.03	.06	-.08	.03
Authoritarian	-.00	-.02	.01	.15*	.02
Permissive	.08	-.05	-.08	.10	-.09
Authoritative	-.01	.17*	.03	-.08	.08

\* $p \leq 0.05$

positively correlated with first graders' mastery motivation, while mothers' authoritarian parenting was positively correlated with third graders' judgment motivation. Essentially, mothers' higher scores of authoritative parenting were associated with first graders' higher scores of mastery motivation, and mothers' higher scores of authoritarian parenting were associated with third graders' higher scores of judgment motivation. Significant findings were also found among some of the mothers' control variables and children's motivation (Table 8). Mothers' marital status and income were positively correlated third graders' judgment motivation. These correlations indicated that mothers who were married or cohabiting had third graders who had higher scores of intrinsic motivation, and mothers' higher income levels were associated with higher scores of intrinsic motivation for third graders. Additionally, mothers' race, marital status, and income were positively correlated with teachers' perceptions of children's classroom motivation, indicating that children of white mothers, married or cohabiting mothers, and mothers with higher income levels had higher scores of classroom motivation based on teachers' perceptions.

Significant positive correlations were found among fathers' authoritarian parenting style and 3rd graders' mastery motivation and the teachers' perceptions of children's classroom motivation (Table 9). In essence, fathers' higher scores of authoritarian parenting were associated with both higher scores of third graders' mastery motivation and higher teacher perceptions of children's classroom motivation. Significant findings were also noted among some of the fathers' control variables and children's motivation (Table 9). Father's age was positively correlated with first graders' judgment motivation, which indicated older fathers had first graders with higher judgment motivation scores. Father's marital status was positively

correlated with third graders mastery motivation, which indicated that fathers who were married or cohabiting had third graders with higher mastery motivation scores. Additionally, father's income was positively correlated with both third graders' judgment motivation and teachers' perceptions of children's classroom motivation. Essentially, fathers with higher yearly income had third graders' with higher judgment motivation scores. These fathers also had children who were perceived by their teachers to be more intrinsically motivated.

Table 9. Correlations Between Predictor and Response Variables for Fathers' Data

Predictor Variables	1st Graders (n=63)		3rd Graders (n=71)		Teachers (n=114)
	Judgment	Mastery	Judgment	Mastery	
Child's Gender	–	–	.08	-.16	-.11
Father's Age	.27*	.11	-.00	.02	-.01
Father's Race	-.03	.04	.01	.06	.13
Father's Employment	-.12	-.18	.09	-.02	.06
Marital Status	-.10	-.05	-.07	.25*	.18
Father's Education	.05	.08	.21	-.08	.14
Father's Income	.06	.11	.28*	.07	.28*
Household Size	-.11	-.10	.00	.13	.17
Authoritarian	-.03	-.19	.14	.22*	.19*
Permissive	.14	.02	.02	.02	-.06
Authoritative	-.08	.06	-.01	-.03	-.01

\* $p \leq 0.05$

### Regression Analyses

Regression analyses were performed to examine the relationship between parenting styles and children's classroom motivation. Socioeconomic status and demographic characteristics that were significantly correlated with children's classroom motivation were included as control

variables. In the data of mothers' responses, there were no demographic characteristics that were significantly correlated with first graders' classroom motivation. For third graders, however, mother's marital status and income were significantly correlated with judgment motivation, and child's gender was significantly correlated with mastery motivation. Mother's race, marital status, and income were found to be significantly correlated with teachers' perceptions of children's classroom motivation. The data of fathers' responses contained significant correlations with demographic characteristics as well. For first graders, fathers' age was significantly correlated with judgment motivation. Fathers' marital status was positively correlated with third graders' mastery motivation, and fathers' income was positively correlated with both third graders' judgment motivation and teachers' perceptions of children's classroom motivation.

#### First Grade Children

The results of the regression analysis examining the relationship between mothers' parenting styles and first graders' classroom motivation indicated that mothers' authoritative parenting was positively related to first graders' mastery motivation (Table 10). Essentially, higher levels of mothers' authoritative parenting style contributed significantly to higher scores of first graders' mastery motivation. Mothers' authoritarian and permissive parenting were not found to be significantly related to first graders' mastery motivation, and none of the mothers' parenting styles were found to significantly contribute to first graders' judgment motivation as indicated in Table 10. The amount of variance in first graders' classroom motivation explained by mothers' parenting style was low, and the F statistic was not significant.

