

**FAMILY FUNCTIONING PSYCHOSOCIAL INTERACTION GENDER AND
ACADAMIC ACHIEVEMENT AMONG SENIOR SECONDARY SCHOOL STUDENTS
IN KANO STATE**

BY

**MISWARU BELLO
SPS/10/PED/00004**

**A THESIS SUBMITTED TO THE POST GRADUATE SCHOOL THROUGH THE
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION BAYERO UNIVERSITY IN PARTIAL
FULFILLMENT OF THE AWARD OF PhD DEGREE
EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY**

CERTIFICATION

I certify that this research work in its totality was conducted, written and compiled by me. I also certify that to the best of my knowledge, this work has never been presented wholly or in parts for the award of any degree or for publication elsewhere.

MISWARU BELLO
PGS/PED/10/00004

APPROVAL SHEET

This research report has been read and approved as meeting the requirements for the award of PhD Educational Psychology in the Department of Education, Bayero University, Kano.

Supervisor

Professor Muhammad Y. Bichi

Date

Internal Examiner

Professor M.I Yakasai

Date

External Examiner

Professor Aisha Isa Madawaki

Date

Programme Coordinator

Professor Kabiru Isyaku

Date

HOD and Chief Examiner

Professor Talatu M. Garba

Date

Dean PG School

Professor Sa'id A. Babura

Date

DEDICATION

I dedicate this work to my parents and all other parents who are trying their best to educate their children.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

All praises be to Allah, the Lord of the Worlds, the Controller, Sustainer, Who directed everything and made them possible. By His permission, will and wisdom, this research work became possible. I am pleased to express my profound gratitude to my parents who took the burden of my upbringing to date. I am very grateful to my supervisor, Professor Muhammad Yahaya Bichi for his guidance, endurance and hope to see me through. May Allah (SWA) bestow His mercy on him and the entire members of his family both living and deceased. Amin.

I wish to thank Dr. Mansur A. Kiyawa the Dean Faculty of Education, and Professor Talatu Musa Garba HOD Department of Education as well as Professor Muhammad Ibrahim Yakasai. My special thanks to the P.G Coordinator, Professor Muhammad Kabir Isyaku and Dr. Muhammad Auwal Lawal for their guidance and suggestions.

I also wish to thank all my relatives especially Alhaji Aminu Garba Yakasai, Director Schools SUBEB, Kano. Alhaji Habibu Megaskiya an Accountant with Sani Yaro Ahmad Transport Company, and my sister Bilkisu Aminu, a nursing officer with Dutse General Hospital.

I am pleased to thank my friends Dr. Sani R. Yusuf, Dr. Ahmad Garba Faculty of education BUK, Kano. I also thank Professor Shehu Musa, Vice Chancellor, Kano University of Science and Technology (KUST) Wudil, Dr. Ahmad Ali Yakasai Department of Chemistry BUK, Alh. Abdullahi Salihi Dutse of NLG Port Harcourt, as well as CSP, M Z Musa, Alh. Muhammad (Danlami) Sale, Musa Muhammad Yakasai, Mrs. Martha Bitrus Yusuf retired Senior Colleague and others too numerous to mention.

I am grateful to my two wives Mrs. Zulfatu Rabi'u and Zainab Abubakar Sadiq for their patience and cooperation.

Finally, I wish to thank the Staff and Management of Sa'adatu Rimi College of Education for giving me an inservice opportunity to pursue and further my education to this level. May God (Allah) reward all. Amin.

ABSTRACT

This study investigated “Family Functioning, Psycho-Social Interaction and Birth Order on academic achievement of Senior Secondary Schools Students in Kano State”. Ex post facto research design was used for the study. Three hundred and eighty two (382) respondents were randomly selected from thirteen (13) Senior Secondary Schools; within nine Zonal Education Areas in the State form the subject of the study. A modified version of Family Functioning Scale developed by Noller (2006) and Psychosocial Interaction Scale developed by Zimet (1988) were used as instruments for the research. The result of student’s qualifying examination was used as a measure of student’s academic achievement. t-test was used to test gender difference in psychosocial interaction and family functioning, analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to test birth order and students academic achievement, and while chi-square used to test gender difference in family functioning and psychosocial interaction. The findings revealed among others; there is no significant gender difference found between students’ birth order and academic achievement at $f .665$. There is significant difference between students from parents with high and low psychosocial interaction in academic achievement at $t 26.235$. Family functioning differs across gender at $\chi^2 7.268$. Based on the findings some recommendations were offered among others; Parents should fully interact with their children through investigating their school progress report, school visit to develop confidence in their children toward academic success. Parents should remain close to their children/wards and give support to all children, by giving them courage and remaining close to them irrespective of their birth order. Parents should avoid low functioning in supporting their female education. Both male and female children are the same. There is need for both of them to have fair treatment.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Content	Page
Title page	
Certification	i
Approval Page	ii
Dedication	iii
Acknowledgement	iv
Abstract	vi
Table of Contents	vii
List of Tables	xi
Abbreviations	xi
Definition of Term	xiv

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

Content	Page
1.1 Background of the Study	1
1.2 Statement of the Problem	4
1.3 Research objectives	6
1.4 Research Questions	6
1.5 Research Hypotheses	7
1.6 Significance of the Study	8
1.7 Scope and Delimitations	9

CHAPTER TWO: REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Content	Page
2.1 Introduction	10
2.2 Conceptual Background	10
2.2.1 Family Functioning	13
2.2.2 Socioeconomic status (SES)	17
2.2.3 Affluence	18

2.2.4	Poverty	20
2.2.5	Types of Family Roles	20
2.2.6.	Family Role Allocation	22
2.2.7	Developing Healthy Family Roles	23
2.2.8	Family Functioning Models	25
2.2.9	Baldwin-Shaeffers classification of family types	31
2.2.10	Qualities of Responsible Parents	33
2.2.11	Cross-National Research on Academic Achievement	38
2.2.12	Psychosocial Support	40
2.2.13	Psychosocial support delivery	41
2.2.14	Social support and academic achievement	43
2.2.15	Causes of Psychosocial Problems	44
2.2.16	Low Achievement	49
2.2.17	Characteristics of Low Achieving Students	52
2.2.18	Children more dispose to Low Achievement	53
2.2.19	Factors associated with low achievement	54
2.2.20	Health-related causes of low student achievement	58
2.2.21	Characteristics of High and Low Achieving Students	64
2.2.22	High Achievement among School Students	65
2.2.23	Birth Order	68

2.3	Theoretical Framework	72
2.3.1	The family system Theory	72
2.3.2	The Components of Family Systems Theory	76
2.3.3	Psychosocial Theory	77
2.3.4	Theories of Birth Order	84
2.3.5	Birth Order and Personality	85
2.4	Empirical Review	89
2.4.1	Empirical Studies on Family Functioning and Students Achievement.	89
2.4.2	Empirical Studies on psychosocial interaction and Students Achievement	91
2.4.3	Empirical Studies on Birth Order	92
2.5	Summary and Uniqueness of the study	96

CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY

	Content	Page
3.1	Introduction	98
3.2	Research Design	98
3.3	Population and sample of the Study	99
3.3.1	Population	99
3.3.2	Sample	100
3.3.3	Sampling Technique	102
3.4	Instrument for Data Collection	103
3.5	Validation of Data Collection Instruments	103
3.6	Reliability coefficient of the Instrument	105

3.7	Data Collection Procedure	105
3.8	Data Analysis Procedure	106

CHAPTER FOUR: DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

	Content	Page
4.1	Introduction	108
4.2	Descriptive Summary of the Data	108
4.3	Hypotheses Testing	109
4.4	Summary of the Findings	114
4.5	Discussions	115

CHAPTER FIVE: SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

	Content	Page
5.1	Summary	122
5.2	Conclusion	123
5.3	Recommendations	123
5.4	Recommendations for Further Studies	124
	References	125

Appendix I: Introductory Letter

Appendix II: Academic Family Functioning Scale

Appendix III: Academic Psycho-social Interaction Scale

Appendix IV: Table of Sample Size

Appendix V: Raw Data

Appendix VI: Analysis

LIST OF TABLES

Content	Page
Table 3.1: SS II enrolment in Thirteen (13) selected schools in Kano State.	100
Table 3.2: Sample Allocation for Schools Selected.	101
Table 4.1: Descriptive Summary of Variables under Study.	108
Table 4.2: Difference in academic achievement of students from parents with high and low family functioning.	110
Table 4.3: Difference in academic achievement of students from parents with low and high psychosocial interaction.	111
Table 4.4: Students Birth Order and Academic Achievement.	112
Table 4.5: Gender difference and family functioning.	113
Table 4.6: Gender difference and parental psychosocial interaction.	113

ABBREVIATIONS/ACRONYMS

ACACH	Academic Achievement
ANOVA	Analysis of Value Variance
BUK	Bayero University Kano
CSHC	Califonia Health Centers Association
df	Degree of Freedom
Dec	Decision
DfES	Department of Health and Education
ERIC	Educational Resources and Information Clearing House
Fcal	Fishers' f value
FFA	Academic Family Functioning Scale
O'L	Ordinary Level Examination
GCSE	General Certificate in School Examination
GPA's	Grade point averages
IQ	Intelligence Quotient
MAX	Maximum Statistics
MIN	Minimum Statistics
N:	Population.
NLSY:	National Longitudinal Survey of Youth
P	Probability
PPA	Academic Psycho-Social Interaction Scale
PSI	Psychosocial Interaction
RDT	Resource Depletion Theory

r	Spearman Brown r value
rho	Spearman rank order
Rcal	Pearson r value calculated
Rcri	Pearson r value critical
SAT	Standard Achievement Test
Sd	Standard Deviation
SES	Socio economic status
Sig	Significance level
t-cal	t-test calculated value
t-cri	t-test critical value (table value)
UNESCO	United Nation Educational Scientific and Cultural Organisation
UNICEF	United Nation International Children Emergency Fund
U S/USA	United States of America
SSIII	Senior Secondary School III (Final Year Students)
WASCE	West African School Certificate Examination
X	Mean
χ^2 cri	chi-square critical value (table value)
χ^2 cal	chi-square calculated value
5*A-C	Five Credits-Distinctions

DEFINITION OF TERMS

Academic achievement:	Result of SS II Qualifying Examination.
Family Functioning:	Family Effort in Supporting Children/Wards Education.
Psychosocial Interaction:	Social Welfare Assistance given to Children due to Psychological Incapacitation.
Birth Order:	Student's Position at Birth.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the study

Students' academic achievement is part of the main focus of Nigerian governments' effort to realize the need to provide high quality education that can accelerate national development. Parent's school interaction is broadly seen as the psychological and emotional support investment the parents make to school. School engagement is seen as the willingness to devote time and energy at school; attending school, participating in class work, completing assignments, and writing tests all aimed at high academic achievement. First, family routine (providing a structured and organized environment for the adolescent) has been positively linked to school success. Second, school success has been positively linked to nature of learners' parental motivation, irrespective of variables such as gender, grade level, cognitive function, and maternal education. Third, school achievement has been shown to determine positive relation between family process and school performance.

Nigerian students were found to have included at-risk adolescents and middle-class adolescents which is why students' success in school is largely attributed to how teachers function in school and the interplay between teachers and students. However, there are psychological constructs that contribute to success or otherwise of the learners in any school. Issues like individual differences, environment, and traumatic experiences resulting from parental separation, loss of parents due to accident or natural death, parental attitude toward children's education, the children's needs and many other home

factors such as hygiene, nutrition, sibling relation and types of leadership at home can have a strong impact on academic achievement.

Psychosocial interaction is a very important factor for assisting at-risk youth who are noted to be more difficult to engage in school this will in turn help provide appropriate psychosocial support for the students. The protective effects of psychosocial support behaviors have been observed to provide school children with lower support to grasp the course instruction in school. Students who are psychosocially supported are likely to have lower levels of problem behaviors (e.g., delinquency, substance abuse, emotional and behavioral problems) that are associated with decreased school performance and decreased incidence of school drop. However, among economically disadvantaged Nigerian parents psychosocial support has often become a very difficult task to deal with owing to the nature of their inability to give proper attention to the children due to routine work. Some Nigerian parents often lack understanding of what and when their children are in need of support especially social, emotional or psychological in school. Studies on family functioning have equally revealed that home environment and economic status affect the performance of children either positively or negatively. Muhammad (2003) opined that supporting children is the best investment which may not be only narrowed to what the parents are spending or have spent on the child in terms of material resources but can also include the parents' attitude, monitoring child's health, reward and punishment.

Parents often experience difficulty in discharging their function effectively and efficiently due poor economy and or tradition. In most Nigerian schools principals often complain

about parental support to the children, poor family engagement and reinforcement of children education. Children whose parents provide high parental support in their educational matters are likely to be successful in school whereas those children whose do not give functional support are more likely to be at disadvantaged position at school especially in passing examination to obtain minimum qualification for furthering their education. It is therefore very important for parents to function very well to help the children and the nation to realize the primary objective of the national goals of education.

The home is the first school of any child where he acquires values; education, culture, and respect for one another. In essence, the levels of family functioning and the way the innate tendencies are transmitted to the child as well as level of interaction between the child and parents will have a strong impact on child scholarly performance. Other siblings and neighbours also contribute to how the child performs at school. Thus, family members play crucial role in child's behaviour, ability and the development of skills and knowledge (Bello 2008). In this respect, family nutrition, the health of especially the mother and her emotional situation can influence child's school achievement.

The concept of family functioning implies that, the individual parent is consciously aware and clearly understands the task and responsibilities entailed by having off-springs and is highly committed to the performance of these duties to the best of his ability. (Ahmed, 2011) states that family functioning demands careful planning and assessment of parental financial capacity and emotional readiness to bring up a child. Family functioning is possession of sufficient knowledge by the parents of the tremendous influences she/he has on the child and a commitment to positively direct the child's development.

Another important aspect of education in Nigeria is gender disparity in enrolment especially in many states of the north. This was largely due to tradition, sheer misconception of the value attached to western education and lack of wider publicity among the populace. Majority of parents often feel that girls will be supported by their parents only and husband later when they married. The tradition does not permit girls in especially some of the local areas to cope with the challenges of contemporary Nigeria in education and other fields of human endeavour. The complicity involved in female doctors to investigate and diagnose female patients is a challenge to allow girls to pursue education to highest possible level.

Psychosocial support of parents to their children influences the basic intellectual development of children and adolescents at schools. Psychosocial supports produce positive school achievement. Family functioning that denies psychosocial support and gender parity may lead to difficulty realizing children full potentiality.

1.2 Statement of the problem

Children of school age are usually found in our streets playing, begging or hawking. This was resulted from inability of many parents to show their concern on the education of their children. Despite government effort in providing pre and compulsory education to all Nigerian citizen, the attitude of keeping large family size in North Western Nigeria and Kano in particular makes it difficult for the parents to carter for the needs and support of young children in terms of their primary needs which includes; food, shelter, and clothing. In some cases were the parents are not able to provide these basic needs for the children, they may end up fending on their own in search of sustenance and meeting their basic needs. Parents who are not able to provide basic needs of children and monitor

their emotion ware about and welfare are termed as low family functioning parents. Base on this the researcher intended to find out, do children from high and low parental family functioning achieve differently?

Majority of parents especially in this part of the country do not interact much with their children, this may be due to parental schedule of duties at office especially among most civil servants, nature of Entrepreneurship at market or farm work among many business men and rural parents. The children are allowed on their own with little or no guidance. This lack of interaction instigated the children to engage in delinquent acts or develop emotions and become nuisance to the immediate community. The risk factor involve in poor interaction involved role and protective factors. The risk factors include lack of parental education, large number of children to associate with and incorporative environment. Base on this the researcher intended to find out do parental high and low psychosocial interaction significantly affect students' academic performance?

In the Hausa Fulani tradition, most first born are not sanctioned in attitude and behavior, they were seen as family pets (Suleman, 1990). Another popular tradition was the children are reared by grandparents who want give the grand children comfort and pleasure. The result of this type of rearing practice may cause either too much freedom or indecent behavior; rarely the grandees halt indecent behaviours among the children they are caring for. The later borns sometimes supper from parental resource depletion which makes it difficult for the parents to support the children education at retirement. Based on this the researcher intended to find out; do children from different birth order perform differently in their academic performance?

Cognizance to these problems, the research offers to investigate whether there is significant effect of parental family functioning, psychosocial interaction and birth order on academic achievement among Senior Secondary School Students in Kano State.

1.3 Research objectives

1. To find out if there is significant difference in academic achievement between students from parents with high and low family functioning among Senior Secondary School Students in Kano State.
2. To find out if there is significant difference in the academic achievement between students from parents with high and low psychosocial interaction among Senior Secondary School Students in Kano State.
3. To find out if there is significant difference in the academic achievement between 1st, 2nd, 3rd and other birth order among Senior Secondary School Students in Kano State.
4. To find out if there is significant gender difference in high and low parental family functioning among Senior Secondary School Students in Kano State.
5. To find out if there is significant gender difference in high and low parental psychosocial interaction among Senior Secondary School Students in Kano State.

1.4 Research questions

1. Is there any significant difference in academic achievement between students from parents with high and low family functioning among Senior Secondary School Students in Kano State?

2. Is there any significant difference in the academic achievement between students from parents with high and low psychosocial interaction among Senior Secondary School Students in Kano State?
3. Is there any significant difference in the academic achievement between 1st, 2nd, 3rd and other birth order among Senior Secondary School Students in Kano State?
4. Is there any significant gender difference in high and low parental family functioning among Senior Secondary School Students in Kano State?
5. Is there any significant gender difference in high and low parental psychosocial interaction among Senior Secondary School Students in Kano State?

1.5 Hypotheses

1. There is no significant difference in academic achievement between students from parents with high and low family functioning among Senior Secondary School Students in Kano State.
2. There is no significant difference in the academic achievement between students from parents with high and low psychosocial interaction among Senior Secondary School Students in Kano State.
3. There is no significant difference in the academic achievement between 1st, 2nd, 3rd and other birth order among Senior Secondary School Students in Kano State
4. There is no significant gender difference in high and low parental family functioning among Senior Secondary School Students in Kano State.
5. There is no significant gender difference in high and low parental psychosocial interaction among Senior Secondary School Students in Kano State.

1.6 Significance of the study

In line with Nigeria's need to produce self-reliant citizens, the need to develop high achieving students cannot be overemphasized. Producing them will help to reduce pressure on labour market, public enterprises as well as motivating students to open up their minds to take vocational skills that will call for total eradication of boredom within the society.

The findings of this research, hopefully will provide a data to the educational administrators who are responsible for inculcating the right type of attitudes among the youths for all round human development, the State Ministry of Education, Nigeria Social Welfare Offices in their referral services, State and Federal Ministries of Youths and Sports as well as students who have hope both on public and private entrepreneurship. The research could also be important to parents; nuclear, extended and compound family, wards and care givers in ways and manners through which they train and interact with their children. The research is hoped to provide members of the civil society in defence to young children's domestic labour and house help, school administrators, especially principals, teachers and other education stakeholders in organising learning experiences. The findings of this research is hoped to be useful to Nongovernmental Organisations (NGOs), Community Based Organisations (CBOs), education donor agencies such as national, international, philanthropist and other trade unions especially in reducing the rate and menace of school dropout as well as guiding the students to perform well in their school achievement. However, the findings of this study is not definitive, it is hoped to provide a basis for further research.

1.7 Scope and Delimitation of the study

The scope of this study borders on finding the effect between variables underlying family functioning such as socioeconomic status of parents, child health, parental school visits, home sanitation, quality nutrition, home tune such as parental relationships (mother and father) among themselves and either of the two with children in respect of their children who are attending secondary school. It also seeks to identify the role of parental psychosocial support and its impact on causing high and low achievement among secondary school students. Effect of birth order on students' achievement and parental family functioning and psychosocial interaction will also be surveyed.

Thirteen (13) selected schools in Kano State, five for girls and the eight for boys. Only SS II students were used in the study. The selection of the schools for the purpose of this study had cut across the whole State so as to get clear sample opinion or representation of the entire State. It is hoped that this study will bring to light those factors that affect or influence the success or other wise of secondary school students in the state based on the psychosocial interaction, parental family functioning and birth order providing the basis for further researches to take place on parental role in the high achievement.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.1 Introduction

This chapter presents a review of related literature based on the following sub headings.

2.2 Conceptual Background

2.3 Theoretical Background

2.4 Empirical Research

2.5 Summary and Uniqueness of the study

2.2 Conceptual Background

The family is the child's first, and longest-lasting, context for development. Compared with other species, human children develop slowly, requiring years of support and teaching before they master the complexities of their physical and social environment and are ready to be independent. This gradual journey to maturity has left an imprint on human social organization everywhere. Families are pervasive, and parenting is universally important in children's lives. Children who lack a satisfying, supportive family life are likely to crave for it, and some, find what they seek in extended family.

Other contexts also mould children's development, but in power and breadth of influence, none equals the family (Ahmed, 2011). The attachments children form with parents and siblings usually last a lifetime, and they serve as models for relationships in the wider world of neighbourhood and school. Within the family, children experience their first social conflicts. Discipline by parents and arguments with siblings provide important

lessons in compliance and cooperation and opportunities to learn how to influence the behaviour of others. Finally, within the family children learn language, skills and social and moral values of their culture (Ahmed 2011).

In the context of this study we begin our discussion of the family by examining why this social unit came into being and has survived for thousands of years. Next, the description of current view of the family as a *social system* with many interacting influences on the child will follow; then a closer look at the family as the core socializing agency of society by considering child-rearing styles, that influences them and their consequences for children's development. Also recent social changes that have led to great diversity in family life styles will be discussed, plus the factors that contribute to the vulnerability of the family that lead to the breakdown of supportive parent-child relationships. The family, among the oldest and most fundamental of human institutions, consists of a man and woman who are generally expected to produce children, care for them, and help train them in the ways of their culture. This is simple family, known as the conjugal, elementary, or nuclear family, and is present in virtually all known societies (Suleman, 1990).

Long before the emergence of tribal society, people began to regulate themselves by elaborating rules governing sexual pairing. These rules were, and remain, extremely diverse, although prohibitions against incest-sexual relations between close family members-have been virtually universal (Suleman, 1990). The incest taboo requires individuals to find and marry mates from outside their own group, thus reducing the possibilities for serious conflict within the family and also increasing the social interaction between family groups. Generally speaking, people encounter two families:

the family they are born into, or family of orientation, and the family they formed when they marry, the family of procreation. Kinship bonds link these two families into more complex system (Suleman, 1990).

In traditional, preindustrial societies, kinship ties constitute the primary forms of social organization, regulating the transfer of property, providing structures of authority, and forming the basis for the organization of production and distribution. In such societies the nuclear family tends to be overshadowed by the larger network of kin, (Kertzer and Barbagli, 2002). In other societies, including that of the modern industrial state, kinship matters lies in shaping human lives. Individuals rely on a complex array of institutions, mosques, churches and schools, to organize their activities into orderly and socially useful endeavours. In such societies the nuclear family tends to be predominant, and kin relations tend to be of secondary importance to the community.