Table 10. Regression of Mothers' Parenting Styles and First Grade Children's Classroom Motivation (n=126)

	Mastery			Judgment		
	B	$\beta$	t	B	$\beta$	t
Authoritarian	0.04	0.13	0.27	-0.05	-.05	-0.46
Permissive	-0.13	-0.06	-0.58	.18	0.10	0.97
Authoritative	0.16	0.17	1.87*	-0.01	-0.01	-0.12
Constant		37.94			19.84	
F		1.27			0.32	
R <sup>2</sup>		.03			0.01	

\* $p \leq 0.05$

A regression analysis examining the relationship between fathers' parenting styles and first graders' mastery motivation revealed that fathers' authoritarian parenting was negatively related to first graders' mastery motivation (Table 11). More specifically, fathers' authoritarian parenting predicted lower mastery motivation in their first graders. Significant relationships were not found between fathers' permissive and authoritative parenting and first graders' mastery motivation. The amount of variance in first graders' mastery motivation explained by fathers' parenting style was low, and the F statistic was not significant. The first and second steps of the regression analysis examining fathers' age as a control variable and fathers' parenting styles in relation to first graders' judgment motivation indicated a positive relationship between fathers' age and first graders' judgment motivation (Table 12). Basically, an increase in fathers' age predicted higher scores of first graders' judgment motivation. Significant relationships were not found between any of the fathers' parenting styles and first graders'

Table 11. Regression of Fathers' Parenting Styles and First Grade Children's Mastery Motivation (n=63)

	B	$\beta$	t
Authoritarian	-0.37	-0.29	-1.73*
Permissive	0.26	0.19	0.84
Authoritative	-0.09	-0.09	-0.54
Constant		66.15	
F		1.09	
R <sup>2</sup>		0.05	

\* $p \leq 0.05$

judgment. The amount of variance in first graders' judgment motivation explained by fathers' parenting style was low, and the F statistic was not significant.

Table 12. Regression of Fathers' Parenting Styles and First Grader Children's Judgment Motivation (n=63)

	<u>step 1</u>			<u>step 2</u>		
	B	$\beta$	t	B	$\beta$	t
Age						
Authoritarian	0.25	0.27	2.21*	0.23	0.25	1.92*
Permissive				-0.15	-0.15	-0.86
Authoritative				0.16	0.09	0.63
Constant				-0.10	-0.12	-0.74
F		11.09			21.85	
R <sup>2</sup>		4.89*			1.45	
$\Delta R^2$		0.07			0.09	
					0.02	

\* $p \leq 0.05$

Third Grade Children

In the regression analysis investigating the relationships between mothers' parenting styles and third graders' mastery motivation, no significant relationships were found between any of the mothers' parenting styles and the third graders' motivation (Tables 13 and 14). There was a significant relationship between third graders' gender and their mastery motivation, however, which indicated that third grade boys were more intrinsically motivated in the area of mastery motivation than third grade girls (Table 13). The regression analysis examining the relationship between mothers' parenting style and third graders' judgment motivation did not indicate a relationship between any of the mothers' parenting styles and third graders' judgment motivation (Table 14). Both steps of this analysis did, however, reveal a positive relationship between mothers' income level and third graders' judgment motivation. Essentially, higher

Table 13. Regression of Mothers' Parenting Styles and Third Grade Children's Mastery Motivation (n=140)

	<u>step 1</u>			<u>step 2</u>		
	B	$\beta$	t	B	$\beta$	t
Child's Gender	-3.13	-0.19	-2.28*	-3.15	-0.19	-2.29*
Authoritarian				0.11	0.10	1.07
Permissive				0.12	0.06	0.63
Authoritative				-0.07	-0.09	-1.08
Constant		53.85			54.49	
F		1.68			2.34	
R <sup>2</sup>		0.04			0.07	
$\Delta R^2$					0.03	

\* $p \leq 0.05$

levels of mothers' income predicted higher scores of third graders' judgment motivation. The amount of variance in third graders' classroom motivation explained by mothers' parenting style was low, and the F statistic was not significant.

Table 14. Regression of Mothers' Parenting Styles and Third Grade Children's Judgment Motivation (n=140)

	<u>step 1</u>			<u>step 2</u>		
	B	$\beta$	t	B	$\beta$	t
Income	0.94	0.24	2.28*	0.91	0.23	2.20*
Marital Status	1.03	0.07	0.71	1.08	0.08	0.72
Authoritarian				0.04	0.05	0.64
Permissive				-0.14	-0.08	-0.84
Authoritative				-0.01	-0.01	-0.10
Constant		17.76			19.61	
F		5.77*			2.43*	
R <sup>2</sup>		0.08			0.09	
$\Delta R^2$					0.01	

\* $p \leq 0.05$

After marital status was controlled for in the regression analysis examining fathers' parenting styles and third graders' mastery motivation, fathers' authoritarian parenting was found to have a positive significant relationship with third graders' mastery motivation (Table 15). More specifically, higher scores of fathers' authoritarian parenting predicted higher mastery motivation scores for third graders. Neither permissive nor authoritative parenting styles were found to be significantly related to third graders' mastery motivation. Fathers' marital status was a positive predictor of third graders' mastery motivation in both steps of the regression analysis.

Table 15. Regression of Fathers' Parenting Styles and Third Grade Children's Mastery Motivation (n=71)

	<u>step 1</u>			<u>step 2</u>		
	B	$\beta$	t	B	$\beta$	t
Marital Status	8.85	0.24	2.01*	8.68	0.23	1.93*
Authoritarian				0.32	0.26	1.94*
Permissive				-0.14	-0.06	-0.46
Authoritative				0.02	0.02	0.16
Constant		44.75			34.53	
F		4.04*			2.02	
R <sup>2</sup>		0.06			0.11	
$\Delta R^2$					0.05	

\* $p \leq 0.05$

Fathers' authoritarian parenting was a slightly higher predictor of third graders' mastery motivation than father's marital status (marital status  $\beta=0.23$ ; fathers' authoritarian parenting  $\beta=0.26$ ). The regression analysis investigating the relationship between fathers' parenting styles and third graders' judgment motivation did not indicate significant relationships between any of the fathers' parenting styles and third graders' judgment motivation (Table 16). This analysis revealed that fathers' income was positively related to third graders' judgment motivation. Essentially, fathers' higher income levels predicted higher judgment motivation scores for third graders. The amount of variance in third graders' classroom motivation explained by fathers' parenting style was low, but not as low as the other analyses. The F statistic was not significant.

Table 16. Regression of Fathers' Parenting Styles and Third Grade Children's Judgment Motivation (n=71)

	<u>step 1</u>			<u>step 2</u>		
	B	$\beta$	t	B	$\beta$	t
Marital Status						
Income	1.09	0.28	2.42*	1.15	0.29	2.42*
Authoritarian				0.13	0.14	1.07
Permissive				0.05	0.03	0.23
Authoritative				0.01	0.01	0.08
Constant		18.56			11.71	
F		5.84*			1.89	
R <sup>2</sup>		0.08			0.10	
$\Delta R^2$					0.03	

\* $p \leq 0.05$

#### Teachers' Perceptions

After controlling for mothers' income, marital status, and race, the regression analysis examining parenting styles and teachers' perceptions of children's classroom motivation revealed a negative relationship between mothers' permissive parenting and teachers' perceptions of children's classroom motivation (Table 17). Basically, mothers' higher scores of permissive parenting predicted lower levels of children's classroom motivation as perceived by teachers. Neither mothers' authoritarian nor authoritative parenting styles was found to be significantly related to teachers' perceptions of children's classroom motivation. This analysis also revealed a significant relationship between mothers' race and teachers' perceptions of their children's classroom motivation. Teachers perceived the children of white mothers to be more intrinsically motivated than the children of non-white mothers. There was not a significant

difference between mother's race and permissive parenting as predictors of teachers' perceptions of children's classroom motivation (mother's race  $\beta=0.15$ ; mother's permissive parenting  $\beta=-0.14$ ). The amount of variance in children's classroom motivation as perceived by teachers explained by mothers' parenting style was low (<10%), but the F statistic was significant.

Table 17. Regression of Mothers' Parenting Styles and Teachers' Perceptions of Children's Classroom Motivation (n=217)

	<u>step 1</u>			<u>step 2</u>		
	B	$\beta$	t	B	$\beta$	t
Income	0.33	0.08	0.94	0.25	0.06	0.70
Marital Status	1.64	0.11	1.42	1.62	0.11	1.41
Race	1.89	0.14	1.86*	1.98	0.15	1.94*
Authoritarian				0.11	0.11	1.43
Permissive				-0.25	-0.14	-1.82*
Authoritative				0.06	0.09	1.27
Constant		21.20			17.89	
F		4.92*			3.24*	
R <sup>2</sup>		0.07			0.09	
$\Delta R^2$					0.02	

\* $p \leq 0.05$

In a regression analysis investigating the relationships between fathers' parenting styles and teachers' perceptions of children's classroom motivation, a significant, positive relationship was found between fathers' authoritarian parenting and teachers' perceptions of children's motivation after controlling for father's income (Table 18). Basically, higher scores of authoritarian parenting by fathers predicted higher levels of children's classroom motivation as

Table 18. Regression of Fathers' Parenting Styles and Teachers' Perceptions of Children's Classroom Motivation (n=114)