The family is very important in shaping the personality of the child, not only because so many parents-child relationships are proto-types of adults' situations, but also because in the family the child consciously assimilates many attitudes and social expectations cherished by the community in which he lives (Lawal, 2011). Adult's speeches, remarks, attitudes, behaviours and so forth have their effects upon the child who is a perfect listener and observer. From the family, the child develops a rigid concept of how people ought to act when they assume certain roles. At times, the family standards of behaviour are deliberately imposed upon the child through threats or punishment. In fact, the child's familiarity with cultural demands occurs within the family's atmosphere. His first opportunity to observe how human beings live with one another is by observation of the relationship existing between his father and mother. His approach to life is from what he

observed out of his early experience. studies in recent years have shown the effect of family influence on personality development of the child e.g. neurotic parents are often directly responsible for similar characteristics found in their children (those who behave abnormally (Lawal, 2011). Similarly, those who are rejected or denied affection by their parents are often very likely to be aggressive, quarrelsome, rebellious and troublesome. The over protected child is likely to be submissive, anxious, dependent and lacking in self-reliance (Lawal, 2011).

2.2.1 Family Functioning

Besides promoting survival of its members, the family unit of our evolutionary ancestors performed the following vital services for society:

- a. *Reproduction.* Replacing dying members.
- b. *Economics services.* Producing and distributing goods and services.
- c. *Social order.* Devising procedures for reducing conflict and maintaining order.
- d. *Socialization.* Training the young to become competent, participating members of society.
- e. *Emotional support.* Helping others surmount emotional crises and fostering in each person a sense of commitment and purpose (Parke and Kellam, 1994).

In the early history of species, families probably served all or most of these functions. But as societies became more complex, the demands placed on the family became too much for it to sustain alone. Consequently, other institutions developed to assist with certain functions, and families became linked to larger social structures. For examples, political and legal institutions assumed responsibility for ensuring societal order, and

schools built on the family's socialization function. Religious institutions supplemented both child-rearing and emotional support functions by offering family members educational services and beliefs that enhanced their sense of purpose (Parke and Kellam, 1994).

Although some family members still carry out economic tasks together (as in family-run farms and businesses), this function has largely been taken over by institutions that make up the world of work. The contemporary family consumes far more goods and services than it produces. Consequently, whereas children used to contribute to families' economic wellbeing, today they are economic liabilities. According to a conservative estimate, today's new parents will spend about \$185,000 in the United States and \$168,000 in Canada to rear a child from birth to age 18, and many will incur substantial additional expense for higher education and financial dependency during emerging adulthood—a reality that has contributed to the declining birth rate in industrialized nations (Child Care Advocacy Association of Canada, 2004; U.S. Department of Agriculture, 2004). Although some functions are shared with other institutions, three important ones especially concerned with children—reproduction, socialization, and emotional support—remain primarily the province of the family. Researchers interested in finding out how families fulfill these functions take a social systems perspective, viewing the family as a complex set of interacting relationships influenced by the larger social context (Zinn, Maxine, Stanley 2002).

In preliterate cultures, and even in Western societies until fairly recently, the family was an all-purpose institution (Kerl, 2010). The network of kin provided the nuclear family with economic assistance; the household was the principal unit of production as well as

of consumption; and the complex rules of kinship regulated sexual behaviour and helped assure the orderly reproduction of society. The family head (father) is typically a religious leader and spokesperson for the family in public matters. Countless aspects of daily life were thus organized in terms of families, kin groups, residence, and decent rules that prevailed (Kerl, 2010). In contemporary industrial societies the family is a much less comprehensive institution because specialized institutions have taken over many of the responsibilities that were once the families'. For administration and production, the home has been replaced by the office and the factory. The Mosque/church and the school carry much of the burden of sacred and secular training. The legal, medical, and other professions provide much of the specialized assistance, counseling, and support that the extended family once supplied. Nevertheless, the family continues to play an important role in modern life. It remains the primary group where intimacy and affection can be freely expressed; it is still the most broadly satisfactory setting for the primary care of infants (Amato and Fower, 2002). In essence, the family has itself become a specialized institution whose unique mission is to provide the emotional support that the larger, more impersonal worlds of educational, work and politics do not.

With this transformation in family functioning, momentous changes have occurred in the nature of the husband-wife bond and in the relations between parents and children (Collins and Laursen 2004). In traditional societies marked by extensive kin relations, the nuclear family is only a small component of a large system. Until comparatively recent times, parents had the most powerful voice in deciding when and whom their children would marry. The nuclear family was neither economically nor emotionally self-sufficient. It is embedded in a thick web of social obligations that made the nuclear

family, and the wishes of the people in it, subordinate to the larger family of which it was a part. Furthermore, the nuclear family traditionally was not the intensely emotional relationship that it characteristically is today. Infants were indulged to the extent that hard work and scarce resources permitted, but at what today would be regarded a very tender age, children were expected to begin to shoulder serious adult responsibilities (Collins and Laursen, 2004).

This pattern of family functioning began to unravel with the beginning of the enlightenment and the Industrial Revolution. Aspirations for greater personal freedom blended with and reinforced changing economic conditions to produce a slow but accelerating movement toward more independent nuclear families that depended less on the expanded kin network. As a result, the expanded kin network slowly lost power. The change began among the more wealthy and secure. With the advance of industrialism and the rapid rise in standards of living, more and more couples broke away from the kin network. Emphasis shifted to the couple and their needs: the nuclear family began to become more self-sufficient in both economic and emotional ways. Husbands and wives were expected to be loving companions, not just helpmates. Children assumed a more prominent place in the family relations as attention shifted to themes of emotional maturity and personal development.

The entire character of family functioning has undergone change in the last several centuries, (Glick, 2000). Changes that first swept western societies are now also affecting non-western cultures and the modernizing sectors of the developing world. The practice of child marriage, for example, is no longer officially sanctioned in India; the traditional extended family of China has been almost completely dismantled in favour of nuclear

families; all but the most remote villages show signs of these changes (Glick, 2000). As industry spreads, as markets grow, as wage labour replaces subsistence agriculture, the nuclear family began to predominate, and ties to relatives weaken. Couples tended to become more autonomous, and family functions turned inward, focusing more and more on private concerns.

2.2.2 Socioeconomic status (SES)

SES is an index that combines years of education, prestige and skill required by ones income-factors that are interrelated because educational attainment influences career opportunities and earnings. As SES rises and falls, parents and children face changing circumstances that affect family functioning with each component of SES contribution. Parental education and earnings exert substantial influences, with occupation playing a lesser but nevertheless important role (Duncan and Magnusson, 2003). SES is linked to child-rearing values and expectations. When asked about personal qualities they desire for their children, lower-SES parents tend to emphasize external characteristics, such as obedience, politeness, neatness, and cleanliness. In contrast, higher-SES parents emphasize psychological traits, such as curiosity, happiness, self-direction, cognitive and social maturity (Duncan and Magnusson, 2003). In addition, fathers in higher-SES families tend to be more involved in child rearing a household responsibility. Lower-SES fathers, partly because of gender-stereotyped beliefs and partly through economic necessity, focus more on the provider role (Rank, 2000). These differences are reflected in family interaction. Parents higher in SES talk to, read to, and otherwise stimulate their babies and preschoolers more. When their children are older, higher SES parents use more warmth, explanations, inductive discipline, and verbal praise and set higher

developmental goals for their children. Commands (“You do that because I told you to”), criticism, and physical punishment all occur more often in low-SES households (Bradley and Corwayn, 2003).

Education contributes substantially to these variations in child rearing. Higher-SES parents’ interest in providing verbal stimulation and nurturing inner traits is supported by years of schooling, during which they learned to think about abstract, subjective ideas (Uribe, Levine and Levine, 1994). Also, the greater economic security of higher-SES parents permits them to devote more time, energy and material resources to nurturing their children psychological characteristics. High levels of stress sparked by economic insecurity, along with a stronger belief in the value of physical punishment, contribute to low-SES parents’ greater use of coercive discipline (Pinderhughes et al., 2000). Furthermore, many lower-SES parents feel a sense of powerlessness and lack of influence in their relationships beyond the home. At work, for example, they have to obey the rule of others in positions of power and authority. When they get home, their parent-child interaction seems to duplicate these experiences-but now they are in the authority role. Higher-SES parents, in contrast, have more control over their own lives. At work, they are used to making independent decisions and convincing others of their point of view. At home, they are more likely to teach these skills to their children (Greenberger, O’Neil, and Nagel, 1994).

2.2.3 Affluence

Despite advanced education and material wealth, affluent parents-who are widely assumed to give their youngsters every advantage-too often fail to engage in parenting that promotes healthy development. In several studies, researchers followed youths

growing up in high-SES suburbs through the adolescent years (Luthar and Latendresse, 2005). By seventh grade, many showed serious problems that worsened in high school. For example, they were more likely to engage in substance use and to report high levels of anxiety and depression than inner-city, low-SES youths (Luthar and Becker, 2002). Furthermore, among affluent teenagers, use of cigarettes, alcohol, hard drugs, and marijuana was correlated with anxiety and depression, suggesting that these wealthy young people took drugs to self-medicate—a practice that predicts persistent abuse. By eleventh grade, 20 percent had coexisting substance abuse, emotional, academic and behaviour problems (Luthar and Sexton, 2004). Research by (Luthar and Becker, 2002) indicates that they often experience two adverse parenting conditions:

- *Excessive achievement pressures:* Adolescents whose parents value their accomplishments more than their character are more likely to display anxiety, depression, and substance use. These young people often view achievement failures as personal failures.
- *Isolation from adults.* Poorly adjusted youths report both less parental after-school supervision and less parental emotional closeness than their better-adjusted counterparts. And like their professionally and socially occupied parents, many of these teenagers lead overscheduled lives, in which an excessive number of activities keep them busy but disconnected from their families (Luthar and Becker, 2007). Overall, wealthy parents are nearly as physically and emotionally unavailable to their youngsters' inner-city parents coping with serious financial strain.

Interestingly, for both affluent and inner-city youths, a simple routine-eating dinner with parents-is associated with a reduction in adjustment difficulties, even after many other aspects of parenting are controlled (Luthar and Latendress, 2005). Interventions that make wealthy parents aware of the high costs of a competitive, overscheduled lifestyle and minimal involvement with their children are badly needed.

2.2.4 Poverty

When families slip into poverty, effective parenting and children's development are profoundly threatened. The children had only one set meal (breakfast), otherwise eat whenever they were hungry or bored. Besides stress and conflict, reduced parental involvement and depleted home learning environments profoundly affect poor children's cognitive and emotional well-being (Duncan & Brooks-Gunn, 2000). As noted earlier, poverty that begins early and persists has devastating effects on children's physical and mental health, intelligence, and school achievement.

2.2.5 Types of Family Roles

Family roles are the recurrent patterns of behavior by which individuals fulfill family functions and needs, (Epstein, Bishop, Ryan, Miller, and Keitner, 1993) Individual members of families occupy certain roles such as child, sibling, and grandchild. Along with roles come certain social and family expectations for how those roles should be fulfilled. For example, parents are expected to teach, discipline, and provide for their children, and children are expected to cooperate and respect their parents. As family members age, they take on additional roles, such as becoming a spouse, parent, or

grandparent. A person's role is always expanding or changing, depending upon his or her age and family stage. Individuals within a family have both instrumental and affective roles to fulfill. Each serves an important function in maintaining healthy family functioning. Instrumental roles are concerned with the provision of physical resources (e.g., food, clothing, and shelter), decision-making and family management. Affective roles exist to provide emotional support and encouragement to family members. Both sets of roles must be present for healthy family functioning. In addition, families must also consider issues of roles allocation and accountability. There are many roles within a family; however, researchers like Epstein, Bishop, Ryan, Miller, and Keitner, (1993), have also identified the following five roles as being essential for a healthy family.

Provision of Resources

Providing resources, such as money, food, clothing, and shelter, for all family members is one of the most basic, yet important, roles within a family. This is primarily an instrumental role.

Nurturance and Support

Nurturing and supporting other family members is primarily an affective role and includes providing comfort, warmth, and reassurance for family members. Examples of this role are a parent comforting a child after he/she has a bad day at school, or family members supporting one another after the death of a loved one.

Life Skills Development

The life skills development role includes the physical emotional, educational, and social development of children and adults. Examples of this role are a parent helping a child make it through school, or a parent helping a young adult child decide on a career path.

Maintenance and Management of the Family System

This fourth role involves many tasks, including leadership, decision making, handling family finances, and maintaining appropriate roles with respect to extended family, friends and neighbors. Other responsibilities of this role include maintaining discipline and enforcing behavioral standards.

2.2.6 Family Role Allocation

Role allocation is the assignment of responsibilities within a family that enables the family to function properly. Families have to make many decisions, often on a daily basis, about who will be responsible for completing a certain task or fulfilling a particular responsibility within the family. For example, families must decide who will take out the trash, who will take the children to school, who will cook dinner, who will watch the children after they return from school, which will work and provide financial support for the family, etc. In healthy families, roles are assigned in such a way that family members are not overburdened by a particular task. Role accountability refers to a family member's sense of responsibility for completing the tasks of an assigned role. In healthy families, there are procedures in place which ensure that necessary family functions are fulfilled. For example, parents in healthy families understand that they are responsible for disciplining their children. When discipline is needed, they do not hesitate. These parents know that a failure to fulfill this role properly will result in child behavior problems which will disrupt the family's ability to function efficient.

2.2.7 Developing Healthy Family Roles

The assigning and carrying out of family roles can be a difficult task, requiring tremendous effort on the part of individual family members. However, listed below are some guidelines that can help families make this process easier, leading to healthier functioning of the family according to Shaffer and Kipp (2010) are:

Establish Clear Roles

Roles should be clearly identifiable. Individual family members must know and acknowledge their roles and responsibilities. For example, in healthy families, mothers and fathers have a clear understanding of their role as parents. They are to provide physical resources (e.g., food, clothing, and shelter), discipline, and a supportive, nurturing environment that facilitates their children's physical and emotional development. Families that are having difficulties often find that their family roles are not well defined and individual members do not understand what is expected of them. Establishing clear roles helps a family function more effectively because each member knows what he/she is expected to accomplish. If these individuals fail to fulfill their roles then other family members might have to do extra work, making them feel resentful and overburdened, thus hurting the functioning of the family.

Allow for Flexibility

Flexibility in roles is essential in a healthy family. Family roles naturally change over time. They also may change during times of crisis, such as when a family member becomes seriously ill or unexpectedly dies. The difference between healthy and unhealthy families in these situations is the healthy family's ability to adjust and adapt, which often requires a temporary or permanent shift in roles. In the case of illness or death, it is

sometimes necessary for other family members to take on additional roles (e.g., becoming a financial provider).

Allocate Roles Fairly

In healthy families, every member is responsible for fulfilling certain roles. These roles are spread among the various members so that no one is asked to take on too many responsibilities. Problems arise if one family member is forced to fulfill too many roles. An example of this is when fulltime working mothers are expected to take care of the children and complete the majority of household tasks with little assistance from other family members. It is important to discuss, as a family, each member's understanding of the roles he or she has been assigned. If someone feels overburdened and unable to fulfill that particular role then changes may be needed to support the a person discharging the responsibility.

Be Responsible in Fulfilling Family Roles

Families that function well have members who take their roles seriously and do their best to fulfill their duties. Members who fail to take their roles seriously, or who refuse to carry out their roles, can create significant problems for the entire family. An example of failing to fulfill a role is when a parent does not provide adequate physical and emotional support for his/her children. There are many problems that can result from this failure, including behavior problems, depression, and low self-esteem. Willingness to take responsibility for one's roles contributes building a healthy family.

Focus on Family Strengths

Establishing clear, flexible roles is a key to successful family functioning. Research indicates that families who do so will not only be able to deal with everyday family life,

but also will be better equipped to handle unexpected family crises, (Family Therapy News 1990). In families where clear, flexible roles exist, individual members will be much more likely to take their responsibilities seriously; Structure can affect Academic Achievement either positively or negatively. The cause of poor academic performance have attributed to a combination of personal and institutional factors (Emeke 1984). Personal factors relate to the individual's intelligence, knowledge and ability. While institutional factors are family or parental influences, societal influences, institutional influences and school related factors-students/teachers' rapport, teacher related factors, accommodation and living conditions. In the same vein, (Wiseman 1973), (Sogbetan 1981) in (Hassan 1983) among others have examined the causes of poor academic performance among secondary school students. Some of the factors identified are intellectual ability, poor study habit, achievement motivation, lack of vocational goals, low self-concept, low socio-economic status of the family, poor family structure and anxiety. The consequences of these include indiscipline in schools and low level of educational standard.

2.2.8 Family Functioning Models

A. Schiamberg (1983) Family Functions Models

1. Socialization of children
2. Economic cooperation & division of labor
3. Care, supervision, monitoring, and interaction
4. Legitimizing sexual relations
5. Reproduction

6. Provision of status: Social-familial attributes (SES, location)

Ascribed – birth order

Achieved – based on individual's effort

7. Affection, emotional support & companionship

B. Callaghan (1987) family functions models emphasise characteristics of healthy families challenge

1. Clearly identified hierarchy

2. Well-defined parental roles

3. Flexibility & adaptability- can respond to situational & maturational crises

4. Consistent, clear rules & expectations

5. Consistent affection

6. Consistent limit-setting

7. Open communication, bi-directional

8. Increased degree of support nurturance and acceptance of family members

C. Minuchian (1978) family functions models emphasis characteristics of dysfunctional families

1. Rigidity – lack of flexibility

2. Lack of individuation – enmeshment / loss of autonomy

3. Extreme detachment

4. Scapegoat – family member (often child) who is the object of displaced conflict/criticism

5. Triangulation – detouring conflict between 2 people by involving a third person, thereby stabilizing the relationship between the original pair

6. Faulty problem solving skills
7. Conflict avoidance
8. Inconsistent application of affection/discipline
9. Low levels of support/nurturance/acceptance
10. Increased degree of expressed hostility towards each other/other family members.

D. Baldwin-Shaeffer parental behaviour model

Central to this family model is the belief that specific parental behaviour results in both specific child-rearing techniques and specific emotional and behavioural outcomes in the child. The home climate is determined by the parent's level of affection for the child, his/her level of involvement and the specific control dimensions/techniques utilized (Ronald, Rohner, Khaleque, Cournoyer 2002).

a. Authoritative child rearing. This is the most successful approach to child-rearing- involves high acceptance and involvement, adaptive control techniques, and appropriate autonomy granting. Authoritative parents are warm, attentive and sensitive to their child's needs. They establish an enjoyable, emotionally fulfilling parent child relationship that draws the child into close connection. At the same time, authoritative parents exercise firm, reasonable control of their child's behaviour: They insist on appropriate maturity give reasons for their expectations, use disciplinary encounters as "teaching moments" to promote the child's self-regulation, and monitor their child's whereabouts and activities. Finally authoritative parents engage in gradual appropriate *autonomy granting*, allowing the child to make decisions in areas where he is ready to make choices. They also place a premium on communication, encouraging the child to express her thoughts, feelings, and desires. And when parent and child disagree, authoritative

parents engage in joint decision making when possible. Their willingness to accommodate to the child's perspective increases the likelihood that the child will listen to their perspective in situations where compliance is vital (Kuczynsh and Lollis, 2002).

Throughout childhood and adolescence, authoritative parenting is linked to many aspects of competence. These include an upbeat mood, self-control, task persistence, and cooperativeness during the preschool years and, at older age, high self-esteem, responsiveness to parents' view, social and moral maturity and favourable school performance (Amato and Fowler, 2002).

b. Authoritarian child rearing: Parents who use an authoritarian child-rearing style are low in acceptance and involvement, high in coercive control, and low in autonomy granting. Authoritarian parents appear cold and rejecting: they frequently degrade their child by mocking and putting her down. To exert control, they yell, command, criticize and threaten. "Do it because I said so!" is their attitude. If the child disobeys, authoritarian parents resort to force and punishment. They also make decisions for their child and expect the child to accept their word unquestioningly. If the child does not, authoritarian parents resort to force and punishment. Children of authoritarian parents are anxious and unhappy, are low in self-esteem and self-reliance, and tend to react with hostility when frustrated. Like their parents, they resort to force when they do not get their way; boys, especially, show high rates of anger and defiance. Although girls also engage in acting-out behaviour, they are more likely to be dependent, lacking interest in exploration, and overwhelmed by challenging tasks (Hart et al, 2004; Nix et al, 1999). Children and adolescent exposed to the authoritarian style typically do poorly in school. However, because of their parents' concern with controlling their behaviour, they tend to

achieve better and to commit fewer antisocial acts than peers with undemanding parents—that is, those whose parents use the two styles.

The authoritarian style is based in favour of parents' needs; it suppresses children's self-expression and independence. Growing evidence indicates that authoritarian parents' form of control contributes greatly to their children's adjustment problems. In addition to unwarranted direct control ("do what I say!"), authoritarian parents engage in a more subtle type called *psychological control*-behaviours that intrude on and manipulate children's verbal expressions, individuality, and attachments to parents. (Barber, 1996). These parents-out of desire to decide virtually everything for the child-frequently interrupt or put down the child's ideas, decisions, or choice of friends. When they are dissatisfied, they withdraw love, making their affection or attention contingent on the child's compliance with their wishes. And they harbour excessively high expectations, insisting that the child meet an absolute standard rather than a standard that fits the child's developing capacities. Children subjected to psychological control are robbed of their individuality. They exhibit both the anxious, withdrawn response and the defiant, aggressive behaviours that are linked to parental authoritarianism (Barber and Harmon, 2002).

c. Permissive child rearing: The permissive child rearing style is warm and accepting. Rather than being involved, however, parents are either overindulgent or inattentive. Permissive parents engage in little *control* of their children's behaviours. Instead of gradually granting autonomy, they allow children to make many decisions for themselves at an age when they are not yet capable of doing so. Their children can eat meals and go to bed whenever they wish and can watch as much television as they want. They do not

have to learn good manners or do household chores. Although some permissive parents truly believe that this approach is best, many others simply lack confidence in their ability to influence their child's behaviour.

Children of permissive parents are impulsive, disobedient, and rebellious. Compared with children whose parents exert more control, they are also overly demanding and dependent on adults, and they show less persistence on tasks and poorer school achievement-behaviours that are especially evident among boys. In adolescence, parental indulgence continues to be related to poor self-control. Permissive reared teenagers do less well academically, are more defiant of authority figures, and display more antisocial behaviour than teenagers whose parents communicate clear expectations (Barber and Olsen, 1997).

d. Uninvolved child rearing: The uninvolved child rearing style combines low acceptance and involvement with little control and general indifference to issues of autonomy. Uninvolved parents may be emotionally detached and depressed, so overwhelmed by the many stresses in their lives that they have no time and energy for children (Maccoby and Martin, 1983). As result, they may respond to the child's immediate demands for easily accessible objects. But any parenting strategies that involves long-term goals, such as establishing and enforcing rules about homework and social behaviour, listening to the child's point of view, providing guidance about appropriate choices, and monitoring the child's whereabouts and activities, are weak and fleeting.

At its extreme, uninvolved parenting is a form of child maltreatment called neglect. It is likely to characterize depressed parents with many stresses in their lives, such as marital

conflict, little or no social support, and poverty. Especially when it begins early, neglect disrupts virtually all aspects of development, including attachment, cognition, play, and emotional and social skill. Even when parental disengagement is less extreme, children and adolescents display many problems-poor emotional self-regulations, school achievement difficulties, and frequent antisocial behaviour (Duncan and Anston 2004).