	<u>step 1</u>			<u>step 2</u>		
	B	$\beta$	t	B	$\beta$	t
Income	1.35	0.28	3.11*	1.22	0.26	2.77*
Authoritarian				0.26	0.24	2.29*
Permissive				-0.17	-0.09	-0.88
Authoritative				0.05	0.06	0.63
Constant		18.65			9.12	
F		9.68*			3.79*	
R <sup>2</sup>		0.08			0.12	
$\Delta R^2$					0.04	

\* $p \leq 0.05$

perceived by the teachers. This analysis also revealed a positive relationship between the control variable of fathers' income and teachers' perceptions of children's classroom motivation, indicating that teachers perceived children of fathers with higher income levels to be more intrinsically motivated. Father's income was only a slightly better predictor than fathers' authoritarian parenting of teachers' perceptions of children's classroom motivation (father's income  $\beta=0.26$ ; fathers' authoritarian parenting  $\beta=0.24$ ). Significant relationships were not found between fathers' permissive and authoritative parenting styles and teachers' perceptions of children's classroom motivation. The amount of variance in children's classroom motivation as perceived by teachers explained by fathers' parenting style was low (but >10%), but the F statistic was significant.

## CHAPTER 5. SUMMARY, DISCUSSION, AND CONCLUSIONS

### Summary

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between parenting styles and children's classroom motivation. Specifically, this study sought to determine the relationships between:

1. Parenting styles: (a) authoritarian, (b) permissive, and (c) authoritative and children's classroom motivation as measured by child interviews.
2. Parenting styles: (a) authoritarian, (b) permissive, and (c) authoritative and children's classroom motivation as measured by teacher perceptions.

The population of this study included 281 first and third grade students and their parents in a mid-sized Southern city. The data set used in this study is part of a larger project conducted by Dr. Garrison at Louisiana State University. Because the sample consisted of volunteers rather than randomly drawn members of the population, the researcher cannot claim that the sample is representative of the population from which it was drawn. The results, then, are limited to the 281 child participants and their families.

Parenting styles data for this study were collected via mailed questionnaires consisting of the Primary Caregivers Practices Report (Robinson et al., 1995) and questions used to obtain demographic information. Motivation data were collected via child interviews using the Self-Report Scale of Intrinsic versus Extrinsic Motivation in the Classroom (Harter, 1981) and the Teacher-Report Scale of Intrinsic versus Extrinsic Motivation in the Classroom (Harter, 1981), which was given to teachers to complete. Sixty-seven teachers completed surveys for this study. The number of students for which each teacher completed surveys ranged from 1 to 11.

Of the participants, the majority of mothers were non-white (57%), mostly African-American, while a majority of fathers were white (61%). The majority of the respondents, both mothers (66%) and fathers (93%), were married or cohabiting. Twenty percent of mothers had a college degree, and 8% of the mothers did not complete high school. Of the fathers, 25% had a college degree, while 6% did not complete high school. Most mothers (70%) and fathers (96%) were employed.

### Discussion

The objectives of this study were to investigate the relationship between parenting styles and children's classroom motivation as measured by child interviews and teachers' perceptions. In general, the results of the current study did not support the researcher's expectations that the authoritative parenting style would be positively related to children's intrinsic motivation, and authoritarian and permissive parenting styles would be negatively related to children's intrinsic motivation.

Two of the 15 correlations between mothers' parenting styles and first and third grade children's classroom motivation were significant. As expected by the researcher, mothers' authoritative parenting was positively correlated with first graders' mastery motivation. This finding was consistent with previous studies that indicated that authoritative, or autonomy-encouraging, parenting leads to higher levels of intrinsic motivation (Ginsburg & Bronstein, 1993; Steinberg, Elmen, & Mounts, 1989). Mothers' authoritarian parenting was found to be positively correlated with third graders' mastery motivation, which was contrary to the researcher's expectation and previous studies that indicated authoritarian, or rigid and

controlling, parenting leads to lower levels of intrinsic motivation in older elementary children and adolescents (Ginsburg & Bronstein, 1993; Steinberg, Elmen, & Mounts, 1989).

Two of the 15 correlations between fathers' parenting styles and first and third grade children's classroom motivation were significant. Fathers' authoritarian parenting was found to be significantly and positively correlated with both third graders' motivation and teachers' perceptions of children's classroom motivation. These findings were contrary to the researcher's expectation and previous studies that indicated authoritarian, or rigid and controlling, parenting leads to lower levels of intrinsic motivation (Ginsburg & Bronstein, 1993; Steinberg, Elmen, & Mounts, 1989). These findings did, however, support the findings of previous research that indicated fathers were more likely to use power assertion, an important characteristic of authoritarian parenting, than mothers (Hart & Robinson, 1994).

Overall, the regression analyses were not significant. The results of the regression analyses examining mothers' parenting styles in relation to first and third grader's mastery and judgment motivation as measured by child interviews produced only 1 significant relationship out of 12. Mothers' authoritative parenting was found to be positively related to first graders' mastery motivation, which indicated that authoritative mothers rear first graders with higher levels of intrinsic motivation. This finding was in the direction expected by the researcher, and it confirms the findings of the previously cited studies.

The results of the regression analyses examining fathers' parenting styles in relation to first and third grader's mastery and judgment motivation as measured by child interviews revealed 2 significant relationships out of 12. Fathers' authoritarian parenting was found to be negatively related to first graders' mastery motivation, which indicated that authoritarian fathers

rear first graders with lower levels of intrinsic motivation. This relationship was in the direction expected by the researcher and identified by previous studies. Contrary to the expectations of the researcher, fathers' authoritarian parenting was found to be positively related to third graders' mastery motivation. This unexpected result indicated that while authoritarian fathers produce first graders with lower levels of intrinsic motivation, they, in contrast, produce third graders with higher levels of intrinsic motivation.

Regression analyses examining the relationship between parenting styles and children's classroom motivation as measured by teacher perceptions produced two significant relationships out of six. Mothers' permissive parenting was negatively related to teachers' perceptions of children's classroom motivation. This finding indicated that permissive mothers produce children who are perceived by their teachers to have lower levels of intrinsic motivation. This relationship was in the direction expected by the researcher and implicated by previous studies. Additionally, this analysis found that fathers' authoritarian parenting was positively related to teachers' perceptions of children's classroom motivation, indicating that teachers' perceive the children of authoritarian fathers to be more intrinsically motivated. This result was not expected, and it was contrary to previous studies (Ginsburg & Bronstein, 1993; Steinberg, Elmen, & Mounts, 1989).

The results of this study were inconclusive and difficult to interpret due to a mixture of expected and unexpected results and few significant relationships between parenting styles and children's classroom motivation. However, the inconclusive results of this study indicate the need for further investigation into how parenting behaviors influence the development of young

children's motivation. It also promotes the need to study mothers and fathers separately in regard to how their possibly different parenting styles influence child outcomes.

### Limitations

The overall sample size of the study was appropriate for the population represented by the study, although missing data reduced the sample size nominally. Divisions of the data were made due to t-test results that indicated significant differences in classroom motivation between first and third graders. Data were further divided by mothers and fathers because 93 of the 290 families in this study were single parent families. This number reduction and division of the data could have influenced the results by reducing the probability of finding significant results.

The mean scores of authoritative parenting style for both mothers and fathers were higher than the theoretical means for that parenting style. Conversely, the mean scores for their authoritarian and permissive parenting styles were lower than the theoretical mean for those parenting styles. As is common in survey research, the mixed results of this study could be due to parents responding with answers they believed to be socially desirable. Parents may have responded with answers they believed were the "correct" answer and not the answers that accurately reflected their parenting behaviors. These social desirability responses would have altered the results of this study.

Review of Belsky's Model of the Determinants of Parenting (1984) reveals several determinants that could possibly affect child outcomes more directly than previously considered, such as parent's work and the quality of the parents' marriage. As indicated in Belsky's model, a child's characteristics also influence child outcomes. It is possible that the results of this study were limited because the child's characteristics were not considered. Perhaps child

characteristics are a more significant influence on children's motivation than parent characteristics, such as parenting style.

Finally, the results of the current study may have been limited due to a lack of understanding of the motivation measure by first graders. The interviewer did not complete two interviews with first graders because the children clearly did not understand the questions, which indicated the possibility that other first graders also did not fully understand the questions they were asked.

#### Implications for Future Research

The inconclusive results of this study offer several implications for future research. One possibility would be a study comprised of a larger sample size with children of the same age. This would eliminate the possibility of assessing developmental differences between age groups, but it would allow researchers to focus on the dependent variable, motivation. It would also provide the opportunity to investigate differences between mothers and fathers more clearly. A further step would be for future research to investigate parenting styles and children's classroom motivation in a longitudinal study. A longitudinal study would allow researchers to make stronger inferences of causality between the two variables over time.

The PCPR (Robinson, et al., 1995) was specifically developed for use with parents of young children. Future research might involve the use of a different measure of parenting styles, such as a measure developed to assess children's perceptions of their parents' style of parenting. Another possibility would be to divide the parenting style measure into dimensions of warmth and control. This division would allow for the investigation of how specific parenting behaviors may influence the development of young children's motivation.