2.2.9 Baldwin-Shaeffer's classification of family types

The Baldwin-Shaeffer (1959) model is predicated on the idea that all families will organise themselves along the dimensions of control and affection. How a particular family demonstrates control and affection translates into specific parenting/child rearing techniques or procedures. Subsequently, specific child rearing techniques directly impact upon the personality development of the child. All families organize themselves along the dimensions of affection and control which will result in specific child-rearing techniques, approaches, and behaviours. The family will demonstrate a unique pattern of affection, involvement, and supervision/ control which will influence both the development and behaviour of the child, to ensure this below are dimensions of parental behaviour;

1. Control

Parental control is conceptualized as the degree to which parents exert control and power over the child, as well as an indicator of the level of direct involvement in the activities of the child. It is defined in terms of the degree of supervision/monitoring of the child's activities, the qualities, nature, consistency of discipline, and the parent's need to control the child. Dimensions of parent control are:

- **Demandingness:** The degree to which parents will insist upon age appropriate behaviour from child.
- **Strictness:** The degree to which parents will enforce their rules and will resist child's attempts to emotionally coerce parents into not carrying out punishment for misbehaviour
- **Intrusiveness:** The degree to which parents will interfere/control the child's activities and interpersonal relationships.
- **Restrictiveness:** The degree to which parents will limit both the range of activities in which the child can engage and the child's opportunities for independence (engaging in activities away from parents supervision).
- **Power assertion:** The degree to which parents will utilize the legitimate power function assigned to the parental role in order to control the child.
- **Parental affection**
Affection is the amount of love, nurturance, support, and positive value demonstrated towards the child. The degree of affection demonstrated towards the child may range from love-to-indifference-to-hostility.

2. Parental involvement

Involvement is defined as the degree and frequency of interaction between parent and child, the frequency and quality of communication between parent and child, interest in the activities of the child, and the quality of interaction between the parent and child. This dimension addresses the frequency/regularity of interaction, types of mutually engaged activities, form/style of communication (linear means parent to child, Transactional means bi-directional, parent <=>child).

3. Quality of marital relationship

The Baldwin-Shaeffer's 1959 model examines the quality of the marital relationship as an indicator of how well the family is functioning. (Shaeffer, 1959) indicates that marital discord adversely affects the child and translates into specific child-rearing practices. Conversely, high levels of marital satisfaction and communication will generally result in consistent, positive and healthy parent-child relationships. All families organize themselves along the dimensions of affection and control which will result in specific child-rearing techniques/behaviours. The family will demonstrate a unique pattern of affection, involvement, and supervision/control which will influence both the development and behaviour of the child.

2.2.10 Qualities of Responsible Parents

The tasks and responsibilities involved in child bearing and upbringing are enormous. To effectively shoulder these responsibilities, the parents need to possess certain human qualities. These qualities include:

Love and Affection for the Child

Parents love, support, interest tempered with the right degree of firmness and strictness are essential ingredients for the development of the healthy personality in the individual child. Thus, responsible parents must show the right amount of love and affection to their children and be able to equally establish firm control so as to ensure the children's emotional well-being and sound adjustment. Deprivation of maternal love and tenderness as experienced by most institutionalized children has been linked to developmental retardation. While inadequate love in the home may result in the development of such

anti-social or abnormal behaviours as aggression, lying, stealing, etc, in children, too much love and over protectiveness may on the other hand, lead to the development of the lack of confidence, over dependence, and other adjustment problems. Parents should be seen to provide equal love and attention to all their children in order to avoid sibling jealousy and rivalry among them.

Emotional Stability and Maturity

Parenthood entails the capacity of the parents to make personal sacrifices for the overall development and well-being of their children. Effective performance of the role of being a parent requires a high level of tolerance and patience with the nuisance demands of children. Thus, responsible parents should possess emotional maturity and stability in their dealing with children. Many cases of child abuse like child battering, sexual exploitation and so forth, are traceable to emotional maladjustment and psychotic disorders on the part of parents.

Stable Source of Income

Proper up-bringing of children demands that adequate and reliable provisions for food, shelter, clothing, medical care, and education be made by the parents. Thus, to adequately cater for the above mentioned material needs of the child, parents should necessarily have a reliable profession/occupation/business which will enable them to possess stable income. Several cases of child abuse like child hawking, early marriages, out of school children, and more recently the global trafficking in young woman and children are the direct results of poverty which bedevils many parents, especially those from the developing nations of the World. Non-satisfaction of children's material needs due to

parental neglect or poverty has been shown to be a potential factor predisposing children to delinquent behaviours.

Sound Moral Behaviour

Children tend to observe and imitate the patterns of behaviour displayed by their parents. As the first role-models to children, parents should demonstrate good moral behaviours i.e. honesty, truthfulness, faithfulness, cleanliness, consideration and respect for others, freedom from all forms of moral vices etc. This is necessary if children are to develop socially acceptable patterns of behaviours and grows as well-adjusted members of their societies.

Democratic Disposition

Many studies have shown that personality patterns in children are largely set by the way in which parents characteristically interact with their children. The self-reliant and well-adjusted child is fostered in an environment in which the individual child is allowed a fair degree of autonomy is involved in some important decisions and is controlled primarily through reasoning and use of positive incentives. On the other hand, destructiveness or over-indulgence on the part of parents may result in children developing social and emotional problems later in life. Thus, the parents or caregivers of children will need to be democratic in outlook in order to produce individuals who are socially and emotionally well-adjusted. Parents must ensure firm, consistent discipline and guidance for adequate development of their children.

Family Cohesion

The importance of peaceful, loving and harmonious home in the overall development of the child has been well established in developmental psychology. In a home where

parents live in harmony, are loving, affectionate and responsive, the child will be optimally prepared for the kinds of social and emotional life that enable him/her develops a balanced personality. In a home characterized by marital conflicts and disharmony such as divorce and separation, the children will grow up to be hostile, backward in school, aggressive, etc. It has been shown that social and emotional problems later in life are seldom encountered in children where homes have been in general warm and relatively free from quarrelling and emotional upsets (Rutter and Madge, 1976). Thus, responsible parents should have affection and understanding for one another and be able to project a peaceful and loving atmosphere.

Parents' Literacy and Knowledge of Parenting Process

For parents to effectively guide the child to adapt and survive in today's World, they need to be literate so that they have access to information on all aspects of man's behaviour. Basic knowledge of nutrition, hygiene, diseases, the parenting process etc by parents is essential if they are to stimulate the child's all-round development. Research evidence by (Aiken, 1990 and Wash, 1992) has shown that children from educated homes do better than those from illiterate backgrounds on most measures .of intelligence, achievement, achievement-motivation, and self-concept. This is because literate parents are more capable of ensuring that their children get balanced diet, live in a healthy, germ-free environment, get all the recommended immunizations, have the right amount of love, get appropriate guidance and control, are given maximum support, encouragement in their studies and vocational aspirations.

Parent-school partnerships

Regardless of student's abilities, parent involvement in education-keeping tabs on the child's progress, communicating often with teachers, and ensuring that the child is enrolled in challenging, well-taught classes-promotes students' academic motivation and achievement throughout elementary and secondary school (Hill and Taylor, 2004). In a study of a nationally representative sample of more than 15,000 U.S students, parents' school involvement in eighth grade strongly predicted students' grade point average in tenth grade, beyond the influence of SES and previous academic achievement. This relationship held for each ethnic group included-black, white, Native American, and Asian (Keith et al., 1998). Parents who are in frequently contact with the school send a message to their child about the value of education, model constructive solutions to academic problems, and (as children get older) promote wise educational decisions. Involved parents also learn from other parents about which classes and teachers are the best and how to handle difficult situation. Teachers and parents are more likely to give students consistent messages about academic and behavioural expectations.

Families living in low-income, high-risk neighbourhood face daily stresses that reduce the energy they have for school involvement (Bowen, Bowen and Ware, 2002). Yet stronger home-school links could relieve some of this stress. Schools can build parent-school partnerships in the following ways:

- a. Fostering personal relationship between parents and teachers
- b. Showing parents how to support their child's education at home
- c. Building bridges between minority home cultures and the culture of the school

- d. Developing assignments that give parents a meaningful role to play, such as having students find out about their parents' experiences while growing up
- e. Including parents in basic planning and governance so they remain invested in school goals.

2.2.11 Cross-National Research on Academic Achievement

In international studies of reading, mathematics, and science achievement, young people in Hong Kong and Japan are consistently top performers. Canada is among Western nations in the top tier. U.S. students, however, typically perform at the international average, and sometimes below it (Programme for International Student Assessment, 2000, 2003).

Researchers have conducted in-depth research on learning environments in Asian nations, such as Japan, Korea, and Taiwan, to clarify the factors that support high achievement. Except for the influence of language on early counting skills, Asian students do not start school with cognitive advantages. Instead, a variety of social forces combine to foster a strong commitment to learning in Asian families and schools:

- a. *Cultural valuing of academic achievement.* In Japan, Korea, and Taiwan, natural resources are limited. Progress in science and technology is essential for academic wellbeing, so mastery of academic skills is vital. Compared to Western countries, these nations invest more in education, including paying higher salaries to teachers (United Nations Development Programme, 2002).
- b. *Emphasis on effort.* Japanese and Taiwanese parents and teachers believe that all children have the potential to master challenging academic tasks if they work hard enough. North

American parents and teachers, in contrast, tend to regard native ability as the key to academic success. These differences in attitude contribute to the fact that Asian parents devote many more hours to helping their children with homework (Stevenson, Lee, & Mu, 2000). And Asian youths, influenced by collectivist values, typically strive to achieve because effort is seen as a moral obligation-part of one's responsibility to family and community. In contrast, North American young people view working hard in individualistic term-as a matter of personal choice (Bempchat, Drago and Severson, 1999).

- c. *High-quality education for all.* No separate ability groups exist in Japanese, Korean, and Taiwanese elementary schools. Instead, all students receive the same nationally mandated education. Academic lessons are particularly well organized and presented in ways that capture children's attention and encourage high-level thinking (Grow-Mainaza, Hahn, and Joo, 2001). And observations in Japanese elementary schools reveal that teachers are three times as likely as U.S. teachers to work outside class with students who need additional help (Woodward and Ono, 2004).
- d. *More time devoted to instruction.* In Japan, Hong Kong, and Taiwan, the school year is more than 50 days longer than in the United States and about 30 days longer than in Canada (World Education Services, 2005). And on a day-to-day basis, Asian teachers devote much more time to academic pursuits. But Asian schools are not regimented places. An 8-hour school day permits extra recesses, with plenty of time for play, field trips, and extracurricular activities. Frequent breaks may increase Asian children's capacity to learn (Pellegrini and Smith, 1998).

2.2.12 Psychosocial Support

Psychosocial support is the process of meeting a person's emotional, social, mental and spiritual needs. All of these are essential elements of positive human development. Psychosocial support is needed by all children. It promotes their psychological and emotional wellbeing, as well as their physical and mental development. Psychosocial support helps to build resiliency in children. It also supports families to provide for the physical, economic, educational, and social and health needs of children. Children are resilient, but when faced with extreme adversity and trauma, they and their families can need extra support. Psychosocial support builds internal and external resources for children and their families to be able to understand and deal with adverse events. Some children need specific, additional psychosocial support. These interventions usually target children who have experienced extreme trauma or adversity, or who are receiving the necessary support from caregivers. Such interventions should be provided in addition to any ongoing support from families and communities.

Many things can impact on a child's psychosocial wellbeing, including poverty, conflict, neglect and abuse. As a result of poor psychosocial support Children might experience traumatic events such as the illness and death of parents, violence and exploitation, stigma and discrimination, isolation and loneliness and lack of adult support and guidance. Appropriate psychosocial support helps children and their families to overcome these challenges, and builds coping mechanisms, trust and hope in their future. Psychosocial support is particularly critical in the case of families made vulnerable by poverty, disease, conflict, lack of water, fuel or other resources, or by domestic violence; in families in isolated communities not reached by limited government services; and in

ethnically marginalized or excluded families. Parents who feel positive about school and are involved in its life are likely to be the best advocates for the school's values, policies and practices at home, whether by encouraging homework, promoting anti-harassment or supporting cooperation with others. Where there is no contact between home and school, problems in the child's life may go unrecognized by the school and will not be properly addressed. Even in under privileged families, high levels of parental support and a positive school climate foster self-confidence and self-esteem. Families and caregivers have particular roles to play in preparing their children for a child friendly school and supporting and providing guidance to the school. In a child-friendly school:

- Parents and households have regular, meaningful two-way communication with the school;
- Parents have an integral role in assisting school learning;
- Parents are full partners in decision making about education outcomes for their children;
- Parents are welcome in the school and their support for children's learning is sought.

Often families and households do not feel empowered to take on these roles, nor are schools prepared to support them. Therefore, it is important to involve families in their children's education and establish community school links at the earliest stages. Families are children's first teachers and have a critical role to play in preparing them for school.

2.2.13 Psychosocial support delivery

Families and communities are best placed to provide psychosocial support, and interventions should work through families to support children. The aim should be to

keep children in supportive and caring environments, and to strengthen families to provide for the full range of their needs.

Psychosocial support needs to be part of comprehensive programming. It should be addressed through interventions that use a variety of approaches, such as counselling, family therapy, memory work and succession planning. Programmes need to use these interventions to strengthen families and caregivers to provide psychosocial support alongside addressing children's other needs. Programmes also need to understand and respond to the different ways that adverse events can impact on children. For example, how a child responds to grief and trauma may vary considerably depending on their age, gender and circumstances (United Nation Education Scientific and Cultural Organisation 2009) key messages about psychosocial support include the following:

1. Children are best cared for in their own communities. The best people to provide psychosocial support are families and communities that love, care for and support children. Institutions are often particularly poor at providing for children's psychosocial needs.
2. To support the psychosocial needs of children effectively, programmes need to support families to provide for their comprehensive needs. Psychosocial wellbeing is linked to children's access to education, health, family care, nutrition, play and social participation. Psychosocial support should not be a stand-alone intervention. There needs to be a longer-term, integrated approach to the needs of children and their families.
3. Support at the community level needs to be backed by external efforts by policy-makers. This includes providing social welfare, as well as legislation that helps

communities to support children, such as child protection policies and laws on inheritance rights.

4. Psychosocial support can be a difficult type of programme to assess as its outcomes may not be clear for a long time. Currently, there is limited measurement of its impact on children

2.2.14 Social support and academic achievement

Support from family and friends have been found to influence students' achievement and can be regarded as one of the indicators of academic competence and psychological wellbeing (Steinberg and Darling, 1994). Support from family and friends are known to positively affect student achievement. Social support has also been recognized to have significant impact on the achievement of the students. Since family and friends are the individuals' first source of reference, supports from these two sources have been found to give a significant influence on academic achievement (Steinberg and Darling, 1994; Cutrona, Cole, Colangelo, Assouline, and Russel, 1994). There are three dimensions of support provided by family and friend and they are warmth, behavioural control, and psychological autonomy-granting. These three dimensions facilitate the development of positive self-conceptions and social skills, responsibility and competence, and impulse control and deterrence of deviance which in turn lead to high level of academic achievement of the students.

In a cross-sectional study, (Holahan *et al.* 1995) found first-year students with higher levels of perceived parental support were better adjusted (i.e. Higher wellbeing and happiness) and less distressed (i.e. Less depression and anxiety) than those with lower

levels of perceived parental support. (Cutrona *et al.* 1994) examined perceived social support from parents and peers at the beginning of the first semester and GPA at the end of the following semester. Perceived parental and peer social support predicted academic adjustment after controlling the academic aptitude (i.e. college admission test). Consistent with previous researches, social support has been found to be an important protective factor that assisted students in making the transition of university level. These studies support the general argument that family support contributes to high academic achievement.

2.2.15 Causes of Psychosocial Problems

Poverty

Poverty has a major negative psychosocial impact. Research by (McLoyd, 1998), persistent exposure to poverty has a direct negative effect on a child's health, cognitive development and ultimately, their school achievement, particularly when poverty happens in infancy or early childhood. The more obvious explanation for the reasoning of this are that lifestyle and living conditions for those who live in poverty affect a child negatively. Environmental deprivation is usually what we consider when we think about poverty, but it is not the only factor. Stressors such as unsafe or life-threatening living conditions and violence play a part. Among these is deprivation of other essential necessities that are needed, such as food, medicine and a safe home. Deprivation of any of these things, especially in infancy or early childhood has a marked effect on psychosocial development. As McLoyd points out, children who live in poverty are exposed to more extreme living situations than those who are not living under similar

circumstances. These conditions may have a more pronounced effect or influence on them. Studies have also shown that poverty has a direct effect on cognitive functioning and development, which has a direct impact on psychosocial development. If a child is unable to master the tasks that other children his/her age are, then their development may stall. Basically, poverty affects the physical, devastating to the development of a child. It may not come as a surprise that a person's gender or cultural heritage can shape who they are and what they do in life. It also affects psychosocial development in positive and negative ways. A study of ethnic-racial socialization in early and middle childhood found that cultural socialization was associated with fewer behaviour problems in both genders (Hughes and Kwok 2007). Discrimination of cultural values or ethnicity has negative effect (depression and aggression) on psychosocial development and behaviour. It also affects self-esteem, academic achievement, stigmatization and psychosocial functioning.

Abuse or Neglect

It could hardly come as a surprise that abuse and neglect cause poor performance in a school setting. But many people do not understand why that is exactly. A study by (Eckenrode, Laird and Doris, 1993) showed that maltreated children tended to have test scores below that of peers who were not maltreated. Their study even broke down results to show what type of maltreatment resulted in the poorest performance. Neglected children scored lower in many areas than even sexually abuse children. The findings of the study also showed a significant increase in disciplinary action and suspension for maltreated children. In terms of disciplinary action, students who were physically abused had the most instances of action. It could be easily concluded that students who are being mistreated at home, whether it be neglect, sexual or physical abuse, are more likely to

performing poorly, halt development and have disciplinary problems in the classroom. Psychosocially speaking, maltreated children struggle with impaired language development, less pro-social behaviour, lower levels of cognitive maturity, more aggressive behaviour and more insecure attachment to their mother. Study by (Eckenrode, 1993) concluded that students who are neglected perform at the lowest levels of academic achievement among any maltreated children. This is significant in terms of classroom management because it may not be as easy to spot neglect as it could be to see the signs of physical and sexual abuse. Another interesting finding of this study is that while gender affects type of abuse a student was likely to experience, it found no great difference between the genders disciplinary problems. No matter what abuse a student suffers, it clearly impacts their psychosocial development and in turn, negatively impacts their education.

Family dynamics

A study by (Oshman and Manosevitz, 1999) that the presence of an older male figure (such as that of a step-brother or step-father) can positively affect a child's development. This presence could also affect them negatively if it were the case of an abusive relationship. As far as testing, students in the study tested much higher if they had a father figure present. The study also showed that an absence of this father figure early on the child's life resulted in a negative effect on the child. According to studies of adolescent socialization in families by Steinberg, children whose parents were authoritative (warm and firm) showed high levels of competence and psychosocial maturity than peers who have more permissive, indifferent or authoritarian with their child (Steinberg, 1988). What this means to teachers of high school students are that we

may notice a maturity and seriousness in students who have a disciplined home life and caring parents. It was also found that authoritative parenting can lessen the effect of negative peer influence.

Peer Influences

During the transition into adolescence, we tend to rely more and spend more time with peers/friends than any other group. Peers can however have both a positive and negative influence on adolescent development. As stated in the above segment, (Steinberg, 1988) found through a study that the effects of negative peer influence can be blunted by authoritative parenting. The major influence of peers on development is their contribution to identity development this is because peers influence the way an adolescent may view themselves and the world around them. Peers can affect self-esteem and establish norms for their peer group. Peer rejection can negatively impact psychosocial development, and so these established norms can delineate who is a desirable and undesirable peer.

Mental Health

It might seem like an obvious cause of psychosocial dysfunction, but mental health can have a broad meaning. It can cover disorders but also emotional stressors that cause mental health issues. There is a correlation between stress and mental health, especially in young adolescents. In findings of a study by (Roeser, 1998), adolescents who were well-adjusted or positively adjusted were less likely to affiliate with negative peers, skip school, exhibit at-risk behaviour or have low self-esteem whereas parents of children with poor mental health were characterized as having low academic value and be more likely to associate with the above behaviour.

Physical Health and Malnutrition

Studies show that food insufficiency and malnutrition can affect not only physical development but also psychosocial development. A study by (Kerther, David,Barbagli 2002), analyzed data from nutritional surveys on US children and teenagers from age 6-16 years old. The results of their study were that the children who were food-insufficient had significantly lower scores in arithmetic and were more likely to have to repeat a grade, see a psychologist and have trouble associating with peers. Making sure that children are getting the proper nutrition and exercise or activity is vital to their success in the classroom (and of course, their livelihood).

Disabilities

Physical and learning disabilities can effect psychosocial development as well. Research on children with learning disabilities found a negative correlation with self-esteem, interpersonal relationships and juvenile delinquency (Konucle, 2004). It is suggested by older research that due to a negative educational experience, some adolescents with learning disabilities may engage in delinquent activity as a way to satisfy frustrated emotional needs that are not being met in other ways. There also seems to be high correlation school failure and delinquency in these cases. This could be the result of negative self-concept. In (Pickar's, 2001) findings, adolescents with learning disabilities showed less resolution of the industry vs. inferiority stage. This could be attributed to perceived popularity and low self-esteem.

Stress

Stressors for adolescents can include any of the above problems and more. It is important to note the fragility of the emotional state of children this age. According to (Roeser,

1998), studies show that if adolescents perceive themselves as competent academically, they generally get higher grades and are able to master school-related tasks more easily. The study showed there is a correlation between emotional distresses and an impaired ability to learn. Results from other studies on emotional distress in early adolescents find that it can have an effect on academic motivation and achievement.

2.2.16 Low Achievement

Low achievement has been defined as a discrepancy between the child's school performance and some index of his or her actual ability (Rimms, 1986). Her trifocal model involves parents and schools personnel in an effort to reverse learner's low achievement. This strategy involves assessing a student's ability versus performance. Then together, the parents and teachers alter their expectations for achievement and provide differentiated modifications of this standard for the learners both at home and at school (Neihart, 2002). The parents and teachers present a united front for consistent expectations of learner performance.

ERIC Clearinghouse information specialist (Delisle, 1990), focuses on underachievement as a behavior that can change over time. In fact, the behavior can be reversed in an environment that is mutually respectful, non-authoritarian, flexible, and non-questioning. Underachievers should be provided with a variety of opportunities for success, a sense of accomplishment, a belief in themselves, and an early and appropriate educational environment that stimulates a love for learning. A major factor in underachievement is the level of learners' motivation. The demands for workers with higher levels of literacy, numeracy, higher-order thinking skills, the ability to use

technology and other high-level skills are dramatically affecting all levels of education. Nowhere is this more evident than in Nigerian primary /secondary schools, where policies and embedded practices have anointed some learners for great success and others for smaller roles in our society.