A final possibility for future research would be to investigate different variables in relation to children's classroom motivation. Belsky's (1984) Model of the Determinants of Parenting provides some possible choices, such as parent's work and marital quality. Assessing the motivational orientation of parents might also prove to be an interesting predictor variable of children's motivation. Child characteristics, such as determination and resiliency, should also be considered in future research.

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## APPENDICES

APPENDIX A  
PRIMARY CAREGIVERS PRACTICES REPORT

Below are several statements that people sometimes use to describe parents. Based on your own actions, do you agree or disagree that you, as a parent, could be described in this way ?

<i>I:</i>	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
a. encourage my child to talk about my child's troubles.	1	2	3	4
b. know the names of my child's friends.	1	2	3	4
c. find it difficult to discipline my child.	1	2	3	4
d. give praise when my child is good.	1	2	3	4
e. spank my child when my child is disobedient.	1	2	3	4
f. joke and play with my child.	1	2	3	4
g. don't scold or criticize my child when my child acts against my wishes.	1	2	3	4
h. show sympathy when my child is hurt or frustrated.	1	2	3	4
i. punish my child by taking away privileges with few explanations.	1	2	3	4
j. spoil my child.	1	2	3	4
k. give comfort and understanding when my child is upset.	1	2	3	4
l. have to yell or shout when my child misbehaves.	1	2	3	4
m. am easy going and relaxed with my child.	1	2	3	4
n. allow my child to annoy someone else.	1	2	3	4
o. tell my child about my behavior expectations before the child does an activity.	1	2	3	4
p. scold and criticize my child to make my child improve.	1	2	3	4
q. show patience with my child.	1	2	3	4
r. grab my child when my child is being disobedient	1	2	3	4

Below are several statements that people sometimes use to describe parents. Based on your own actions, do you agree or disagree that you, as a parent, could be described in this way ?

<i>I:</i>	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
s. state punishments to my child but don't actually do them	1	2	3	4
t. respond promptly to my child's needs or feelings	1	2	3	4
u. allow my child to contribute to making family rules	1	2	3	4
v. argue with my child.	1	2	3	4
w. am confident about my parenting abilities.	1	2	3	4
x. explain to my child why rules should be obeyed.	1	2	3	4
y. know that my feelings are more important than my child's feelings.	1	2	3	4
z. tell my child that they appreciate what my child tries to do or accomplish.	1	2	3	4
aa. punish my child by putting my child off somewhere alone with few explanations.	1	2	3	4
bb. encourage my child to talk about the results of his/her actions.	1	2	3	4
cc. consider my child's desires before asking them to do something.	1	2	3	4
dd. express strong anger toward my child.	1	2	3	4
ee. am aware of problems or concerns about my child at school.	1	2	3	4
ff. threaten my child with punishment more often than I give it.	1	2	3	4
gg. express affection to my child by hugging and kissing my child.	1	2	3	4
hh. ignore my child's misbehavior.	1	2	3	4
ii. use physical punishment (spanking, grabbing, pushing, slapping) to discipline my child.	1	2	3	4

Below are several statements that people sometimes use to describe parents. Based on your own actions, do you agree or disagree that you, as a parent, could be described in this way ?

<i>I:</i>	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
jj. apologize to my child when I make a mistake.	1	2	3	4
kk. tell my child what to do.	1	2	3	4
ll. give in when my child makes a fuss about something; for example, in the grocery store or in someone's house.	1	2	3	4
mm. talk over my child's misbehavior with my child.	1	2	3	4
nn. slap my child when my child misbehaves.	1	2	3	4
oo. allow my child to interrupt others.	1	2	3	4
pp. have warm and intimate time with my child.	1	2	3	4
qq. when two children are fighting, I discipline the children first and ask questions later.	1	2	3	4
rr. scold or criticize my child when my child's behavior doesn't meet my expectations.	1	2	3	4
ss. explain to my child how I feel about my child's good and bad behavior.	1	2	3	4
tt. use threats as punishment with little or no justification.	1	2	3	4
uu. think about what my child wants in making plans for the family.	1	2	3	4
vv. tell my child, 'because I said so,' or 'because I am your parent and I want you to,' when my child asks why my child has to obey.	1	2	3	4
ww. are unsure how to solve my child's misbehaviors.	1	2	3	4
xx. explain to my child the consequences of my child's misbehavior.	1	2	3	4
yy. demand that my child do things.	1	2	3	4
zz. emphasize the reasons for rules.	1	2	3	4

APPENDIX B  
ITEMS REMOVED FROM THE PCPR

## ITEMS REMOVED FROM THE PCPR

### Authoritarian

I guide my child with punishment.