The term low achievement referred to in-ability to grasp from the learning experiences organized for the children either in class room or in a standardized achievement test. The great majority of low achievers – more than three-quarters – are children in primary and secondary schools, and boys out number girls. They come mostly from disadvantaged backgrounds. But many students from the same backgrounds succeed. The girls come from the same families and mostly go to the same schools, but do much better. Low achievers are commonly found in rural areas. But there is very considerable variation among schools and local authorities. Some schools with high proportions of disadvantaged pupils do much better than others. There is a considerable range of performance among different ethnic groups. As with so many other social issues, low achievement in school is complex and multifaceted. But some clear main factors emerge from our study (Barber, 1996).

For example, (Clemens and Oelke, 1967) in (Emeke 1984) have attributed the cause of poor academic performance to a combination of personal and institutional factors. Personal factors relate to the individual's intelligence, knowledge and ability. While institutional factors are family or parental influences, societal influences, institutional influences and school related factors-student/lecturer rapport, teach related factors, accommodation and living conditions. In the same vein, (Wiseman, 1973 and Sogbetan 1981) in (Hassan, 1983) among other have examined the causes of poor academic

performance among secondary school students. Some of the factors identified are intellectual ability, poor study habit, achievement motivation, lack of vocational goals, low self-concept, low socio-economic status of the family, poor family structure and anxiety. The consequences of these include indiscipline in schools and low level of educational standard.

A daily sketch publication on “Causes and Cures of Poor Performance at West African School Certificate Examination (WASCE)” in 2006 identified and categorized problems responsible for students’ poor performance to problems of teachers, problems of inadequate facilities in the schools, problem traceable to students, problems caused by parents and society at large and problems of government policies and low funding of the education sector (Ajila and Olutola, 2007). Thus, (Ichado ,1998) concluded that the environment in which the student comes from can greatly influence his performance at school. Although, the home environment or family has been recognized as having a lot of influence on the academic performance of students (Nzewuawah, 1995, Ajila and Olutola, 2007). Previous studies have been concentrated on the area of socio-economic status of parents. Other aspects of parental environment such as the structure of the family have been grossly neglected. Yet, (Ichado 1998) stated that parent’s constant disagreement affects children emotionally and this could lead to poor academic performance in school. The family lays the psychosocial, moral and spiritual foundations in the overall development of the child. While the mother’s significant role in this cannot be overemphasized. Studies on father-child relationship suggest that the presence of a father in the home influences significantly the development of a child (Agulanna, 1999).

Thus, parenthood is a responsibility requiring the full cooperation of both parents who must ensure the total development of their offspring(s).

The emotional interdependence presumably evolved to promote the cohesiveness and cooperation families require protecting, shelter and feed their members. Heightened tension, however, can intensify these processes that promote unity and teamwork, and this can lead to problems. When family members get anxious, the anxiety goes up; the emotional connectedness of family members becomes more stressful than comforting. Eventually, one or more members feel overwhelmed, isolated, or out of control. These are the people who accommodate the most to reduce tension in others. It is a reciprocal interaction. For example, a person takes too much responsibility for the distress of others in relationship to their unrealistic expectations of him. The one accommodating the most literally “absorbs” anxiety and thus is the family member most vulnerable to problems such as depression, alcoholism, affairs, or physical illness.

2.2.17 Characteristics of Low Achieving Students

Prominent features of low achievement were stated by (Cohen, 2012) among others;

- The learners tend to be disorganized; schoolwork is often either missing or incomplete.
- Even though the learners have above average IQ, grades begin to decline or are consistently below his/her ability to achieve, and she/he seems disinterested in school.
- The learners make excuses of blame others for his/her problems.
- The student is loner
- The learners demonstrate emotional frustration and exhibits low-self esteem.
- She/he has difficulty concentrating on the task at hand.

- Another exceptionality or disability has been identified and she/he is consistently lacking skills in at least one subject area.
- The learners come from a lower socioeconomic background.

2.2.18 Children more dispose to Low Achievement

Children pre-dispose to low achievement Frey (2002) showed the following as:

- 1. Children from low IQ parents:** Children who inherit low IQ from either one or both parents may be prone to become low achievers. They may find it difficult to comprehend verbal/symbolic, spatial/fine motor, concrete verbal reasoning/problem solving and expressive /artistic.
- 2. Children from low socio-economic status:** Children from this socio- economic stratum suffer low achievement among their peers. Were socio-economic status of the parents is too low to the extent they cannot be able to provide re-enforcement in terms of school fees, books, quality nutrition and hygiene it will affect the learners level of achievement.
- 3. Birth –order:** This is sometimes culture specific i.e in western countries were the first child is closer to the parents the children become high achievers in achievement test than the 2nd or 3rd child.
- 4. Un-favourable child rearing practice:** Some rearing practices especially in traditional African society of avoiding first child in verbal discussion and parental interaction tend to affect children achievement.
- 5. Mobility of parents / labour:** Were parents are mobile either in practice or in job status their children tend to be affected academically due to frequent changes in school

environment, teachers and sometimes curriculum. These types of movement tend to affect learners achievement.

- 6. Children of single parents:** These parents independently delay enrolment of their children to schools; those who are enrolled often become shy and timid which compound their problem of low achievement among other co-learners of non single parents. It is also clear that the negative educational effects of living in a single parent household are not caused by the absence of a second parent. Clearly, many if not all of the academic problems faced by children of single parents can be attributed to poverty (Hargreaves 1991: 40). Numerous investigations have proven that children from single parent homes obtain lower IQ and SAT scores. Moreover, these children have lower grade point averages and complete fewer years of schooling. However, when studies of IQ, SAT scores, GPAs, and years of schooling controlled for socio-economic status, they found the difference in academic achievement to be hardly significant (Hargreaves 1991: 41-42).
- 7. Sibling rivalry may be a factor in underachievement:** Children who are in cluster of siblings may likely suffer from low achievement due to competition involve among them especially when it comes to treatment of others who are close to their mothers, or comparing achievement of one with others among the brothers.

2.2.19 Factors associated with low achievement

United Nation International Children Emergency Fund (2010), lack of Eligibility for Free School Meals is strongly associated with low achievement, but significantly more so for white British pupils than other ethnic groups. Other indicators of disadvantage, all

measured in the immediate area round the student's home, are associated with low achievement, such as:

- the family unemployment rate;
- children of divorce parent households; and
- the proportion of parents with low educational qualifications.

Children with special educational needs understandably comprise a considerable proportion of low achievers, but other studies show that more could be done to assist them through their schooling. The same is true of looked-after children. Poor reading and writing scores at primary school are strongly and significantly associated with later low achievement, but not speaking English at home is a short-lived handicap. African and Asian students commonly recover from it through secondary school education (Felton and Pepper, 1995). Boys generally do worse than girls in reading at primary school, and much worse in writing: 79 per cent of boys compared with 87 per cent of girls obtained Level 4 in reading in 2006; in writing the relative scores were 59 per cent of boys, to 75 per cent of girl (Supplee, 1990).

Impact of schools reducing achievement gaps

Studies show that schools do make a difference to outcomes. While students' social and economic circumstances are the most important factors explaining their educational results, about 14% of the incidence of low achievement is attributable to school quality (Syroux, 2008). Research by (Greenwald, Hedges, and Laine (1996) account for some school features that make for reductions in low achievement; the rest is due to things that could be easily measured; factors such as school ethos and leadership, or the effectiveness of teaching. But expenditure on students and, to a lesser

extent, the number of teachers per pupil, does play a positive part. Resources matter, particularly for low achieving students. The study also found that some government programmes have helped to reduce low achievement, ie establishment of model, specialist and comprehensive schools in Nigeria (Agulana 1999).

Influences outside school

From birth to age eighteen, children spend just a fraction of their lives in school. Thus it is not surprising that many factors outside the school environment can significantly influence students' prospects for academic success in school. These factors are in play both during the years before children begin formal schooling and while they are actually enrolled in elementary and secondary schools. Pre-school education, parenting help, income support, and everything which improves the home learning environment have major parts to play in reducing later low achievement. *<http://www.topgradestudent.com>*

Poor literacy

Poor literacy results in primary school are a strong risk factor for later low achievement, and have little to do with not speaking English at home. Other, official data indicate that The United State (2006) “National Literacy Strategy” had positive initial effects, but the results have reached a record high. The strategy is failing to reach a significant share of pupils. Some studies suggest that in its current mode the strategy does not follow the evidence of research, and that there is a case for changing it. At the same time children with particular reading difficulties need to be better identified; and the additional help they require, such as can be provided by reading, drills, recovery and assessment, is often missing and should be more readily available.

Secondary schooling

Many western studies especial the work of Syroux (2008), showed low achievement is due to social and economic disadvantage. Poor early results in literacy were also investigated and the result showed many children make a satisfactory start in primary school and fall behind later.

- The Department for Education and Skills (DfES) and from other researchers like (Greenwald, Hedges, and Laine 1996) also finds that disadvantaged students are likely *to* attend worse-performing schools. This can affect their outcomes adversely and does so particularly for minority ethnic students and students with Special Educational Needs. Policy prescribes support both for the latter and for looked-after children but this is often absent in practice.
- Anything which gives schools greater opportunities to *select* their pupils works to the detriment of the disadvantaged; the current ways in which school places are allocated is part of the process by which the disadvantaged end up disproportionately in worse-performing schools. Measures which assist fair selection will help them.
- Research by (French, 2000), has shown that national school *league tables* based on the 5A*- C GCSE target have adverse effects for low achievers, as schools often concentrate resources on better performers. If targets are to continue, they need to be broadened.
- Expert opinion expresses a degree of concern about aspects of government plans for the further development of practical *and vocational* education, which could play an important part in contributing to greater engagement by students. A great deal is hanging on the

new specialised diplomas which are about to be introduced; it is essential that they be established on a basis which provides satisfactory paths through the school system.

- *Resources* can make a difference to student outcomes. It is unfortunate that while Local Authorities receive funding in part according to the extent of disadvantage in their schools, they have not been able to pass on the funds to schools on that basis. There are very large differences between schools and Local Authorities in the amount of time spent on each pupil. Schools should receive the funding they need; but it is likely to be necessary to direct funding in particular ways to help disadvantaged pupils.

Resources are not everything. Various *government programmes* to help low achievers have been evaluated and found to be successful, but deserve to be more widely followed. These include aiming high, an initiative to assist students, and working together, an agenda for encouraging students' participation in school management and practice. *Charitable programmes* such as those provided by The Prince's Trust and Foyer foundation have also proved to be effective in helping teenagers who are not doing well in school. The same is true of a number of other activities to improve poorly performing schools and help low achieving students.

2.2.20 Health-related causes of low student achievement

A distinguished and diverse coalition of education, health, and social service experts, in their campaign for a broader, bolder approach to education, have issued a statement calling for the establishment of school-based clinics in schools serving disadvantaged children as one of the most important strategies for raising the achievement of

disadvantaged children. The California School Health Centers Association (CSHC) is a statewide organization that advocates for, disseminates information about, and provides training and other resources for operators of, and those interested in starting, school-based health centers. Overall, lower-class children are in poorer health (Wade, 2008).

Children with vision problems have difficulty in reading in the United States, 50% of poor children have vision impairment that interferes with academic work, twice the normal rate. Lower-class children may be more likely to have vision problems because of less adequate prenatal development than middle-class children whose pregnant mothers had better medical care and nutrition. Visual deficits also arise from disadvantaged children being placed in inexpensive low-quality child care settings where they watch too much television, activity that does not develop hand-eye coordination and depth perception 42% of black fourth graders. Watching six hours or more of television a day, compared to 13% of whites. Middle-class children more likely have manipulative toys that develop such coordination. A longitudinal study of entering kindergarteners reveals that fine motor skill development at age 5 is a stronger predictor of later mathematics and reading performance than in kindergartners' pre-literacy knowledge of the alphabet, of counting numbers, of phonemes (Christie, Nancy, Barbara and Ken 2000).

Lower-class children also have more hearing difficulties, possibly because of untreated ear infections that occur in children whose overall health is less robust. Ear infections are easily treatable for children with access to regular pediatric care. But lower-class children with less access to such treatment are less attentive on average in school (Rathborn, 1999). Children without dental care have more toothaches; untreated cavities are nearly

three times as prevalent among poor as among middle-class children. Although only some cavities produce toothaches, children with toothaches pay less attention in class and are more distracted during tests, on average (Muirhead and Locker, 2006).

Children who live in older buildings have more lead dust exposure that harms cognitive functioning and behavior. High lead levels also contribute to hearing loss. Low-income children have dangerously high blood lead levels at five times the rate of middle-class children (Schwartz, Angel and Pitcher, 1986). Lower-class children, particularly those who live in densely populated neighborhoods, are also more likely to contract asthma – the asthma rate is substantially higher for urban children, for those whose families are on welfare, and for those from single parent or poor families. Asthma is provoked partly from breathing fumes from low-grade heating oil, diesel trucks, and buses (school buses idling at schools are a serious problem); excessive dust and allergic reactions to mold, cockroaches, and secondhand smoke also contribute. In neighborhoods with high asthma rates, children suffering from the disease are more likely to live in homes where adults smoke (Nancy, 2007).

Asthma keeps children awake at night asthmatics are more likely to be drowsy and inattentive at attending school, more irritable and with more behavioral problems, and more likely to refrain from exercise and thus be less physically fit. Middle-class children typically get treatment for symptoms, while low-income children get treatment less often. Asthma has become the biggest cause of chronic school absence, with sufferers from low-income families more likely to miss school than those from middle-class families.

Youngsters whose mothers consumed alcohol during pregnancy have more difficulty with academic subjects, are less able to focus attention, have poorer memory skills, less ability to reason, lower I.Q.'s, less social competence and more aggression in the classroom Mukerji and Kennedy in (Richard, 1997). In adolescence, these children continue to have difficulty learning. Fetal alcohol syndrome, a collection of the most severe cognitive, physical and behavioral difficulties experienced by children of prenatal drinkers, is ten times more frequent for low-income black than for middle-class, white children.

Smoking in pregnancy also contributes to lower achievement. Children of mothers who smoked prenatally do more poorly on cognitive tests, and their language develops more poorly. They have more serious behavioral problems, more hyperactivity, and commit more juvenile crime. Thirty (30) % of poor women smoke, compared to 22% of non-poor women. During pregnancy, one-fourth of high school dropouts smoke, 50 percent more than the rate for high school graduates, and 13 times more than that for college graduates (Nancy, 2007).

Partly from prenatal smoking, low-income children are more likely to be born prematurely or with low birth weight and to suffer from cognitive problems; low birth weight babies, on average, have lower I.Q. scores and are more likely to have mild learning disabilities and attention disorders. Thirteen percent of black children are born with low birth weight, double the rate for whites. Even if all children benefited from equally high-quality instruction, this difference alone would ensure lower average achievement for blacks. Low birth weight is only partly caused by inadequate prenatal

care, exposure to urban pollutants, diet, smoking and drinking. The interaction of poor health habits with other stresses exacerbates children's adverse outcomes.

Maternal stress has hormonal consequences that interfere with nutrient absorption on which healthy fetuses depend. Thus, low birth weight, alcohol consumption and smoking all have greater negative effects on poor children than on middle-class children who were exposed to similar risks. Poor women, with greater stress and less adequate nutrition can tolerate less smoke and alcohol and still deliver healthy babies than women whose better overall health conditions protect their fetuses from effects of alcohol or smoking. Middle-class children more easily overcome earlier health shocks, rebounding when they later experience healthier environments after exposure to risk. Poor nutrition also contribute to achievement gaps between lower- and middle-class children (Ahmed, 2011).

Moderate under-nutrition affects academic performance, particularly if sustained (Bello, 2008). Iron deficiency and anemia affects cognitive ability: 8% of all U.S. children, but 20% of black children, are iron-deficient. Anemia also makes it more probable that children will absorb lead to which they are exposed. Iron is but one example; compared to middle class children, the poor also lack other vitamins and minerals. In experiments where pupils got inexpensive vitamin and mineral supplements, test scores rose from that treatment alone (Nelson, 1992). Children without regular medical care are also more likely to contract other illnesses that keep them from school (Kratochwill, 2007). Despite federal programs to make medical care free and available to low-income families, there remain gaps in access and utilization. Many eligible families are not enrolled because of ignorance, fear, or lack of conviction about medical care's importance.

Thus, United Nation International Children Emergency Fund(2010), indicated 19% of poor children are without consistent health insurance, compared to 11% of all children; 14% of black children are without insurance, compared to 7% of white children. These data were collected before the current US economic crisis; conditions they describe are likely more severe today. Yet even with health insurance, parents' low-wage work interferes with medical care utilization. Parents who are paid hourly wages lose income when they take children to doctors. Parents with blue-collar jobs risk discharge for excessive absence, so are likely to skip well-baby and routine pediatric care, seeing doctors only in emergencies. Middle-class parents have more flexibility to schedule doctor visits, for themselves and their children, without loss of job or income. A survey of one low-income minority Los Angeles neighborhood found one primary care physician for every 13,000 residents. A nearby high-income neighborhood had one for every 200 residents. Low-income families with or without insurance, are more likely to use emergency rooms and less likely to use primary care doctors even for routine care. As a result, black pre-scholars are one-third less likely than whites to get standard vaccinations for diphtheria, measles and influenza. There are also gaps between middle class and low-income children in optometric and dental care. Again, the problem is not only insurance, but access to routine and preventive care. Children covered by Medicaid in US are almost twice as likely to have untreated dental decay as children with private insurance (Hull, 2010). Ongoing differences in regular pediatric care result in poor children losing many more days from school than the non-poor, on average. School attendance differences, attributable to disparities in health care access alone, cause differences between black and white children's average achievement. Good teaching

can't do much for children who are not in school. For these reasons, the health-related causes of low achievement are unlikely to be remedied without school-based clinics that provide routine and preventive pediatric, dental and vision care in schools serving disadvantaged children from kindergarten through the 12th grade. School-based clinics can provide routine and preventive care without the necessity of parents taking time off from work. School-based clinics, working cooperatively with school comprehensive service coordinators can also ensure that children are seen on a regular and recommended schedule for such care, without the necessity of parent initiative for appointments.

2.2.21 Characteristics of High and Low Achieving Students

Family functioning, psychosocial intervention and its impact on high achieving and low achieving adolescents' attitudes towards school, attitudes towards teachers, goal-valuation, motivation, and general academic self-perceptions can impact students achievement. The comparison of the scores of high achievers and low achievers on attitudes toward school, attitudes toward teachers, goal-valuation, motivation, and general academic self-perceptions revealed large differences between higher achievers and low achievers on all five factors (Mendel and Marcus, 1988). However, two factors, academic self-perception and motivation/self-regulation, predicted students' achievement status as well as the five factor model did. Using logistic regression, these two subscales were able to classify students' achievement status correctly over 85% of the time. These results suggest that high achievers and low achievers differ in both their motivational patterns and their academic self-perceptions. Every teacher knows at least one student who "could do better". These are the students who come to school without books or homework, the students who appear to choose not to study for exams, the student who seem unphased by

parents' and the teachers' pleas that their grades now will affect the rest of their professional lives. We commonly dub these students "underachievers".

Low achievement is most commonly defined as a discrepancy between potential ability and performance or achievement (Reis and McCoach, 2004). Therefore, a student who appears capable of succeeding in school but is nonetheless struggling is often referred to as an underachiever. Factors commonly associated with underachievement include low academic self-concept, low self-efficacy (Schunk, 1998), low self-motivation, low goal-valuation (McCall, Evahn, and Kratzer, 1992), and negative attitude toward school and teachers (Colangelo, Kerr, Christensen, and Maxey, 1993; Ford, 1996; Rimm, 1995). Most of the literature on underachievement suggests that underachievers have lower academic self-perceptions, lower self-motivation and self-regulation, and less goal directed behaviour, and more negative attitudes toward school than high achievers do (Reis and McCoach, 2000). However, research by (Kessler, 1991) investigating the common characteristics of underachieving students have employed qualitative, clinical, or single subject research methodology. Very few large-scale quantitative studies have examined the legitimacy of these hypotheses (Reis and McCoach, 2000). This study sought to determine whether high achievers really differed from low achievers on the issue of their family functioning.

2.2.22 High Achievement among School Students

Academic achievement has become an index of child's future in this highly competitive world. Academic achievement has been one of the most important goals of the educational process. It is also a major goal, which every individual is expected to perform

in all cultures. Academic achievement is a key mechanism through which adolescents learn about their talents, abilities and competencies which are an important part of developing career aspirations (Lent *et al.*, 2000) academic achievement and career aspirations in adolescence are often correlated. (Abu-Hilal, 2000). “Academic achievement as the extent to which a learner is profiting from instructions in a given area of learning i.e., achievement is reflected by the extent to which skill or knowledge has been imparted to him” Crow and Crow (1969). Academic achievement can be defined as excellence in all academic disciplines, in class as well as extracurricular activities. It includes excellence in sporting, behaviour, confidence, communication skills, punctuality, assertiveness, Arts, Culture, and the like (Abu-Hilal, 2000).

In educational institutions, success is measured by High academic performance, or how well a student meets standards set out by educational board and the institution itself. As career competition grows ever fiercer in the working world, the importance of students doing well and getting high achievement in school has caught the attention of parents, legislators and government education departments alike. Although education is not the only road to success in the working world, much effort is made to identify, evaluate, track and encourage the progress of students in schools. Parents care about their child's high academic performance because they believe good academic results will provide more career choices and job security. Schools, though invested in fostering good academic habits for the same reason, are also often influenced by concerns about the school's reputation and the possibility of monetary budget from government institutions, which can hinge on the overall academic performance of the school. State and federal

departments of education are charged with improving schools, and so devise methods of measuring success in order to create plans for improvement.

In the past, academic performance was often measured more orally but today, teachers' observations made up the bulk of the assessment, and today's summation, or numerical, method of determining how well a student is performing is a fairly recent invention. Grading systems came into existence in America and Western Europe were initially criticized due to high subjectivity. Different teachers valued different aspects of learning more highly than others, and although some standardization was attempted in order to make the system fairer, the problem continued. Today, changes have been made to incorporate differentiation for individual students' abilities, and exploration of alternate methods of measuring performance is ongoing. The tracking of academic performance fulfills a number of purposes. Areas of achievement and failure in a student's academic career need to be evaluated in order to foster improvement and make full use of the learning process. Results provide a framework for talking about how students fare in school, and a constant standard to which all students are held. Performance results also allow students to be ranked and sorted on a scale that is numerically obvious, minimizing complaints by holding teachers and schools accountable for the components of each and every grade. Performance in school is evaluated in a number of ways. For regular grading, students demonstrate their knowledge by taking written and oral tests, performing presentations, turning in homework and participating in class activities and discussions. Teachers evaluate in the form of letter or number grades and side notes, to describe how well a student has done. At the school level, students are evaluated by their

performance on standardized tests geared toward specific ages and based on a set of achievements students in each age group are expected to meet.

2.2.23 Birth Order

Birth order is the rank of siblings by age. Birth order is often believed to have a profound and lasting effect on psychological development. This assertion has at best only limited empirical support and has been repeatedly challenged by researchers, yet birth order continues to have a strong presence in family psychology.

Where a child places in the birth order can have an effect on how he sees himself. Research by (Dinkmeyer, Gary, McKay, and Dinkmeyer, Jr., 1978) on birth order sometimes referred to as ordinal position, shows that first born children are more likely to go to college than children in any other position in the family. These apply to “typical families” and probably do not apply to “dysfunction families” and may vary across various cultures. Parents should attempt to help each child to see themselves as unique individuals and avoid comparisons with siblings or others. The middle child often seems to have the most negative impressions of his lot in life. One approach to help middle children reframe things is to point out that in a sense they have the best of both worlds. They are the youngest to the older sibling and the oldest to the younger sibling. Therefore they are both a big brother/sister and a little brother/sister. Younger children always want to be able to do the things older siblings are allowed to do. Older siblings may feel that the younger siblings get away with things they were not able to when they were the same

age. The following characteristics will not apply to all children in every family. Typical characteristics, however, can be identified:

Only

- Child Pampered and spoiled.
- Feels incompetent because adults are more capable.
- Is center of attention; often enjoys position. May feel special.
- Self-centered.
- Relies on service from others rather than own efforts
- Feels unfairly treated when doesn't get own way. May refuse to cooperate.
- Plays "divide and conquer" to get own way.

First Child

- Is only child for period of time; used to being center of attention.
- Believes must gain and hold superiority over other children.
- Being right, controlling often important.
- May respond to birth of second child by feeling unloved and neglected.
- Strives to keep or regain parents' attention through conformity. If this failed, chooses to misbehave.
- May develop competent, responsible behavior or become very discouraged.
- Sometime strives to protect and help others.
- Strives to please.

Second Child

- Never has parents' undivided attention.
- Always has sibling ahead who's more advanced.
- Acts as if in race, trying to catch up or overtake first child.
- If first child is "good," second may become "bad." Develops abilities first child doesn't exhibit. If first child successful, may feel uncertain of self and abilities.
- May be rebel.
- Often doesn't like position.
Feels "squeezed" if third child is born.
- May push down other siblings.

Middle Child of Three

- Have neither rights of oldest nor privileges of youngest.
- Feels life is unfair.
- Feels unloved, left out, "squeezed."
- Feels doesn't have place in family.
- Becomes discouraged and "problem child" or elevates self by pushing down other siblings.
- Is adaptable.
- Learns to deal with both oldest and youngest sibling.

Fourthborns in Birth Order

A fourth born is the fourth baby born in childbirth (Clifford, 2002) describes fourth borns as being more prone to opposing criticism and able to dissociate from themselves, as well as having analytical thinking. (Bradshaw, 1996) stated that the behavioral patterns of fourth born children tend to lean towards them feeling more responsible about issues that might be going on around them, but to also feel powerless to do anything about them. Others such as (Nancy, 2007) state that the behaviors of fourth born children are not inherent and could change depending on the family dynamics.

Youngest Child

- Behaves like only child.
- Feels every one bigger and more capable.
- Expects others to do things, make decisions, take responsibility.
- Feels smallest and weakest. May not be taken seriously.
- Becomes boss of family in getting service and own way.
- Develops feelings of inferiority or becomes “speeder” and overtakes older siblings.
- Remains “The Baby.” Places others in service.
- If youngest of three, often allies with oldest child against middle child.

The middle child of three is usually different from the middle child of a large family. The middle children of large families are often less competitive as parents don't have as much time to give each child and so the children learn to cooperate to get what they want. Only children usually want to be adults, and so don't relate to peers very well. When they

become adults, they often believe they've finally "made it" and can now relate better to adults as peers. During their formative years, only children live primarily in the world of adults. They must learn how to operate in the big people's world as well as how to entertain themselves. Thus they often become very creative in their endeavors.

2.3 Theoretical Background

2.3.1 The family system Theory

Family systems theory is a theory of human behaviour that views the family as an emotional unit and uses, systems thinking to describe the complex interactions in the unit Bowen (1959). It is the nature of a family that its members are intensely connected emotionally. Often people feel distant or disconnected from their families, but this is more feeling than fact. Family members so profoundly affect each other's thoughts, feelings and actions that it often seems as if people are living under the same "emotional skin". People solicit each other's attention, approval and support and react to each other's needs, expectations and distress. The connectedness and reactivity make the functioning of family members interdependent. A change in one person's functioning is predictably followed by reciprocal changes in the functioning of others. Families differ somewhat in the degree of interdependence, but it is always present to some degree. The emotional interdependence presumably evolved to promote the cohesiveness and cooperation families require protecting, shelter and feed their members. Heightened tension, however, can intensify these processes that promote unity and teamwork, and this can lead to problems. When family members get anxious, the anxiety goes up, the emotional connectedness of family members becomes more stressful than comforting. Eventually, one or more members feel overwhelmed, isolated, or out of control.

These are the people who accommodate the most to reduce tension in others. It is a reciprocal interaction. For example, a person takes too much responsibility for the distress of others in relationship to their unrealistic expectations of him. The one accommodating the most literally “absorbs” anxiety and thus is the family member most vulnerable to problems such as depression, alcoholism, affairs, or physical illness. A family is a system in which each member had a role to play and to respect. Members of the system are expected to respond to each other in a certain way according to their role, which is determined by relationship agreements. Within the boundaries of the system, patterns develop as certain family member’s behaviour is caused by and causes other family member’s behaviour in predictable ways. Maintaining the same pattern of behaviours within a system may lead to balance in the family system, but also to dysfunction. For example, if a husband is depressive and cannot pull himself together, the wife may need to take up more responsibilities to pick up the slack. The change in roles may maintain the stability in the relationship, but it may also push the family towards a different equilibrium. This new equilibrium may lead to dysfunction as the wife may not be able to maintain this overachieving role over a long period of time.

- **Triangles:** The smallest stable relationship system: Triangles usually have one side in conflict and two sides in harmony, contributing to the development of clinical problems.
- **Differentiation of self:** The variance in individuals in their susceptibility to depend on others for acceptance and approval.
- **Nuclear family emotional system:** The four relationship patterns that define where problems may develop in a family.

- Marital conflict
- Dysfunction in one spouse
- Impairment of one or more children
- Emotional distance
- **Family projection process:** The transmission of emotional problems from parents to a child.
- **Multigenerational transmission process:** The transmission of small differences in the levels of differentiation between parents and their children.
- **Emotional cut-off:** The act of reducing or cutting off emotional contact with family as a way managing unresolved emotional issues.
- **Sibling position:** The impact of sibling position on development and behaviour.
- **Societal emotional process:** The emotional system governs behaviour on a societal level, promoting both progressive and regressive periods in a society.

Family system theory emerged from General Systems Theory by scholars who found it had many applications to families and other social systems. Any system is defined as a bounded set of interrelated elements exhibiting coherent behaviour as a trait. (Constantine, 1986).

Another definition is an assemblage of objects related to each other by some regular interaction or interdependence (Webster). Families are considered systems because they are made up of interrelated elements or objectives, they exhibit coherent behaviours, they have regular interactions, and they are interdependent on one another. A family is a system in which each member had a role to play and to respect. Members of the system are expected to respond to each other in a certain way according to their role, which is

determined by relationship agreements. Within the boundaries of the system, patterns develop as certain family member's behaviour is caused by and causes other family member's behaviour in predictable ways. Maintaining the same pattern of behaviours within a system may lead to balance in the family system, but also to dysfunction. For example, if a husband is depressive and cannot pull himself together, the wife may need to take up more responsibilities to pick up the slack. The change in roles may maintain the stability in the relationship, but it may also push the family towards a different equilibrium. This new equilibrium may lead to dysfunction as the wife may not be able to maintain this overachieving role over a long period of time.

Bowen family systems theory is a theory of human behaviour that views the family as an emotional unit and uses systems thinking to describe the complex interactions in the unit. It is the nature of a family that its members are intensely connected emotionally. Often people feel distant or disconnected from their families, but this is more feeling than fact. Family members so profoundly affect each other's thoughts, feelings and actions that it often seems as if people are living under the same "emotional skin". People solicit each other's attention, approval and support and react to each other's needs, expectations and distress. The connectedness and reactivity make the functioning of family members interdependent. A change in one person's functioning is predictably followed by reciprocal changes in the functioning of others. Families differ somewhat in the degree of interdependence but it is always present to some degree.

2.3.2 The Components of Family Systems Theory

The components are as follows: Family Systems:

- Have interrelated elements and structure. The elements of a system are the members of the family. Each element has characteristics; there are relationships between the elements; the relationships function in an interdependent manner. All of these create a structure, or the sum total of the interrelationships among the elements, including membership in a system and the boundary between the system and its environment.
- Interact in patterns. There are predictable patterns of interaction that emerge in a family system. These repetitive cycles help maintain the family's equilibrium and provide clues to the elements about how they should function.
- Have boundaries and can be viewed on a continuum from open to close. Every system has ways of including and excluding elements so that the line between those within the system and those outside of the system is clear to all. If a family is permeable and vague boundaries it is considered "open" "Open boundary systems allows elements and situations outside the family to influence it. It may even welcome external influences. Closed boundary systems isolate its members from the environment and seem isolated and self-contained. No family system is completely closed or completely opened.
- Function by the Composition Law: The Whole is More than the Sum of Its Parts. Every family system, even though it is made up of individual elements, results in an organic whole. Overall family images and themes are reflected in this holistic quality. Unique behaviours may be ascribed to the entire system that does not appropriately describe individual elements.

- Use messages and rules to shape members. Messages and rules are relationships agreements which prescribe and limit a family members' behaviour over time. They are repetitive and redundant. They are rarely, if ever, explicit or written down. They give power; they induce guilt, they control or limit behaviours; and they perpetuate themselves and reproduce. Most messages and rules can be stated in one or few words. For example, *More is good, be responsible, and be Perfect* are all examples of messages/rules.

Have subsystems. Every family system contains a number of small groups usually made up of 2-3 people. The relationships between these people are known as subsystems, coalitions, or alliances. Each subsystem has its own rules, boundaries, and unique characteristics. Membership in subsystems can change over time.

2.3.3 Psychosocial Theory

One of the main elements of Erikson's psychosocial stage theory (1968) is the development of ego identity. Ego identity is the conscious sense of self that we develop through social interaction. According to Erikson, our ego identity is constantly changing due to new experiences and information we acquire in our daily interactions with others. In addition to ego identity, Erikson also believed that a sense of competence motivates behaviors and actions. Each stage in Erikson's theory is concerned with becoming competent in an area of life. If the stage is handled well, the person will feel a sense of mastery, which is sometimes referred to as ego strength or ego quality. If the stage is managed poorly, the person will emerge with a sense of inadequacy.

Stage 1 - Basic Trust vs. Mistrust

- I. Developing trust is the first task of the ego, and it is never complete.
- II. The child will let mother out of sight without anxiety and rage because she has become an inner certainty as well as an outer predictability.
- III. The balance of trust with mistrust depends largely on the quality of maternal relationship.

Stage 2 - Autonomy vs. Shame and Doubt

- I. If denied autonomy, the child will turn against him/herself urges to manipulate and discriminate.
- II. Shame develops with the child's self-consciousness.
- III. Doubt has to do with having a front and back "behind" subject to its own rules. Left over doubt may become paranoia.
- IV. The sense of autonomy fostered in the child and modified as life progresses serves the preservation in economic and political life of a sense of justice.

Stage 3 - Initiative vs. Guilt

- I. Initiative adds to autonomy the quality of undertaking, planning, and attacking a task for the sake of being active and on the move.
- II. The child feels guilt over the goals contemplated and the acts initiated in exuberant enjoyment of new locomotors and mental powers.
- III. The castration complex occurring in this stage is due to the child's erotic fantasies.

- IV. A residual conflict over initiative may be expressed as hysterical denial, which may cause the repression of the wish or the abrogation of the child's ego: paralysis and inhibition, or overcompensation and showing off.
- V. The Oedipal stage results not only in oppressive establishment of a moral sense restricting the horizon of the permissible, but also sets the direction towards the possible and the tangible which permits dreams of early childhood to be attached to goals of an active adult life.

After Stage 3, one may use the whole repertoire of previous modalities, modes, and zones for industrious, identity-maintaining, intimate, legacy-producing, despair-countering purposes.

Stage 4 - Industry vs. Inferiority

- I. To bring a productive situation to completion is an aim which gradually supersedes the whims and wishes of play.
- II. The fundamentals of technology are developed
- III To lose the hope of such "industrious" association may pull the child back to the more isolated, less conscious familial rivalry of the oedipal time
- IV The child can become a conformist and thoughtless slave whom others exploit.

Stage 5 - Identity vs. Role Confusion (or "Diffusion")

- I. The adolescent is newly concerned with how they appear to others.

- II. Ego identity is the accrued confidence that the inner sameness and continuity prepared in the past are matched by the sameness and continuity of one's meaning for others, as evidenced in the promise of a career.
- III. The inability to settle on a school or occupational identity is disturbing.

Stage 6 - Intimacy vs. Isolation

- I. Body and ego must be masters of organ modes and of the other nuclear conflicts in order to face the fear of ego loss in situations which call for self-abandon.
- II. The avoidance of these experiences leads to isolation and self-absorption.
- III. The counterpart of intimacy is distantiation, which is the readiness to isolate and destroy forces and people whose essence seems dangerous to one's own.
- IV. Now true genitality can fully develop.
- V. The danger at this stage is isolation which can lead to severe character problems.

Erikson's listed criteria for "genital utopia" illustrate his insistence on the role of many modes and modalities in harmony. Mutuality of orgasm with a loved partner of opposite sex with whom one is willing and able to share a trust, and with whom one is willing and able to regulate the cycles of work, procreation, and recreation so as to secure to the offspring all the stages of satisfactory development.

Stage 7 - Generativity vs. Stagnation

- I. Generativity is the concern in establishing and guiding the next generation.
- II. Simply having or wanting children doesn't achieve generativity.
- III. Socially-valued work and disciples are also expressions of generativity.

Stage 8 - Ego Integrity vs. Despair

- I. Ego integrity is the ego's accumulated assurance of its capacity for order and meaning.
- II. Despair is signified by a fear of one's own death, as well as the loss of self-sufficiency, and of loved partners and friends.
- III. Healthy children, Erikson tells us, won't fear life if their elders have integrity enough not to fear death.

Psychosocial theories emphasize the idea that personality is intrinsically social and that the important issues of personality concern how people relate to others. Several psychosocial theories focus on early life. Mahler's object relations theory proposes that infants begin life merged psychologically with their mothers and that they separate and individuate during the first 3 years of life. How this takes place influences later adjustment.

Self-psychology resembles object relations theory (Kohut's 1984) stated that humans have narcissistic needs that are satisfied by other people, represented as self-objects. If the child receives enough mirroring (positive attention) from self-objects (chiefly the mother), the sense of self develops appropriately. If there's too much mirroring, the child won't be able to deal with frustrations. If there's too little, the development of the self is stunted.

Many of the themes of object relations and self-psychology were anticipated by (Horney, 1995) who wrote that people suffer from basic anxiety, a feeling of being abandoned,

isolated, and alone. People develop strategies to cope with this. If the strategies aren't successful in obtaining affection, they lead to a vicious cycle of increased anxiety.

Some of these ideas are also echoed in the work of attachment theorists such as (Bowlby 1969 and Ainsworth 1973). Secure attachment provides a solid base for exploration. There are also patterns of insecure attachment (ambivalent and avoidant), which stem from inconsistent treatment, neglect, or rejection. There's increasing interest in the idea that infant attachment patterns persist and influence adult personality. The theory states that, *Attachment* is a deep and enduring emotional bond that connects one person to another across time and space (Ainsworth, 1973; Bowlby, 1969). Attachment does not have to be reciprocal. One person may have an attachment with an individual which is not shared. Attachment is characterized by specific behaviors in children, such as seeking proximity with the attachment figure when upset or threatened (Bowlby, 1969). Attachment behavior in adults towards the child includes responding sensitively and appropriately to the child's needs. Such behavior appears universal across cultures. Attachment theory provides an explanation of how the parent-child relationship emerges and influences subsequent development. Although people do display diverse ways of relating across their social connections, a core tendency seems to exist. Adult attachment patterns influence many aspects of behavior, including how people relate to work activities and how they seek and give emotional support, as well as how they relate to parents as who are most close to children.

Another important theory of the psychosocial group is Erikson's theory of psychosocial development. Erikson postulated a series of crises from infancy to late adulthood, giving rise to ego strengths that influence one's ego identity: the consciously experienced sense of self. Erikson assumed that each crisis becomes focal at one stage but that each is

present in a less obvious form throughout life. The first crisis concerns the development of a sense of basic trust. The child then becomes concerned with control over its body and the sense of autonomy that goes along with that. The next issue is initiative, as the child seeks to exercise its power. As children enter the school years, they begin to realize that the social environment demands that they should be industrious. With adolescence, the child enters a new stage of life and a crisis over identity. In young adulthood, identity issues give way to concern over intimacy. Finally, in the last stage of life, people confront the integrity of their lives as a whole. Assessment techniques from the psychosocial view are similar to those of ego psychology, but focus more on people's relationships (Kohurt 1984). This approach also leads to use of play as an assessment method with children. The psychosocial view of problems focuses on the idea that problems are rooted in relationship issues. Kohut suggested that pathological narcissism stems from inadequate childhood mirroring. (Horney, 1995) suggested that people's strategies for dealing with basic anxiety involve moving toward, away from, or against other people. Adaptive functioning involves flexibly shifting from one strategy to another as needed. Poor adjustment comes from rigid reliance on one strategy. It has also been suggested that insecure attachment creates a risk for depression.

These theories approach therapy in ways similar to those of ego psychology, but there are additional variations. One of them is play therapy for children. Object relations and attachment theories also suggest that a relationship with a therapist is critical, in permitting reintegration of the sense of self or establishing a sense of secure attachment.

2.3.4 Theories of Birth Order

Alfred Adler (1870–1937), an Austrian psychiatrist, and a contemporary of Sigmund Freud and Carl Jung, was one of the first theorists to suggest that birth order influences personality. He argued that birth order can leave an indelible impression on an individual's style of life, which is one's habitual way of dealing with the tasks of friendship, love, and work. According to Adler, firstborns are "dethroned" when a second child comes along, and this may have a lasting influence on them. Younger and only children may be pampered and spoiled, which can also affect their later personalities. Additional birth order factors that should be considered are the spacing in years between siblings, the total number of children, and the changing circumstances of the parents over time. Since Adler's time, the influence of birth order on the development of personality has become a controversial issue in psychology. Among the general public, it is widely believed that personality is strongly influenced by birth order, but many psychologists dispute this. One modern theory of personality states that the Big Five personality traits of Openness, Conscientiousness, Extraversion, Agreeableness, and Neuroticism represent most of the important elements of personality that can be measured. Contemporary approaches to birth order frequently suggest that birth order influences these five traits. Birth order has strong and consistent effects on the Big Five personality traits (Sulloway, 2001). He argues that firstborns are more conscientious, more socially dominant, less agreeable, and less open to new ideas compared to laterborns. However, critics such as (Blanchard, 2001) argue against Sulloway's theories. An issue of *Politics and the Life Sciences*, dated September, 2000 but not published until 2004 due to legal threats from Sulloway (who claimed its content to be defamatory, although it was carefully and

rigorously researched and sourced), contains criticisms of Sulloway's theories, including studies that show conflicting findings.

In their book *Sibling Relationships: Their Nature and Significance across the Lifespan*, Lamb and Sutton-Smith, (1982) make the point that sibling relationships often last an entire lifetime. They point out that the lifespan view proposes that development is continuous, with individuals continually adjusting to the competing demands of socialization agents and biological tendencies. Thus, even those concerned only with interactions among young siblings implicitly or explicitly acknowledge that all relationships change over time and that any effects of birth order may be eliminated, reinforced, or altered by later experiences.

2.3.5 Birth Order, Personality and Intelligence

Claims about birth order effects on personality have received only mixed support in scientific research. Such research is a challenge because of the difficulty of controlling all the variables that are statistically related to birth order. Family size, and a number of social and demographic variables are associated with birth order and serve as potential confounds. For example, large families are generally lower in socioeconomic status than small families. Hence third born children are not only third in birth order, but they are also more likely to come from larger, poorer families than firstborn children. If third-born have a particular trait, it may be due to birth order, or it may be due to family size, or to any number of other variables. Consequently, there are a large number of published studies on birth order that vary widely in quality and are inconsistent in their conclusions.

Literature reviews that have examined many studies and attempted to control for confounding variables tend to find minimal effects for birth order. (Ernst and Angst, 1983) reviewed all of the research published between 1946 and 1980. They also did their own study on a representative sample of 6,315 young men from Switzerland. They found no substantial effects of birth order and concluded that birth order research was a "waste of time." Research by (Ernst and Angst, 1983) analyzed data from a national sample of 9,664 subjects on the Big Five personality traits of extraversion, neuroticism, agreeableness, conscientiousness, and openness to experience. Contrary to Sulloway's predictions, they found no significant correlation between birth order and self-reported personality. There was, however, some tendency for people to perceive birth order effects when they were aware of the birth order of an individual.

Other studies have supported Sulloway's claims about birth order. (Paulhus, 2001) found consistent support in self-reports by both student and adult samples. First borns scored higher on conservatism, conscientiousness and achievement orientation. Later borns scored higher on rebelliousness, openness, and agreeableness. The authors argued that the effect emerges most clearly from studies within families. Results are weak at best, when individuals from different families are compared. The reason is that genetic effects are stronger than birth order effects. Studies by (Harris, 1998) also support the claim that only children are not markedly different from their peers with siblings. Scientists have found that they share many characteristics with firstborn children including being conscientious as well as parent-oriented. Birth order effects may exist within the context of the family of origin, but that they are not enduring aspects of personality (Harris, 1998). When people are with their parents and siblings, firstborns behave differently from

laterborns, even during adulthood. However, most people don't spend their adult lives in their childhood home. Harris provides evidence that the patterns of behavior acquired in the childhood home don't affect the way people behave outside the home, even during childhood. Harris concludes that birth order effects keep turning up because people keep looking for them, and keep analyzing and reanalyzing their data until they find them.

Since the 1970s, one of the most influential theories to explain why firstborns frequently score higher on intelligence and achievement tests than other children is the confluence model of (Zajonc, 1976). This model states that because firstborns mainly have adult influences around them in their early years, they will spend their initial years of life interacting in a highly intellectual family environment. This effect may also be observed in siblings who, although later born, have a sibling at least five years senior with no siblings in between. These children are considered to be "functional firstborns". The theory further suggests that firstborns will be more intelligent than only children, because the latter will not benefit from the "tutor effect" (i.e. teaching younger siblings). (Zajonc's 1976), theory has been criticised for confounding birth order with both age and family size, and researchers such as (Polit and Falbo, 1988) have offered alternative explanations for the Belmont and Marolla findings. In a metaanalysis of existing research, (Polit and Falbo, 1988) found that firstborns, only children, and children with one other sibling score higher on tests of verbal ability than laterborns and children with multiple siblings. This observation does support a conclusion, more modest than the confluence model's stronger claims that smaller families lead to children with higher test scores. However, when the meta analysis tested more specific claims by comparing firstborns against the members of the other groups also occupying the upper performance tier (i.e., singletons

and children with one and only one sibling), it found that firstborns do not enjoy any advantage over the members of the other groups, suggesting that either:

(a) firstborns do not enjoy any advantage not also enjoyed by those other groups' members and

(b) to whatever extent firstborns do enjoy unique advantages, members of the other upper-tier groups enjoy offsetting advantages *not* shared by firstborns.