I disagree with my child.

I shove my child when my child is disobedient.

### Permissive

I am afraid that disciplining my child for misbehavior will cause my child to dislike me.

I carry out discipline immediately after my child misbehaves.

I use rewards or treats or favors to get my child to obey.

I set strict, well-established rules for my child.

### Authoritative

I encourage my child to freely express himself (or herself) even when disagreeing with me.

I encourage my child to express his or her own opinion.

I redirect my child's behavior when my child is disobedient.

APPENDIX C

SCALE OF INTRINSIC VERSUS EXTRINSIC MOTIVATIONAL ORIENTATION IN THE  
CLASSROOM (CHILD SCALE)

Children's Motivation

Name \_\_\_\_\_

Birthday \_\_\_\_\_

Interview Date/Time \_\_\_\_\_

Interviewer \_\_\_\_\_

Sample Questions

	Really true for me	Sort of true for me		But		Sort of true for me	Really true for me
(a)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some kids would rather play outdoors in their spare time		Other kids would rather watch T.V.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
(b)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some kids like hamburgers better than hot dogs		Other kids like hot dogs better than hamburgers	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
1	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some kids like hard work because it is a challenge		Other kids prefer easy work that they are sure they can do	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	When some kids don't understand something right away they want the teacher to tell them the answer		Other kids would rather try and figure it out by themselves	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some kids work on problems to learn how to solve them		Other kids work on problems because you're supposed to	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some kids almost always think that what the teacher says is OK		Other kids sometimes think their own ideas are better	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some kids know when they've made mistakes without checking with the teacher		Other kids need to check with the teacher to know if they've made a mistake	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some kids like difficult problems because they enjoy trying to figure them out		Other kids don't like to figure out difficult problems	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

	Really true for me	Sort of true for me				Sort of true for me	Really true for me
7	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some kids do their school work because the teacher tells them to	But	Other kids do their school work to find out about a lot of things they've been wanting to know	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	When some kids make a mistake they would rather figure out the right answer by themselves	But	Other kids would rather ask the teacher how to get the right answer	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
9	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some kids know whether or not they're doing well in school without grades	But	Other kids need to have grades to know how well they are doing in school	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
10	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some kids agree with the teacher because they think the teacher is right about most things	But	Other kids don't agree with the teacher sometimes and stick to their own opinion	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
11	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some kids would rather just learn what they have to in school	But	Other kids would rather learn as much as they can	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
12	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some kids like to learn things on their own that interest them	But	Other kids think its better to do things that the teacher thinks they should be learning	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
13	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some kids read things because they are interested in the subject	But	Other kids read things because they know the teacher wants them to	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
14	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some kids need to get their report cards to tell them how they are doing in school	But	Other kids know for themselves how they are doing even before they get their report card	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
15	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	If some kids get stuck on a problem they ask the teacher for help	But	Other kids keep trying to figure out the problem on their own	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

	Really true for me	Sort of true for me				Sort of true for me	Really true for me
16	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some kids like to go on to new work that's at a more difficult level	But	Other kids would rather stick to the assignments which are pretty easy to do	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
17	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some kids think that what the teacher thinks of their work is the most important thing	But	For other kids what <i>they</i> think of their work is the most important thing	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
18	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some kids ask questions in class because they want to learn new things	But	Other kids ask questions because they want the teacher to notice them	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
19	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some kids aren't really sure they've done well on a test until they get their grade on the test	But	Other kids pretty much know how well they did even before they get their grade	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
20	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some kids like the teacher to help them plan what to do next	But	Other kids like to make their own plans for what to do next	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
21	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some kids think they should have a say in what work they do in school	But	Other kids think that the teacher should decide what work they should do	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
22	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some kids like school subjects where it is pretty easy to just learn the answers	But	Other kids like those subjects that make them think pretty hard and figure things out	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
23	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some kids aren't sure if their work is really good or not until the teacher tells them	But	Other kids know if its good or not before the teacher tells them	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
24	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some kids like to try to figure out how to do school assignments on their own	But	Other kids would rather ask the teacher how it should be done	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

	Really true for me	Sort of true for me			Sort of true for me	Really true for me	
25	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some kids do extra projects so they can get better grades	But	Other kids do extra projects because they learn about things that interest them	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
26	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some kids think its best if they decide when to work on each school subject	But	Other kids think that the teacher is the best one to decide when to work on things	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
27	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some kids know they didn't do their best on an assignment when they turn it in	But	Other kids have to wait until the teacher grades it to know that they didn't do as well as they could have	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
28	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some kids don't like difficult school work because they have to work too hard	But	Other kids like difficult schoolwork because they find it more interesting	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
29	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some kids like to do their schoolwork without help	But	Other kids like to have the teacher help them to do their schoolwork	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
30	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some kids have to work really hard to get good grades	But	Other kids work hard because they really like to learn things	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

## Interviewing Observations Checklist

*Circle one category for each item.*

### A. Level of conversational proficiency

1. Very advanced
2. Advanced
3. Typical for age/grade
4. Limited
5. Very limited

### B. Level of cooperation

1. Exceptionally cooperative
2. Cooperative (typical for age/grade)
3. Uncooperative at times
4. Uncooperative throughout the interview

### C. Level of activity

1. Seemed lethargic
2. Typical for age/grade
3. Appeared fidgety or restless at times
4. Overly active for age/grade

### D. Self-confidence

1. Appeared confident and assured
2. Appeared at ease and comfortable (typical)
3. Appeared tense or worried at times
4. Appeared overtly anxious

### E. Care in responding

1. Very slow and hesitant in responding
2. Slow and careful in responding
3. Prompt by careful (typical)
4. At time responded too quickly
5. Impulsive and careless in responding

### F. Attention and concentration

1. Unusually absorbed by the interview
2. Attentive to the interview (typical)
3. Distracted often
4. Consistently inattentive and distracted

Do you have reason to believe this interview may not represent the child (circle one)? No Yes

If yes, why?

Additional comments:

APPENDIX D

TEACHER ASSESSMENT OF INTRINSIC MOTIVATION IN THE CLASSROOM  
(TEACHER SCALE)

Intrinsic Versus Extrinsic Orientation in the Classroom

Teacher's form  
(Harter, 1980)

Child's name \_\_\_\_\_ Class/grade/group \_\_\_\_\_ Rater \_\_\_\_\_

For each pupil, please indicated what you feel to be the child's classroom orientation on each question, in your opinion. First decide what kind of pupil he or she is like, the one described on the left or right, and then indicated whether this is just sort of true or really true for that individual. Thus, for each item, check one of four boxes.

	Really true	Sort of true				Sort of true	Really true
1	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	This pupil prefers easy work he/she can do	OR	This pupil likes hard work that is challenging	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	This pupil doesn't agree with the teacher sometimes and sticks to his/her own opinion	OR	This pupil usually agrees with the teacher about most things	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	This pupil does extra projects to learn about things that interest him/her	OR	This pupil does extra projects to get better grades	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	This pupil likes to have help from the teacher in doing his/her schoolwork	OR	This pupil likes to do his/her schoolwork without help	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	This pupil knows how well he/she is doing without grades or marks	OR	This pupil needs to have grades to know how well he/she is doing in school	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	This pupil likes to go on to new work that's at a more difficult level	OR	This pupil would rather stick to the assignments that are easy to do	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	This pupil almost always thinks that what the teacher says is OK	OR	This pupil sometimes thinks that his/her own ideas are better	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	This pupil does his/her schoolwork because the teacher expects him/her to	OR	This pupil does schoolwork to find out about a lot of things he/she wants to know	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
9	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	This pupil likes to try to figure out how to do school assignments on his/her own	OR	This pupil would rather ask the teacher how it should be done	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
10	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	This pupil isn't sure if his/her work is really good or not until the teacher tells him/her	OR	This pupil knows if it's good or not before the teacher tells him/her	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

## VITA

Kathryn Elizabeth Cramer was born on April 18, 1975, in Baton Rouge, Louisiana. She is the daughter of George and Bettejean Cramer, and she is the wife of Deron Frailie.

In 1997, Kathryn graduated from Louisiana State University with a Bachelor of Science degree in Family, Child, and Consumer Sciences, with a concentration in Human Services Management. She will graduate from Louisiana State University in December 2002, with a Master of Science in Human Ecology, with a concentration in Early Childhood Education.

Kathryn is a member of the Baton Rouge Association for the Education of Young Children and the National Association for the Education of Young Children. She was a co-presenter at the 2000 and 2001 annual conferences for the National Association for the Education of Young Children. Kathryn co-authored "Tell Me a Name Story: A Unique Literacy Experience for Preschool Children and Their Families" which appeared in the January-February 2002 issue of *The Journal of Early Education and Family Review*.

While working toward her graduate degree at Louisiana State University, Kathryn worked for two years as a graduate assistant in the Child Development Laboratory Preschool and for one year as a kindergarten teacher at The Dunham School. She also provided training on various topics for child care providers through Child Care KEY.