While more consistent with resource depletion theory (RDT) than with the confluence model, these findings also cast doubt upon the claim that RDT is the sole cause of any correlation that in fact exists: Based on RDT, only children would have an advantage over firstborns. The analysis, however, finds no such effect, the other factors, including but not limited to those enumerated in the confluence model, have some offsetting effect. For example, in multiple-child families, academic achievement often serves as one of several arenas in which siblings compete for parental affection and other resources. In well-functioning families, firstborns reap the side effects not only of tutoring younger siblings but also of competing against those siblings to some degree and strengthening themselves in the process. In families where sibling rivalry reaches a pathological level, and especially when a scarcity of parental resources such as affection exacerbates already-severe rivalry, firstborns may be less willing to give away competitive advantage by sharing knowledge with their siblings, but the firstborns in question will by that same token likely study harder for their own benefit, gaining reinforcement similar to what they would realize from the teaching process. In each case, other factors at least partially offset the obstacles to achievement that resource depletion poses, especially in the

context of comparing siblings' achievements to those of singletons who engage in neither tutoring nor inter-sibling competition. Moreover, younger as well as firstborn siblings benefit from the process of competing for parental resources that are finite even when they are abundant, meaning that resource depletion is not the only factor in play even for children in the "lower tier," that encompassing laterborns and children with multiple siblings, who do not enjoy any advantage not also enjoyed by firstborns.

The basic finding that firstborns have higher IQ scores has itself been disputed. One group of researchers examined data from the National Longitudinal Survey of Youth (NLSY) (USA), which gave them the opportunity to look at a large randomly selected sample of US families. The sample included children whose academic performance had been reviewed multiple times throughout their academic careers. This study found no relationship between birth order and intelligence. Recent studies of eldest children by Harvard Medical Journal (2009) and a thesis published by Swedish research scientists (Rogers, Van Den Oord and Rowe, 2000), suggested that past research focuses too heavily on early life. Both papers point to a distinctly higher rate of success among second born later in life in the areas of career as well as wealth.

2.4 Empirical Review

2.4 .1 Empirical Studies on Family Functioning and Students Achievement.

Children whose parents allow them to participate in domestic activities such as cooking, cleaning rooms, doing their dishes show correlation with school achievement at $r=0.55$. Mothers who punish their children for getting poor grades recorded significant relationship between administering the punishment and improvement in achievement at

r.73. Relationship was also found between family monitoring of child and academic achievement r.79.

Authoritative parents spent a large amount of time with their adolescent children monitor their where about and types of friends they keep than other parents. Multivariate analysis of variance was performed on the family functioning variables in which the results showed that parenting type account for 50% of the variability in parenting with $F(5, 18348) = 342.16$ against other type of parenting, (Nyarko 2011). The finding of this research Authoritative Parenting and Adolescents Academic Achievement showed a positive and significant relationship between mothers authoritativeness and school achievement $r=0.846$ $p < 0.01$ while fathers authoritativeness $r=0.204$ $p > 0.05$. Empirical research on family functioning by (Tamtekin, 2012), indicated there is relationship between family hygiene and adolescence achievement at $r=0.691$, according to the study, the performance of student has a strong positive impact on students' performance $P=0.000 < 0.05$. (Starr, 2011) have studied relationship between family functioning, parenting styles and scholastic achievement among colleges students. The findings revealed children of permissive parents has strong positive correlation $r=0.810$, children of authoritarian mothers have $r=0.780$, authoritative mothers record $r=0.771$ for fathers who are permissive $r=0.85$. Children of all fathers who are authoritative show a strong positive correlation with their scholastic achievement at $r=0.92$. Studies on parental typologies by (Mandara, 2012), showed the average age of adolescent students recorded a mean of 18.11 ($sd=3.83$), mothers average of authoritative nature record a mean of 44.6 ($sd=2.2$). The students years of education record a mean of 13.11 ($sd=2.4$). Parental level of education

correlates significantly with students' performance at $r.82$ while poverty status indicates $r.31$.

2.4.2 Empirical Studies on psychosocial interaction and Students Achievement

Effects of a school meal on fluid intelligence using Raven's Progressive Matrices found a significant effect of treatment: children in the group who received meat gained an average of 0.34 points per year more than the control group who were not fed (P value < 0.05) (Whaley and Neumann (2003). Randomized cross-over study of the short-term effects of providing breakfast on four cognitive tasks. They report significant treatment effects for verbal fluency (P value < 0.02) and a significant treatment by nutritional status interaction (P value < 0.05 Chandler (1995) performed). Those children who were undernourished (defined as 1 or more than 1 standard deviation below National Centre for Health Statistics references) had scores (unadjusted for clustering) that were 1.5 points higher after receiving breakfast than when they received the placebo (P value < 0.01). However, breakfast made no difference to the children who were classified as adequately nourished (above - 1 s.d. for weight- for-age). No significant effects of school feeding were found on information processing, visual search or digit span for either well-nourished or undernourished children. A study found that there exists a relationship between social support and academic achievement of the students. They explained that social support from both family and friends influence youngsters' educational achievement and long-term educational plan (Steinberg and Darling, 1994).

In short, social support has been found to help elevate students' achievement. Thus, this study focuses on students with good academic performance that differ from those who perform poorly in academic life and how this relates to the level of social support that they receive. The findings from this study could benefit educators by providing necessary support to enhance academic performance among students. Social support refers to the experience of being valued, respected, cared about, and loved by others who are present in one's life (Gurung, 2006). Social support is an element that can help individuals to reduce the amount of stress experienced as well as help individuals cope better in dealing with stressful situations. Several studies indicated that supportive contacts correlate negatively with symptoms and psychological disorder such as stress, depression and other psychiatric disorder, and positively correlate with physical and mental health. A study by (Nahid and Sarkis, 1994) for example, found that social support protects people in life crisis such as bereavement, illness, and other major stress, and moderate the effect of stressors on psychological well being. Quality of social support is central to the individual's adjustment. The quality of social support perceived and received has been reported by several studies to correlate more positively with mental health than the quantity of support received (Nahid and Sarkis, 1994; Holahan, Valentiner, and Moos, 1995).

2.4.3 Empirical Studies on Birth Order

There is a substantial literature on birth order effects in education. (Zajonc, 1976), (Olneck and Bills, (1979), (Blake, 1981), (Behrman and Taubman, 1986)n and (Kessler 1991), among others, found mixed results that provide support for a variety of birth order

theories ranging from the “no-one-to-teach” hypothesis to the theory of differential genetic endowments. However, with the strong birth order effects found in (Behrman and Taubman, 1986) and, more recently, in (Black, Devereux and Salvanes 2005), (Booth and Kee, 2009), the literature seems to be settling in favor of the existence of such effects and moving towards consideration and sophisticated testing of alternative mechanisms to account for such effects. In another strand of research, mostly in Psychology, the issue of birth order effects in IQ has been examined. In particular, (Rodgers et al, 2001) have consistently sided against the existence of such a relationship and they have criticized studies for confounding “within-family” and “between-family” processes and by attributing to the former, patterns that are actually shaped by the latter. More recently, (Black, Devereux and Salvanes 2007) and (Bjerkedal, et al, 2007) find strong and significant effects of birth order on IQ within families in a large dataset from Norway but (Whichman, Rodgers and McCallum, 2006) insist, using a multilevel approach that the effects only arise between families and they disappear within the family. The debate remains open as (Zajonc and Sulloway, 2007) criticize (Whichman, Rodgers and McCallum 2006) on several grounds and reach the opposite conclusion.

There is also a sizeable literature on the links between students’ effort in school and their academic performance. (Natriello and McDill 1986); (Wolters, 1999); (Covington, 2000). There appears to be a fairly clear consensus in this literature that greater student effort improves academic performance. For example (Stinebrickner and Stinebrickner 2006) show the importance of actual school effort on school performance. But our understanding of the factors that lead to greater student effort and how such effort interacts with other features of a student’s home and school environments is less clear.

Relevant to this paper, there is a literature on the relationship between parenting and parental involvement and student effort and, ultimately, performance (Trautwein and Koller, 2003; Fan and Chen, 2001; Hoover-Dempsey, et al., 2001). Most of this literature does not model or account for the endogenous nature of how the amount of school effort exerted by children is affected by parental incentives and policy instruments.

The earlier born siblings enjoy more parental time than later-born siblings. This may explain why earlier-born do better in school. Secondly, there could be differences in the genetic endowment of children by birth order. Indeed, later born siblings are born to older mothers so they are more likely to receive a lower quality genetic endowment. Third, first-borns' and parents' experience with them may have undue influence on parents' subsequent fertility decisions. According to this theory, a "bad draw," e.g., a difficult-to-raise, problematic child may cause parents to curtail their subsequent fertility whereas an easy-to-rear first-born would not. More generally, this phenomenon implies selection in the quality of parents' last-born child, with it being of lower quality than the average. Fourth, closely related to the "confluence model" of Zajonc, the "no one to teach" hypothesis postulates that the last born will not benefit from teaching a younger sibling. Without this pedagogic experience, the last born will not develop strong learning skills. Fifth, it may well be possible that the later-born siblings are more affected by changes in family structure, e.g., divorce, since later born children are more likely to spend more of their lives exposed to such family disruptions. Last, but not least, first-borns may enjoy higher parental investment for insurance purposes or simply because parents are more likely to enjoy utility from observing their eventual success in life.

The NLSY-C has very few observations coming from families with more than four siblings we focus our analysis on families with 2, 3 or 4 children. The table shows that while 34% of first born children are considered “one of the best in the class” only 27% of those coming fourth in the birth order reach such recognition. On the other hand, only 7.3% of first-borns are considered “below the middle or at the bottom of the class,” while 11.7% of 4th-borns are classified in such manner by their mothers.

Consistent with the reputation model, earlier born siblings face more intense, systematic parental scrutiny regarding homework. Parents are more likely to seek information on how much effort is being exerted by their children on homework. Family Fixed Effects estimates based upon a binary version of the dependent variable which equals one when the monitoring is most intense (daily checks on homework).

Indeed, once we control for the measures of ability, shows that having one each additional younger sibling is associated with an increase of more than two percentage points in the probability of being monitored every day. The effect is 50% larger once we control for family fixed effects. An early birth order is clearly associated with a loss of autonomy for the child. A first born child of four-children family is on average approximately 10 percentage points more likely to face daily homework monitoring relative to the last child born in that family.

The large effect sizes for differences in competition between males and females show that females, surprisingly, are more competitive on both scales than males. This seems counterintuitive as society usually views males as being more competitive. Had the sample size been larger, results may have been significant. Finally, large effect sizes were found with regard to differences between men and women for competition. Our results

show women to be more competitive than men when it comes to Personal Competition and Sibling Competition. The large effect sizes insinuate that when using a larger sample, these differences will become significant. Because our results were counterintuitive, further research is needed to see if perhaps there has been a shift in competitiveness.

2.5 Summary and Uniqueness of the study

Several scholarly literatures were reviewed on parental/family and psychosocial interaction, birth order and academic achievement. The work of renowned psychologist, ie Bamurid and Baldwin Schaeffer were reviewed to show evidence of role of family towards children/wards achievement. Some psychologists like (Schimamberg, 1983), (Callaghan, 1987), (Minuchian, 1978) all agree that primary responsibility of parents include reproduction, economic services, social order, socialization, emotional support and care, supervision, monitoring and interaction. (Kohuts, 1984) emphasize techniques of psychosocial support and ego psychology with a view to understand promotes parental relationship with children to promote adolescent achievement. Zjondic's birth order theories emphasized how children in first birth order are given consideration and time spent on them in order to monitor their school progress against other siblings from different birth order. This study investigates the role of parents towards their children performance in secondary schools in Kano state. The study will find out how the parents involve themselves in academic achievement through performing legitimate role shouldered on them. This may include payment of school fees, ensuring stable income for the welfare of the children, showing love and affection, monitoring emotional stability of the children, the study focused on ensuring sound moral behaviour, and promotion of

family cohesion as a means through which students can have high achievement or otherwise. Many researchers conducted on family functioning concentrate on nature of parental rearing practices, and the implication of the practice on the achievement of adolescence. This work concentrated on the family functioning with adolescence which include; adolescence birth order, socio economic status, control over social disorder, socialization, and clinical attention with a view to succeed in scholastic achievement. Literatures on psychosocial support emphasized how social support to children remove emotions and provide confidence on the part of students to perform well in their school work.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter is concerned with description of methodology of the study. It presents the research design, population of the study and sample, measuring instruments, validation, data analysis procedure and statistical analysis used in analysing data collected for this research.

3.2 Research Design

Ex post facto design is a non-experimental research technique in which pre-existing groups are compared on some dependent variable; it is a type of study that can masquerade as a genuine experiment. This experiment appears to be a true experiment because of the way the groups are separated and the way the analysis is performed, but it is still subject to the same limitations as non-experimental research. The assignment of participants to the levels of the independent variable is based on events that occurred in the past, this is where the name is derived from. This non experimental research is similar to an experiment because it compares two or more groups of individuals with similar backgrounds who were exposed to different conditions as a result of their natural histories.

Ex post facto design was used for this research. The design was appropriate because the researcher requires neither the manipulation of variables nor will receive or arrange for an event to happen. (Asika 1994: 24) as cited in (Shehu, 2006), stated that Ex-post facto is “ a systematic empirical study in which the researcher does not in any way control or manipulate the independent variables because the situation (events) for the study already

exist or has already taken place". (Shavelson, 1981) as cited in (Shehu, 2006) also opined that ex-post facto design examines the degree of relationships that a researcher arrives at after facts that the treatments have been imposed by the variables on the subjects.

The researcher uses this design in such a way that the entire part of Kano State is represented. The researcher seeks to assess how family functioning, psychosocial interaction and birth order affect the children's scholastic achievement. The researcher uses the academic achievement of SSII students in senior secondary schools in Kano State. Parental family functioning, psychosocial support birth order and qualifying examination results were used to analyse the hypotheses.

3.3 Population and sample

3.3.1 Population

The total population for this study was sixty eight thousand one hundred and eighty four (68,184) students deduced from three hundred and seventy seven (377) Senior Secondary Schools, according to Department of Planning and Statistics, Ministry of Education Kano (MOE, 2013).

The population of the study comprised all male and female students of Senior Secondary Schools (SS II) in Kano State. The population was expected to have a common family concern and psychosocial support owing to the need to have a common motivation/reinforcement with a view to pass their examinations and proceed to higher institutions of learning.

TABLE 3.1: Distribution of Schools Selected by Population

SN	Schools	Population	(%)
1.	Government Secondary School Kawaji	519	8.7
2.	Government Girls Secondary School Mekwatashi	420	7.0
3.	Government Secondary School S/ Kofa	1034	17.2
4.	Government Secondary Schools Minjibir	350	5.9
5.	Government Girls Secondary School Jogana	219	3.6
6.	Government Secondary School Gwarzo	691	11.5
7.	Government Girls Secondary School Kabo	376	6.2
8.	Government Secondary School Rano	385	6.4
9.	Government Secondary School Bichi	450	7.5
10.	Government Girls Arabic Secondary School Danzabuwa	344	5.7
11.	Government Secondary School Dawakin Kudu	130	2.1
12.	Government Girls College Dala	436	7.2
13.	Government Secondary School Danbatta	650	10.8
Total		6004	100.0

Source: MOE Kano2014

3.3.2 Sample

The total sample for the study was three hundred and eighty two (382) students based on (Wiseman's, 1999) table of sample size. The sample was divided proportionally according to the size of schools selected. The sample for this study was drawn from nine zonal offices out of thirteen zones across the state. Schools were selected from each zonal office, two schools for boys and the other for girls while in some zonal areas one school for boys and one school for girls were selected, this selection was made because

the total enrolment by gender according to the State Planning and Statistics Department the ratio of boys to girls is about 2:1. Sample is a portion of the population that is selected for the study. (Amin, 2005: 232). Sample is a group of elements selected for research that have similar characteristics of the entire population. A sample on the other hand, is a collection of some (subset) elements of a population. (Sambo, 2008: 88). A sample is a subset of a population from which data for the study is collected.

TABLE 3.2: Distribution of Schools Selected by Sample

SN	Schools	Population	Sample	(%)
1	Government Secondary School Kawaji	519	36	8.7
2	Government Girls Secondary School Mekwatashi	420	27	7.0
3	Government Secondary School S/ Kofa	1034	66	17.2
4	Government Secondary Schools Minjibir	350	22	5.9
5	Government Girls Secondary School Jogana	219	14	3.6
6	Government Secondary School Gwarzo	691	44	11.5
7	Government Girls Secondary School Kabo	376	24	6.2
8	Government Secondary School Rano	385	24	6.4
9	Government Secondary School Bichi	450	29	7.5
10	Government Girls Arabic Secondary School Danzabuwa	344	22	5.7
11	Government Secondary School Dawakin Kudu	130	08	2.1
12	Government Girls College Dala	436	28	7.2
13	Government Secondary School Danbatta	650	41	10.8
Total		6004	382	100.0

Source: D.C Wiseman table of sample size 1999

3.3.3 Sampling Technique

In this work cluster sampling was adopted to sample the students who responded to the questionnaires cluster sampling according to (Amin, 2005) is a sampling technique used when "natural" but relatively homogeneous groupings are evident in a statistical population. It is often used in educational research. In this technique, the total population is divided into groups (or clusters) and a simple random sample of the groups is selected. Then the required information is collected from a simple random sample of the elements within each selected group. This was done for every element in the groups or a subsample of elements may be selected within each of these groups. A common reason for cluster sampling is to reduce the total number of interviews and costs given the desired accuracy. The technique gives more accurate results when most of the variation in the population is within the groups, not between them. The sample of the study was selected using cluster sampling technique. (Amin P 249, 2005) Cluster is a sampling technique in which elements of a population were grouped into clusters and simple random sampling or other type of sampling was performed on the clusters. The researcher deduced his sample of the study from students' population of the State Ministry of Education. For the fact that the two groups (high and low achievers) were used for the questionnaire administration, the researcher selected the top 25% of each sample as high achievers while last 25% was considered as low achievers. (Bichi 2004) asserted that clusters could be zonal education areas, within the zonal education areas schools were sampled, within schools classes were sampled and finally individuals (students) were sampled within classes.

3.4 Instruments for Data Collection

The instruments for data collection in this study are two questionnaires. They include:

1. Family Support Scale adopted from Noller (2006) and;
2. Parental Psychosocial Monitoring Scale adopted from Zimet (1988)

The two questionnaires were used to study parental functioning, and psychosocial interaction between the parents and students. The instruments Academic Family Functioning Scale and Academic Psychosocial Interaction Scale comprised of 25 items each. The first questionnaire has twenty five items which generate information on family functioning while the second questionnaire also has twenty five items as well. They were administered to generate information on psychosocial interaction between parents and their children, on academic matters. The items were arranged in 5 units, for every 4 positive items one item will prove whether what the students have endorsed is correct or wrong. All the items were scored on Likert type 4 scales. The arrangement was based on very true 4 to not at all true 1. Only negatively stated items were reverse scored.

3.5 Validation of Data Collection Instruments

The content of the instruments were given to both supervisor and experts in Test and Measurement within the Faculty of Education Bayero University Kano (BUK) for validation, after some modifications. Both measuring instruments Academic Family Functioning Scale and Academic Psychosocial Interaction Scales have 25 items each.

The whole validation exercise was completed in 21 days three days were allocated to each school. On the first day, the researcher gave out the questionnaires to the students to fill. On the second and third days students' academic achievement was recorded. On the

third week test re-test was performed, descriptive statistic was used to find the mean and standard deviation which were used to report the Pilot test. Cronbach's alpha coefficient was used to assess the internal consistency of the questionnaire (AFFS and APIS) Test re-test reliability was computed to examine the stability of the two (2) questionnaires. The first 25 items on (AFFS) Assess students parental high and low family functioning (FF), while the second 25 items on (APIS) assesses students' parental high and low psychosocial interaction (PI). Students' academic achievements were recorded from their qualifying examination. The two scales correlated significantly and positively to students' academic achievement. The highest correlation was obtained between student family functioning and academic achievement at .798 while the lowest correlation was found between students' psychosocial support and academic achievement at .717. The inter-correlation between two scales (Academic family functioning scales and Academic psychosocial interaction scale) has positively and significantly correlated at .761.

It was found that students with higher number scores in both questionnaires have higher score in academic achievement. It was also found that students with low score in the questionnaire also have low academic achievement. Higher achieving students filled the questionnaire with relative ease against low achieving students. Score of high achieving students correlate significantly with score of family functioning scale and psychosocial interaction scale. However, both students high and low achieving students find it difficult to comprehend the meaning of siblings and birth order in demographic section of the instruments for data collection. It was also found high achievers score of family functioning correlated significantly with scores of students' academic achievement. After

the validation test the researcher translated some questionnaires in to vernacular for the use of especially low achieving students.

3.6 Reliability coefficient of the Instruments

The original reliability coefficient of the of Family Functioning Questionnaire was found at .962 after test re-test by Noller an Australian family psychologist in 2006 the questionnaire she used consist of 30 items. While (Asher, 1997) used the same instrument and studied 58 members of a family of fifteen families. The instrument showed a reliability of .870. The second scale Academic psycho social interaction scale was developed by (Zimmet et al, 1988) showed a reliability coefficient of .931, after the validation study which involved fifty samples the coefficient of reliability of the two questionnaires revealed .886 and .799 for both academic family functioning scale and academic psychosocial interaction scales respectively.

3.7 Procedure for Data Collection

The researcher collected an introductory letter from the Department of Education Bayero University Kano which was used as an evidence studentship for information gathering in the respected schools the researcher sampled for the study. Researcher established a rapport with the principals he visited their schools, this was in view to help them understand the rationale behind the visit and information needed from both students and schools authority is for research purpose only and all information gathered will be treated with utmost confidentiality. For this reason the researcher first visited the principals or vice principal administrative to seek permission and requested an appropriate date and

convenience for both school authority and students for the questionnaire administration. If however the researcher was given go ahead the questionnaire administration begins at that moment. The exercise was completed in 4 months, each school was given a whole week to enable the researcher issue a questionnaire and retrieve it back from the sample. The researcher trained the class masters who acted as research assistants. The objective was to assist the students in his absence; this was specially done in schools that have larger population. Researcher gave out the questionnaires to the students to fill. Two days later he made a follow up and assessed the progress as well as collected those that were filled. Students' academic achievement was collected and recorded on the second visit.

3.8 Procedure for Data Analysis

Descriptive statistics was used to report minimum /maximum statistics, sample mean and standard deviation of the demographic variables. The five hypotheses formulated for this study were tested and analysed at $p=0.05$ using t-test, analysis of variance (ANOVA) and Chi (X^2) Square test. The statistical tools were used to find if there were significant differences between variables under study (High and Low parental Family functioning, Psychosocial Interaction, birth order and academic achievement). Descriptive summary was used to explain the variables under study. The researcher found a school whose students' average was not given in terms of percentage. Students were graded based on Distinction, Credit, Pass and Fail. The researcher computed the result of these twenty seven (27) students from Government Girls' Secondary School Mekwatashi through converting the grades to midpoint equivalent scores. Students who got 'C' were given 55

as 'C' grade ranges from 50-59; students who got 'B' were given 65 as the 'B' grade ranges from 60-69, etc.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

4.1 Introduction

This study examined family functioning, psychosocial interaction and academic achievement among senior secondary school students in Kano State Five hypotheses were tested at 0.05 level of significance. The results were summarised below, the summary was based on: Descriptive statistical analysis which provide information for all variables under study and inferential statistical analysis which was used to test the five null hypotheses.

4.2 Descriptive Summary of the Data

Table 4.1: Descriptive Summary of the Variables.

Variables	N	Min.	Max.	Mean	Sd.
Students age	378	15	25	20.000	1.72617
Students no. of siblings	378	1	36	18.000	4.72952
Students birth order	378	1	37	19.000	6.22065
Academic achievement	378	8	94	51.000	26.77145

The table above presents a descriptive summary of the variables under study. The results showed total number of 378. Students' distribution by age was recorded with minimum age of 15 years and maximum age of 25 years among the sample. The students mean age

was recorded at 20.000 which slightly deviated away from the mean with a standard deviation of 1.72617.

The students' numbers of siblings among the learners were recorded base on minimum maximum statistics of 1 to 36 the mean of siblings among the sample were 18.000 with a standard deviation of 4.72952 respectively. On students' birth order the minimum/maximum statistics was recorded at 1 child per parents and 37 children per parents, with a mean of birth order was recorded at 19.000 and a standard deviation of 6.22065. Students' academic achievement was recorded at minimum/maximum score of average, performance of 8 and 94 for low and high achievers respectively. The mean score of the sample was recorded at 51.000 and a standard of 26.77145 respectively.

4.3: Test of Hypotheses

4.3.1: Hypothesis 1. There is no significant difference in academic achievement between students from parents with high and low family functioning among senior secondary school students in Kano State.

t-test was used to test this hypothesis

Table 4.2 Difference in academic achievement of students from parents with low and high family functioning

PFamily Functioning	Mean	Std Div	N	Df	t-cal	t-cal	P value	Dec
High family Tfunctioning	51.0919	26.58681	227					HO ₁
h				376	1.758	1.960	0.05	Accepted
e Low family Tfunctioning	45.7170	26.98104	106					

a

P>0.05

The table above presents a t-test for students' academic achievement between those from parents with high and low family functioning. The test showed t-calculated 1.758 is less than t-crit 1.960 at df 376. This concludes there is no significant difference between students from high and low family functioning in academic achievement. The null hypothesis which stated there is no significant difference in academic achievement between students from parents with high and low family functioning among senior secondary school students in Kano State is therefore accepted.

4.3.2: Hypothesis 2. There is no significant difference in academic achievement between students from parents with high and low psychosocial interaction among senior secondary school students in Kano State.

t-test was used to test this hypothesis.

Table 4.3 Difference in academic achievement of students from parents with Low and High psychosocial interaction.

Psychosocial Interaction	Mean	Std Div	N	df	t-cal	t-cal	p-value	Dec
High psychosocial interaction	68.9187	18.03837	209					HO ₂
Low psychosocial interaction	45.7170	26.98104	106	376	26.235	1.960	0.05	Rejected

P > 0.05

The table above presents t-test of students' academic achievement based on parental high and low psychosocial interaction. The test showed t-calculated value 26.235 is greater than t-critical value 1.960. (t-cal 26.235 > t-cri 1.960) at df 376. Since the calculated t value is greater than critical t value, we therefore reject the null hypothesis and conclude there is significant difference between the students. The rejection was due to difference found at 0.05 level significance 2 tailed tests. The mean of the two samples were found to be in favour of students from families with high psychosocial interaction.

4.3.3 Hypothesis 3: There is no significant difference in the academic achievement between 1st, 2nd, 3rd and other birth order among senior secondary school students in Kano State.

Anova test was used to test this hypothesis

Table 4.4 Students birth order and academic achievement

Source of variation	Sum of squares	Mean square	df	f-cal	f-cri	p-value	Dec
Between groups	1412.500	470.833	3				HO ₃
Within groups	268787.291	718.683	374	.655	9.01	0.05	Accepted
Total	270199.791		377				

P > 0.05

The table above presents ANOVA test between students' birth order and academic achievement. The test showed f-calculated value .655 is less than f-critical value 9.01 (f-cal .655 < f-cri 9.01) at df 3. Since f-calculated is less than f-critical, we therefore accept the null hypothesis and conclude there is no significant difference between students' birth order and their academic achievement among senior secondary school students in Kano state.

4.3.4: Hypothesis 4: There is no significant gender difference in high and low parental family functioning among senior secondary school students in Kano State.

Chi (χ^2) square test was used to test this hypothesis

Table 4.5 Gender difference and family functioning.

Family	Functioning	df	χ^2 cal	χ^2 cri	p-value	Dec
Male students	260					HO ₄
		1	7.268	3.84	.05	Rejected
Female Students	118					
Total	378					

P < 0.05

The table above presents chi square test of gender and students from parents with high family functioning and those from parents with low family functioning. The test showed chi square calculated value 7.268 is greater than critical square value (χ^2 cal 7.268 > χ^2 cri 3.84) at df 1. Since the calculated χ^2 value is greater than critical χ^2 value, we therefore reject the null hypothesis and conclude there is significant difference between gender in parental family functioning. The rejection was due to the difference found at 0.05 level of significance 2-tailed test.

4.3.5 Hypothesis 5: There is no significant gender difference in high and low parental psychosocial interaction among senior secondary school students in Kano State.

Chi (χ^2) square was used to test this hypothesis.

Table 4.6: Gender difference and parental psychosocial interaction

Psychosocial interaction	df	χ^2 cal	χ^2 cri	p-value	Dec	
Male	260				HO ₅	
Female	118	1	.029	3.84	0.05	Accepted
Total	378					

P > 0.05

The table above presents chi square test of students' gender and parental high and low psychosocial interaction. The test showed chi square calculated value .029 is less than chi square critical value ($\chi^2_{cal} .029 < \chi^2_{cri} 3.84$) at df 1 since the calculated chi square is less than critical chi square we therefore accept the null hypothesis and conclude students do not differ in parental psychosocial interaction based on their gender.

4.4 Summary of the major findings

1. There is no significant difference between students from parents with high and low family functioning in academic achievement among senior secondary school students in Kano State at t-cal 1.758.
2. There is significant difference between students from parents with high and low psychosocial interaction in academic achievement among senior secondary school students in Kano State t-cal 26.235.
3. No significant difference was found in academic achievement between students from 1st, 2nd, 3rd and other birth order f-cal .655.
4. There is significant gender difference between students from high and low parental family functioning among senior secondary school students at χ^2 7.268.
5. No significant gender difference was found between students from parents with high and low psychosocial interaction among senior secondary school students in Kano State $\chi^2_{cal} .029$.

4.5 Discussion

From the literature reviewed and data analysis made several conclusions were made. Among others were the needs to emphasise Nigeria educational psychology curriculum. Majority of parents could not understand the impact they could make on supporting their children's education. Due to culture, tradition and nature of public education, many families especially in this part of the country believe education of children is a full responsibility of government rather than parents and government. For a parent to develop a child they must support the child welfare which include; child medical health, nutrition, hygiene, education, etc. the higher the level of support the higher the wellbeing of the child, conversely on the other hand low support on the child will likely spell out disaster in the growth and development of the child. Parental psychosocial interaction is very important in the area of child development. It was discovered that many parents underrate the negative consequences of not interacting with their children. This brings about traumatic experiences to the children due to lack of guidance, emotional relief and consequences of child abuse among others. Quality family functioning especially on matters affecting the education and psychosocial interaction of parents with their children are two psychological needs of which a child should not miss. Any one of them (family functioning and psychosocial interaction) that a child lacks will definitely affect his wellbeing.

Research findings by (Oshman, and Monosevitz, (1999) have proven the importance of supporting children's education. For this reasons parents should make sure they fully intervene in all what it takes to provide comfort, nutrition and education to their children/wards. Majority of parents do not like to go home to interact with their children

rather they prefer to remain outside the home primarily to avoid being disturbed after work. This attitude silently promotes children loss of confidence, demoralisation and inability to build trust on one's own parents. The children may likely loose support, parents-child socialization, which in the long run kills the child's initiative, curiosity and industry thereby promoting anger and emotional instability. This will affect his general performance in school activity and extracurricular activities.

The subjects (students) who were administered with the questionnaires were 382. All of them were issued with a questionnaire. Three hundred and seventy eight (378) students returned the questionnaire and their responses were analyzed and reported. The research investigated effect of family functioning, psychosocial interaction, and birth order on students' academic achievement. Attempt was made to compare the findings of this research and other scholarly findings to investigate similarities or otherwise between this work and other researches on family functioning, psychosocial interaction, birth order and academic achievement in other countries.

The study revealed the youngest students studied in the sample were those with 15 years of age. Both students number of siblings and birth order showed a mean of 18 and 19 years respectively. This indicated that majority of the students who form the sample of the study were from extended family, on the other hand their fathers were married to more than one wife, as opposed former tradition of one man one wife.

The mean scores of students family functioning and psychosocial interaction was found at 63.5 and 64 percent respectively. The size of the children per house hold may make it practically impossible to give their children attention they need in terms of support services, socialisation, and order and quality education. The mean of the students'

academic achievement was recorded at 51% this conclude majority of the students who form the sample were average students.

Supporting in children education is the best investment which parents can make for their children (Muhammad 2003 and Bello 2008) showed family members play crucial role in child behaviour, ability and the development of skills, and knowledge. In this respect family nutrition, the health of the mother and her emotional stress can influence child's school achievement.

Majority of parents do consider the education of their male children more important than education of female children. This is due to many reasons. One of the reasons is that, male children are expected to support parents at old age or during parental retirement age, female are considered to end of at matrimonial home and it will be difficult for her to give proper attention to the parents, rather interest will be shifted to her husband and children. Culture and tradition also affect female children education. Majority of parent prefer to give out their female children to matrimonial life earlier to avoid social vices.

It is general responsibility of parents to educate their children for proper upbringing of the young, culturally as well as mentally. For this reason parents who took their children to school should do their best to educate and provide support to the children education, irrespective of their level of functioning (High or Low). Academic success is not an issue of parental level of functioning alone it also entails heredity factors, which include IQ inherited from the parents, rich and stimulating learning environment, positive peer influence, home tune, and nature of sibling rivalry which a child found him/her self within. This study found no significant difference between students from parents with high and low family functioning in academic achievement. (Jeynes, 2003) stated there are

several reasons why home– school relationships matter in middle and high school. Involvement and presence at school helps parents monitor their youth’s academic and social progress, acquire information they need to make decisions about their children’s academic future, and foster positive relationships with school staff. Home–school relationships also increase students’ achievement by conveying to both teachers and students parents’ achievement among secondary school students in Kano State at t-cal 1.758. the finding contradicts many western researches which showed there is significant difference between students from high and low family function in academic achievement in favour of parents who positively function, at t-cal 8.41. this lack of positive functioning was supported by (Minuchian 1987) family functioning model who view some families are characterized by dysfunctional due to rigidity, lack of individuation scape goating. The model is also in accord with the family functioning theory developed by (Bowen 1959) who view the family as an interacting element, the element are members who are perceived as triangle were two sides are in harmony and the other part in complicit and they are expected to functioning in interdependent manners.

Majority of parents especially in Northern part of the country or among Hausa Fulani culture tend to interact more with male children than female children. However, male parents interact more with male children and mothers equally interact more with female children. For the fact that fathers are responsible for the tune and emotions of the home, their inability to high psychosocial interaction with female children will result in drop of the female academic performance. Rarely, fathers assemble their adolescence and adult female children to look into their school work. Interest and encouragement are more with male children than female children. This study showed there is significant difference in

academic achievement of students from parents with high psychosocial interaction at t_{cal} 26.235. This findings is supported by the (Schiamberg 1983) family functioning model who views the whole idea of healthy family relied on the social interaction of the family. The model stated good family psychosocial interaction consist of socialisation of children, economic services and division of labour care supervision and monitoring among others. This finding is similar to the findings of (Keith *et al*, 1993) who demonstrated that parental involvement in students' academic achievement is indeed a powerful influence on students' achievement against children from uninvolved parents. (Lakshimi and Arora 2006) also showed there is significant difference in students' achievement among students from high and low psychosocial interaction at t_{cal} 2.32 in favour of students from high psychosocial interaction. (Adsul and Kamble, 2012), showed there is significant difference in students' academic performance form Parents with high and low parental family functioning at t_{cal} 7.247 (0.01). The findings equally supported the work of (Callaghan, 1987) model emphasised healthy family have the following characteristics among others consistent affection, communication and well defined parental roles.

In our traditional society and based on moral ground, all children are equal irrespective of their sex or age. Academic achievement remains a function of children hard-work rather than their birth order. This was against western studies like the work of (Walsh, 1985) which showed that many parents concentrate on either first or only child in attention and reinforcement. More time is spent on them and more support is given to them. Majority of students who form the sample of the study indicated that they belong to high birth order or possess a number of siblings. Students who perform high in academic

achievement reported they get school reinforcement from parents, friends (peers) siblings and other members of the public. This study showed there is no significant difference in academic achievement between students from different birth order at $t_{cal} .665$. This finding is similar to the findings of (Edward and Tharker, 1979), which discovered no significant differences between birth order and grade point average (Hauser and Sewel 1985) also reported no significant birth order effect on academic achievement among eighth graders.

In our culture, emphasis on family functioning is placed on male children. This was in need to prepare them to become later breadwinners of the family they belong and their family they will build later in life. (Hurton, 1988 and Kessler 1991) indicated parents prepare their children to avoid future uncertainty of their earnings and job security; the parents support the male children to enter labour market and contribute toward sustaining the family. This finding showed there is significant gender difference in parental family functioning in favour of male students at $\chi^2 7.268$ the findings is similar to the findings of (Blashfield and Aldenderfer, 1988), who studied gender and family functioning and found significant gender difference in favour of male using three-cluster solution as the best characterization of the data. The solution was replicated by *K*-means clustering technique, $\chi^2 (4) = 286.68, p < .01$.

Parents try their best in depending all members of a family especially on matters affecting shelters, security, health, and education and removing emotion irrespective of their gender. (Parke and Buriel 1998) indicated families form a system of interacting elements, parents and children influence one another. This study showed there is no significant gender difference in psychosocial interaction $\chi^2_{cal} .029$, the findings is different from the

findings of (Lian, 1998) who found perceived social support from family played a more important role in determining coping capability. Furthermore, it was found that perceived social support from females differed significantly from males in this analysis t-cal was found to be 3.13. In addition, results also revealed that there were significant gender differences for young adult's coping capability whereby females generally had better coping capability, as compared with males at t-cal 2.70.

In Hausa/Fulani tradition child birth order does not attract high or low level of family functioning. Family support depends on parental economic possession and degree of affordability. A child can get maximum family support only at a time when the parents have enough irrespective of time of their birth. Based on religious injunctions parents are prohibited from showing difference in supporting their children. No disparity is allowed based on gender or from which wife the child comes from. However, there is nothing wrong with level of reinforcement depending on the quality or hard-work demonstrated by a particular child.

Parental social support/psychosocial interaction are normally the same based on the state culture. Normally, parents tend to assist their children whenever the need arises irrespective of their birth order. In rare cases, parents expose their children to abuse, maltreatment or neglect due to birth order. However, research conducted by Ahmad (2011) showed children of mothers with advanced age do not get enough motherly concentration and attention

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Summary

In this chapter, the writer attempts to summarize all the procedures followed to meet the ends, through summary, conclusion and recommendations offered for the study conducted based on the family functioning and parental level of interaction among students of Senior Secondary Schools in Kano State.

The researcher investigated whether there is significant difference between family functioning, psychosocial interaction, birth order and students' academic achievement. The researcher formulated five research hypotheses to guide the study. The answer to the hypotheses test will bring in the light to especially parents and other stakeholders in the field of education, the impact of family on the children/ward achievement. The investigation is aimed at boosting family functioning and psychosocial interaction to enable the students possess minimum qualification for furthering education and/or enterprising themselves in line with government need in the area of producing self-reliant citizens. The family theory developed by (Bowen 1959, Parke and Kellam, 1994 and Kohurts 1996) emphasizes the role of family functioning and psychosocial interaction towards the success of children at school. Reviews were further made by some psychologists like (Minuchian 1978, Schimamberg 1983 and Callaghan 1987) family functioning models were surveyed.

Descriptive survey research design was adopted which allowed the distribution of family functioning and psychosocial interaction questionnaires to generate data. All the samples from thirteen (13) Senior Secondary Schools in the State were administered with a

questionnaire. Their responses were subjected to t-test, analysis of variance, and chi-square makes the research analysis.

5.2 Conclusion

1. Students do not significantly vary in school achievement based on parental high and low family functioning.
2. Students from parents with high and low psychosocial interaction significantly vary in academic achievement.
3. Students do not significantly vary in academic achievement based on their birth order.
4. Students vary based on gender parents with high and low parental family functioning.
5. gender do not significantly vary based on parents with high and low psychosocial interaction

5.3 Recommendations

Based on the findings of this study some recommendations were offered both for practice and for further studies.

- 1 Parents should remain indifferent in supporting their children education. Those (parents) who were low in family functioning should double their effort to facilitate/support their children education. Parents should also provide effective high family functioning to all their children as far as their resources can carry them irrespective of the children birth order.

2. Parents should fully interact with their children through investigating their progress school visit to develop confidence in their children toward academic success. Parents should also remain close and give support to all children by giving them courage.
3. Parents should support their children education irrespective of their birth order.
4. Parents should avoid low function in supporting their female education. Both male and female children are the same. There is need for both of them to have fair treatment.
5. Parents should interact with their children and support them irrespective of their gender.

5.4 Recommendations for Further Studies

- i. There is need to make a comparative study on gender and psychosocial interaction among Hausa-Fulani children in North-Western Nigeria.
- ii. Research should be conducted to study the effect of divorce and remarriage on students' psychosocial interaction.
- iii. There is need to examine family functioning and psychosocial interaction among polygamous family structure.
- iv. The scope of the study can be widen across Nigeria different ethnic background.

References

- Abu-Hilal, M.H. (2000). *A structural Model Attitudes, towards School subjects, Academic Aspiration and achievement*. UAE University Press.
- Adler, A. (1964). *Problems of neurosis*. New York: Harper and Row.
- Adsul, R. & Kamble, V.S (2012). Academic Performance as Function of Parental Acceptance and Academic Climate among Adolescents. *ipedr*, 53 (12)55-58.
- Agulanna, G.G (1999). *Family structure and prevalence of behavioural problems in Nigerian Adolescence*. *The counselor*, 17(1), 154-159
- Ahmed, A. (2011). *Child development*. Kano Sahatu Press.
- Aikens, A. M. (1990). *Parental involvement: The key to academic success*. *Dissertations Abstracts International*, 63(6), 2105.
- Ainsworth, M.D (1973). *Patterns of attachment* New Jersey. Hillsdale, Erlbaum.
- Ainsworth, M. D. S. (1982). Attachment: Retrospect and prospect. In C. M. Parkes & J. Stevenson-Hinde (Eds.), *The place of attachment in human behavior* (pp. 3-30). New York: Basic Books.
- Ajila, C. & Olutola, A. (2007). *Impact of Parents' Socioeconomic Status on University Students' Academic Performance*. *Ife Journal of Education Studies*, 7(1): 31-39.
- Amato, P.R. & Fower, F. (2002). *Preventing Practices, Child Adjustment and Family Diversity*. *Journal of Marriage and the family*, 64, 703-716.
- Amin, M. E. (2005). *Social Research, Concept, Methods and Statistics*. Makerere University Press.
- Asher, S. R., (1997). *Peer rejection and loneliness in childhood*. In *Peer rejection in childhood* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Baldwin, S. (1959). in Ivan, C. (1994). *The development of clinical rating scale the McMaster model of family functioning* vol33 (1) 53-69
- Barber, B.K (1996). *Parental Psychological Control*. *Revising a Neglected Construct Child Development*. 67, 3296-3319.

- Barber B.K. and Harmon, E.L. (2002). *Violating the Self: Parental Psychological Control of Children and Adolescents*. A.PA Washington D.C.
- Barber, B. K. & Oslen, J A C (1997). *Connection, Regulation and Autonomy in the Family, School, Neighbourhood and Peers*. *Journal of Adolescent Research* 12, 287-315.
- Baumrind, D. (1967). *Child-care practices anteceding three patterns of preschool behavior*. *Genetic Psychology Monographs*, 75, 43-88.
- Behrman, J. & Taubman P. (1986) “*Birth Order, Schooling and Earnings*.” *Journal of Labor Economics*, 4(3): S121-S145.
- Bello, M. (2008). *Home Enviromental Influence on Child Achievement* Kano Sahatu Press.
- Bempehat J. & Drago-Severson E. (1999). *Cross National Differences in Academic Achievement*. Beyond ethnic Conceptions of Children’s Understandings. *Review Educational Research* 69, 287-314
- Best, W.J & Kahn V.J (2011), *Research in education* Prentice Hill Publishers. Delhi
- Bichi, M. Y. (2004). *Introduction to Research Methods and Statistics*. Kano Debis Co-Press,.
- Bjerkedal, T., P. Kristensen, G.& Brevik J. I. (2007) “*Intelligence Test Scores and Birth Order Among Young Norwegian Men*. Analyzed within and between Families.” *Intelligence*. 35(6): 503-514.
- Black, S., Devereux P.& Salvanes K. (2005) The Effect of Family Size and Birth Order on Children’s Education.” *Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 120(2): 669-700.
- Black, S. P. Devereux & K. Salvanes (2007). *Birth Order and IQ of Young Men*” NBER working paper 13237.
- Blake, J. (1981) “*Family Size and the Quality of Children*,” *Demography*, 18(4): 421-442.
- Blashfield R.K, & Aldenderfer M.S., (1988). The methods and problems of cluster analysis. In: Nesselroade JR, Cattell RB, editors. *Handbook of multivariate experimental psychology: Perspectives on individual differences*. 2nd ed. Plenum Press; New York:
- Blanchard R (2001). Fraternal Birth Order and the Maternal Immune hypothesis of male homosexuality. *Hormones and Behavior*. 40 (2): 105–114.
- Bowlby, T.R. (1967). Personality roles in large family. *Child Development*, 26, 71-78.
- Bowlby J. (1969). *Attachment. Attachment and Loss: Vol. 1. Loss*. New York: Basic Books.

- Booth, A. & Kee H. J. (2009). "Birth Order Matters: The Effects of Family Size and Birth Order on Educational Attainment," *Journal of Population Economics*. 22(2): 367-397.
- Bowen, M. (1959) *Family Evaluation: Theory*, Georgetown University Hospital," New York: Norton & Co.
- Bowen N K, Bowen G L & Ware W B (2002), *Neighbourhood Social Disorganization, Families and Education Behaviour of Adolescents*. *Journal of Adolescents* 17, 468-490.
- Bradshaw, J. (1996). *The Family: A New Way of Creating Solid Self-esteem*. Health Communications. pp. 36–37.
- Bradley. R. H.& Cornyn, R.E. (2003). *Age and Ethnic Variations in family Process Mediators of SES*. Mahwah, Earlbaum Press. N.J
- Bradshaw, J. (1996). *The Family: A New Way of Creating Solid Self-esteem*. Health Communications. pp. 36–37.
- Callaghan , K. (1987), *Maintaining Healthy Family Functioning*, Oxfordshire UK
- Christie B. Nancy, P. Barbara, S. & Ken, V. (2000). *Identifying student's achievement*. Indiana Bloomington press.
- Chadler, M.J.(1995). *Self awareness. Its nature and development*. New York, Guilford. Child Care Advocacy Association of Canada, 2004.
- Clifford E (2002). Birth Order effect how to better Understand yourself and others. Adams Media. Corporation.
- Cohen, E. (2012). Helping low achieving students succeed. www.funderstanding.com Retrieve 16 July, 2012
- Collangelo, N. Kerr, B. Cristiestensen,P & Makey, J.(1993). *A comparism of gifted underachievers and gifted high achievers*. *Gifted Child Quaterly*. 37, 155-160.
- Collins, W. A., & Laursen, B. (2004). *Parent-adolescent relationships and influences*.
- Costantine, L.(1986). *Family Paradigms: The Practice of Theory in Family Therapy*. Guilford Press.
- Covington, M. (2000). "Goal Theory, Motivation and School Achievement: An Integrative Review." *Annual Review of Psychology*. 51: 171-200.

- Crow L.D. & Crow,S. (1969).*Adolescent development and adjustment*. NY. McGrawhill Book Company.
- Cutrona, C. E., Cole, V., Colangelo, N. Assouline, S. G., & Russel, D. W. (1994). *Perceived Parental social support and academic achievement: An attachment theory perspective*. Journal of 'Personality and Social Psychology, 66(2), 369-378.
- Daniel, P. C. & Radhakrishna, R. (2009). *Handbook of Statistics Vol.29A Sample Surveys: Theory, Methods and Infernece*. Elsevier B.V.
- David K. I. & Barbagli, M. (2002). *The History of the European Family: Family life in the long nineteenth century (1789-1913)*. Yale University Press
- Deapartment of Startistics Ministry of Education Kano 2014
- Delisi, M. (1986). *Children with low achievement*. Ablex publishing Westport UK.
- Delisle, J. (1990). *Learning to underachieve*. Roeper Review, 4, 16-18.
- Delisle, J. (1994). Dealing with the stereotype of underachievement. Prufrock Press. Nov/Dec.
- Dinkmeyer, G. McKay D, and Don .D., (1978), Parent Education Leader's Manual Coral Springs, CMTI Press
- Dollete, Steese, Phillips, & Matthews, (2004). *Understanding girls' circle as an intervention of perceived social support, body image, self-efficacy, locus of control and self-esteem*. The Journal of Psychology, 90 (2), 204-215.
- Duncan,G.J.& Anston,L.(2004). *Children in crisis. Good practices in evaluating psycho-social program. The interpsychological evaluation committee and save the children*. New York
- Duncan, G.J. & Magnusson, K.A. (2003) *Socioeconomic Resources Parenting and Child Development*. Mahwah, N. J. Earbaum, 161.
- Duncan, G. J & Brooks-Gunn, J. (2002). *Family Poverty, Nature, Reform, and Child Development*, 71, 188-196.
- Eckenrode, J., Laird, M., & Doris, J. (1993). *School performance and disciplinary problems among abused and neglected children*. Developmental Psychology, 29, 53-62. doi: 10.1037/0012-1649.29.1.53
- Edwards, R.P., & Tharker, K., (1979). The relationship of birth order, gender, and grade point average in college. *Adolescence* 14, 111-114.

- Emeke, E.A. (1984). *Relationship between Personal Problems and Study Habits*. Journal of Applied Psychology, 3:113-119.
- Ernst, C. & Angst, J. (1983). *Birth order: Its influence on personality*. Springer.
- Epstein, N. B. Bishop, D., Ryan, C., Miller, & Keitner, G., (1993). *The McMaster Model View of Healthy Family Functioning*. In Froma Walsh (Eds.), *Normal Family Processes* (pp. 138-160). The Guilford Press: New York/London
- Erickson, E.(1968). *Handbook of Identity Theory and Research V, 2* Published by McGraw Hills 2008.
- Family Therapy News (July/August 1990). *Healthy families featured in Washington conference*.
- Fan, X. & Chen M. (2001). "Parental involvement and students' academic achievement: A meta-analysis." *Educational Psychology Review*, 13: 1-22.
- Felton, R. H., & Pepper P.P.. (1995). "*Early identification and intervention of phonological deficits in kindergarten and early elementary children at risk for reading disability*." *School Psychology Review*, 24, 405-414,
- Ford, D. Y. (1996). *Reversing underachievement among gifted Black students*. New York: Teachers College Press.
- French, D.(2000). "*The States Role in Shaping a Progressive Vision of Public Education. Creating New Schools: How Small Schools Are Changing American Education*. New York. Teachers College, Columbia University.
- Frey, M. C.(2002). *The relationship between the Scholastic Assessment Test and General Cognitive Ability*. *Psychological Science*, 15, 373-378.
- Glick, J. E. (2000). "*Nativity, Duration of Residence and the Life Course Pattern of Extended Family Living in the USA*." *Population Research and Policy Review* 19:179–198.
- Gurung, R.A.R. (2006). *Health psychology: a cultural approach*. Belmont CA: Thomson Wadsworth.
- Greenberger, E. O'Neil, R. & Nagel, S.K, (1994). *Relations between the Adults Natures of Work and the Parenting Behaviours*. *Developmental Psychology*, 30, 990-1002.
- Greenwald, R. Hedges, L.V. & Laine, R.D (1996). *The effect of school resources on students' achievement*. *Review of Educational Research*, 66, 361-396.
- Grow-Mainaza, J. Hahn D.D. & Joo, C.A. (2001). *Parenting and Child Development in "Non-traditional" families* (Pp. 161-190) Ma Wah, N.J. Erlbaum.

- Hargreaves, M. (1991). *Learning under stress: Children of single parents and the schools*. Metuchen, NJ: Women's Action Alliance and the Scarecrow Press, Inc.
- Hart, B. Et al (2004). *What Toddlers Talkabout*. First Language Colombia University, V, 24. 91-106.
- Harris, J. R. (1998). *The Nurture Assumption: Why children turn out the way they do*. New York: Free Press.
- Hassan T. (1983). *Psychosocial Predictors of Academic Achievement*, Psychology for Everyday Living, 2(2): 155-169.
- Harris, Judith Rich (2006), *No Two Alike: Human Nature and Human Individuality* (pp. 107-112).
- Harvard Medical Journal (2009) journal of science education, Harvard University. USA
<http://www.topgradestudent.com> retrieved 10 February 2012.
- Hauser, R. & Sewel, W., (1985). Birth order and educational attainment in full sibling ship. American educational research journal, 1-23.
- Hills, N.E.& Tylor, L.C. (2004). *Parental School Involvement and Children's Academic Achievement: Pragmatic and Issues*. Current Directions in Psychological Sciences, 13, 161-164.
- Holahan, C. J., Valentiner, D.P., & Moos, R. H., (1995): *Parental support, coping strategies, and psychological adjustment: An integrative model with late adolescents*. Journal of Youth and Adolescence, 24 (6), 633-648.
- Hoover-Dempsey, K. V., A. C. Battiato, J. M. T. Walker, R. P. Reed, J. M. De-Jong, & K. P. Jones (2001). "Parental involvement in homework," Educational Psychologist, 36: 195-209.
- Horney, K.(1995). *Psychoanalytic social theory*. Oxford brookers University Press.
- Hughes, J. N., Cavell, T. A., & Willson, V. (2001). *Further support for the developmental significance of the quality of the teacher-student relationship*. Journal of School Psychology, 39(4), 289-301.
- Hughes, J.N., & Kwok, O.M. (2007). *Influence of student-teacher and parent-teacher, relationships on lower achieving readers' engagement and achievement in the primary grades*. Journal of Educational Psychology, 99(1), 39-51. doi: 10.1037/0022-0663.99.1.39
- Hull, B.P., et al.,(2010). *Immunisation coverage annual report, 2008*. Communicable Diseases. Intell. 34 (3), 241–258.

- Horton, C. (1988) *Working with Children. Facts, Figures and Information.* Society Guardian & Sage Publishing, NCH, the Children's Charity, London
- Ichado, S. M. (1998). *Impact of Broken Home on Academic Performance of Secondary School Students in English Language.* *Journal of Research in Counselling Psychology* 4(1): 84-87.
- International Federation of Red Cross / Red Crescent. IFRC (2009).
- Jefferson T., Herbst J. H., & McCrae R. R. (1998). "Associations between birth order and personality traits: Evidence from self-reports and observer ratings". *Journal of Research in Personality* 32 (4): 498–509.
- Jeynes, W. H. (2003). The effects of parental involvement on minority children's academic Achievement. *Education and Urban Society*, 35(2), 202–2 8;
- Kamble, S.V. & Adsul, A., (2012). Academic performance as function of parental acceptance and academic climate among adolescents. DOI: 10. 7763/ IPEDR.2012 V 53. 12
- Kerl, K. (2010). *The Balkan joint family: Redefining a problem.* *Social Science History.* 18:243–269.
- Kertzer, D. I.& Barbagli, M (2002). *The History of the European Family: Family life in the long nineteenth century (1789-1913).* Yale University Press.
- Keith, T. Z et al., (1993). Does parental involvement affect eafght grade students' achievement. Structural analysis of national data, *school psychology review.* 22, 474-479.
- Keith T.Z. et al (1998). *Longitudinal Effect of Parents Involvement on High School Grades: Similarities and Differences Across gender and ethnic groups.* *Journal of school Psychology,* 36, 335-363.
- Kertzer, A & Barbagli, M. (2000). *History of Family in Europe. Vol III: family Journal* Barcelona.
- Kennedy , L.A & Mukerjie, S.(1974). *Alcohol exporsure during pregnancy .Lancet,* 1:1076, 1974. In Richard, W.P(1997). www.chem-tox.com/pregnancy/learning_disabilities.htm 22 august, 2012
- Kessler, D. (1991). "Birth Order, Family Size and Achievement: Family Structure and Wage Determination." *Journal of Labor Economics.* 9(4): 413-426.
- Konucle, S. O., (2004). Academic Achievement as Related to Sex of Siblings, Sibling ship Size, and Birth Order. *Social Science Research,* 29, 441-457.
- Korhuts, H., (1984). *Forms and transmission of narcissism. The search for self* (vol.1, pp427-460). New York International University Press

- Kratochwill, T. R. (2007). *Preparing psychologists for evidencebased school practice: Lessons learned and challenges ahead. American Psychologist, 62, 826-843.*
- Kuczynsky, L. (2002). *Family Rearing Practice and Preschoolers and Adolescent achievement. Tour Foundations of Dynamic Model of Parenting. Hillsdale, N.J: Ealburn*
- Lakey, B., & Cohen, S. (2000). *Social support theory and measurement. In Cohen, S., Underwood, L. G., & Gottlieb, B. H. (Eds.), Social support measurement and interventions: A guide for health and social scientists. New York: Oxford.*
- Lakshmi, R. A& Arora, M. (2006). Perceive parental behaviour as related to students' academic school success and compliance. *Journal of the Indian Academy of Applied Psychology, Vol. 32, No.1, 47-52.*
- Lamb, M. E., Sutton-Smith, B. (1982).*Sibling Relationships: Their Nature and Significance of the Lifespan. Lawrence Erlbaum Associates*
- Lammers, W. J.& Badia, P. (2005). *Fundamental of Behavioral Research. California: Thomson and Wadsworth*
- Laurenson, G. (2004). *Reconsidering Changes in Parent- Child Conflict Across Adolescence. Child Development 69, 817-832.*
- Lawal, M.A.(2011). *Educational psychology an introduction. Zaria ABU University Press, Nigeria*
- Leedy, P.D. (1997) *Practical Research: Planning and Design. New Jersey; Merrill.*
- Lent,R.N (2000). *Social cognitive approach to career development. Career quarterly, 44, 310-321*
- Lian, S. (2011). The Effectiveness of Social Support Programm on Parental Support. *Humanity and Social Support Journal 7,(1): 06-17.*
- Luthar, S.S. & Latendresses S.J. (2005) Children of the Affluent. *Current Directions in Psychological Sciences, 14. 49-53.*
- Luthar, S.S. & Becker, B.E. (2007). *Study of Affluent Youths. Child Development, 73, 1593-1610.*
- Luthar, S.S. & Sexton, C. (2004). *The High Price of Affluence Advances in Child Development (Vol. 32 Pp. 126-162) San Diego CA Academic Press.*
- Mahler, M. (1969). Theoretical Review of the Infant-Mother Relationship. *Child Development, 1969,40,969-1025 John Hopkins University.*

- Mandara J. (2012). *Study of parental typologies. The impact of family functioning on African American male's academic achievement: A review and clarification of the empirical literature. Teachers College Record, 108(2), 206–223;*
- McCall, R.B. Evans, C. & Kratzer, L. (1992). *High School Underachievers*: Newbury Park, CA Sage Publication.
- McCobby, E.E, & Martin, J.A (1983). *Socialisation in the context of family*. New York; Willey.
- McLoyd, V. C. (1998). *Socioeconomic disadvantage and child development*. American Psychologist, 53, 185–204.
- Mendel, H.P. & Marcus, S.I. (1988). *Psychology of underachievement: Differential diagnosis and treatment*. John Willey and New York.
- Michael E. L & Brian Sutton-Smith, (1982), *Birth order and parental interaction*. McGrawHill NY
- Minuchin, S. (1974). *Families and Family Therapy*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press
- Minuchin, S. (1978). *Psychosomatic Families: Anorexia Nervosa in Context*. Harvard University Press: Cambridge
- Muhammad, Z. (2003). *Economics of Child Development, Child Management A guide to Teachers and Parents*. Kano Samarib Publishers.
- Muirhead V.E, & Locker D, (2001). *School performance indicators as proxy measures of school dental treatment needs: a feasibility study*.
- Nahid, O.W. & Sarkis, E. (1994). *Types of social support: relation to stress and academic achievement among prospective teachers*. Canadian Journal of Behavioral Science, 26, (1), 1.
- Nancy, L.V (2007). *Traffic Congestions around Schools*. Centre For Problem-Oriented Policing US
- Natriello, G. & E. McDill (1986). “*Performance Standards, Student Effort on Homework, and Academic Achievement,*” *Sociology of Education*, 59(1): 18-31.
- Neihart, M., (2002). *The Social and Emotional Development of Gifted Children: What Do We Know?* Waco, TX: Prufrock Press.

- Nelson, M. (1992). *Vitamin and mineral supplement and academic performance*. Proceedings and nutrition society, 52, 303-313
- Neumann, C. (2003). Cognitive abilities of Kenyan children in relation to nutrition, family characteristics, and education. *Child Dev.* 60: 1463–1474.
- Nix R.L. et al (1999). *The Relations between Mothers' Hostile Attribution Tendencies and Children Externalising Behaviour Problems*. *Child Development*, 70, 896-909.
- Noller, P. (2006). *Psychological Assessment: A Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, Vol 2(4), Dec 1990, 478-482.
- Nyarko, K. (2011). *The influence of authoritative parenting style on adolescent' and academic achievement*. *American Journal of Social and Management Sciences*.
- Nzewuawah, P. N. (1995). *The Effect of Single Parenthood on the Academic Performance of Students*. Unpublished M Ed. Project. University of Lagos.
- Olneck M. R. & Bills, D. (1979). "Family Configuration and Achievement: Effects of Birth Order and Family Size in a sample of Brothers." *Social Psychology Review*, 42(2): 135-148.
- Oshman, K. & Monosevitz, E. (1999). *Causes of psychosocial Problems*. New Brunswick, NJ
- Parke, R.D, & Kellam, S.G (1994). *Exploring family relationship with other social contexts*. Hillsdale, NJ Erlbaum.
- Parke, R.D. & Buriel, K. (1998). *Socialisation in the Family. Ethnic and Ecological Perspective Handbook of Child Psychology*. Vol 3 Wiley New York.
- Parens, Erik (2000). *Prenatal Testing and Disability Rights*. Georgetown University Press.
- Paulhus D.L., Trapnell P.D., & Chen D. (1998). "Birth order effects on personality and achievement within families". *Psychological Science* 10 (6): 482–488
- Pellegrini, A.D. & Smith, P.K. (1998). *Physical Activity play; The Nature and Function of a Neglected Aspect of Play*. *Child Development*, 69, 577-598
- Pindertudges, E.E. et al. (2000). *Influences of Parents Socioeconomic Status, Ethnicity Believe About Parenting, Stress, and Cognitive Emotional Process*. *Journal of Family Psychology* 14. 380-400.
- Polit D. F., & Falbo T. (1988). "The intellectual achievement of only children". *Journal of Biosocial Science* 20 (3): 275–285.
- Programme for International Student Assessment, 2000, 2003

- Puts, D. A, Jordan, C. L, & Breedlove, S. M. (2006). The Fraternal Birth Order Effect on male Sexual Orientation. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences* 103 (28): 10531–10532.
- Rathbon, N. (1999). *Effective School Interventions: Strategies for Enhancing Academic Achievement and Social Competence*. New York. Guilford Press:
- Reis,S.M. & McCoach, D.B. (2004). *Understanding underachievement in gifted and talented students with special needs*. *Exceptionality*, 10,113-125
- Reis,S.M. & McCoach, D.B.(2000). *Underachievement of gifted children*. *Gifted Children Quarterly*. (3),44, 152-170.
- Richard M.(1997) *Personality and human behavior*. *Journal of Social Psychology*, Vol 106(3), 441-457.
- Rimms, S. (1986). *Behaviour Theraphy. Contemporary Psychotherapy Models and Method*. Columbus OH: Merril.
- Rimm, S. (1995). *Why bright kids get poor grades and what you can do about it*. New York: Crown Trade Paperbacks.
- Rimms,S.(2000). *Underachievement Epidemic Educational Leadership*. (7), 18-22
- Rodgers, J. L, Cleveland, E. Van den, O & Rowe D. C. (2001), “*Birth Order and Intelligence: Together Again for the Last Time*” *American Psychologist*, 56(6-7): 523-524.
- Roeser, R. W. (1998). Linking the study of schooling and mental health: Selected issues and empirical illustrations at the level of the individual. *Educational Psychologist*, 33, 153-176.
- Rodgers, J.L, Cleveland, H.H; Van Den Oord, E& Rowe, D.C (2000). "Resolving the debate over birth order, family size, and intelligence". *The American Psychologist* **55** (6): 599–612.
- Ronald P. R, Khaleque, A. David E. & Cournoyer,M (2002) *Parental Acceptance-Rejection Theory, Methods, Evidence, and Implications*. Connecticut University. Public Health Rep. 2008 Nov-Dec; 123(6): 739–750.
- Rutter, M. & Madge, A. (1976), *New Cycles of Disadvantage: A Review of Research*, London: Heinemann
- Sambo, A.A. (2008). *Research Methods in Education*. Ibadan Sterling-Harden Publishers Ltd

- Schunck, D.H. (1998). *Motivation self regulation among gifted learners*. National Association of Gifted Children, Kentucky. Louisville, Press
- Schwartz, A., Angel, O. & Pitcher, S. (1986). *Psychology of Learning and Behaviour*. New York: Norton.
- Schiarnberg, L. (1983). *Human Development and Family Studies*, University of Michigan Press USA
- Selten, R., (1978), "The Chain Store Paradox." *Theory and Decision*, 9:127-159.
- Shaffer, D.R. & Kipp, K. (2010). *Developmental psychology: childhood and adolescence*. (8th Ed.). Canada: Wadworth/Cengage Learning
- Sheard, M. (2009). *Hardiness commitment, gender, and age differentiate university academic performance*. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 79, 189-204.
- Shehu, S. (2006). *A Study of Teachers' Perception and Response to Stress-induced depression among Senior Secondary School Students in Kano State*; An unpublished Ph.D Thesis, University of Sokoto, Department of Psychology.
- Sigel, H. (1985). *A concept analysis of beliefs in parental beliefs systems*. Earlburm Hillside, NJ
- Soghbetan, A. A. (1981). *Teachers and Students Opinion About the Causes of Poor Academic Performance of Students*. Unpublished Med thesis, Ibadan: University of Ibadan.
- Starr, M.L. (2011). *The relationship between parenting styles and scholastic achievement among college students*. Bucknell University Press.
- Steinberg R.J (1988), *Handbook of adolescent psychology*. New York: Wiley.
- Steinberg, L. (2008). *Adolescence, Eighth edition*. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.
- Steinberg, L, & Darling, N. (Eds.) (1994). *The broader context of social influence in adolescence*. In *Adolescence in context: the interplay of family, school, peers, and work in adjustment*. New York: Springer-Verlag Inc.
- Stinebrickner, R, & Stinebrickner, T. (2008) "The Causal Effect of Studying on Academic Performance." *BE J Econ Anal Poli* 8(1) (Frontiers) Article 14.
- Stevenson, H. W., Lee, S. & Mu, X. (2000). *Successful Achievement in Mathematics: China and U.S Developing Talent Across the Lifespan* (Pp. 167-183) Philadelphia Psychology Press.
- Suleman, S. (1990). *Child Management*. A guide to parents and teachers. Samarib Publishers
Kano

- Sulloway, F.J. (2001). *Birth Order, Sibling Competition, and Human Behavior*. In Paul S. Davies and Harmon R. Holcomb, (Eds.), *Conceptual Challenges in Evolutionary Psychology: Innovative Research Strategies*. Dordrecht and Boston: Kluwer Academic Publishers.
- Supplee, P. L. (1990). *Reaching the gifted underachiever*. New York: Teachers College Press.
- Syprou, M. (2008). Effect of School Size on School Performance in Secondary Schools. *Oxford Bulletin of Economics and Statistics* Vol 60, No 3, pp 291-324
- Tamtekin, A. (2012). *Impact of motivation and hygiene factors on students' performance*. *International review of management and marketing*, 2, 106-111.
- Terrance J. & Wade, J (2006), *Access and Utilization Patterns of School-Based Health Centers at Urban and Rural Elementary and Middle Schools*. *Public Health Dent*. Fall;66(4):269-72.
- Trautwein, U & Koller, O. (2003). "The relationship between homework and achievement: Still much of a mystery," *Educational Psychology Review*. 15: 115-45.
- UNDP (2002), United Nations Development Programme, Bulletin, NY
- UNESCO, (2004). *United Nation Educational Scientific and Cultural Organisation*. Bulletin, NY.
- UNESCO (2009) United Nation Education Scientific and Cultural Organisation. Bulletin NY
- UNICEF(2007). *United Nation International Children Emergency Fund*. Bulletin NY.
- UNICEF (2010), United Nation International Children Emergency Fund. Bulletin NY
- USNLS (2006), United State National Literacy Strategy, USA
- USDA, (2004). United state Department of Agriculture, USA
- Uwaifo, V. O. (2008). *The Effect of Family Structure and Parenthood on the Academic Performance of Nigeria University Students*. *Study Home Comm. Sci*, 2(2): 121-124.
- Valarie, S. (2005). *Gap strokes teaching approaches curricular*, Washington Post, Press
- Van der Leun, J. (2009). "Does Birth Order Really Matter?". AOL Health. Retrieved October 2009.
- Uribe, E.M.T. LeVine, R.A. & LeVine S.E. (1994). *Maternal Behaviour in Mexican Community: The Changing Environment of Children*. New Jersey Hillsdale Earlbaum.
- www.who/wikipedia/freencyclopedia. retrieved 22 august, 2012.
- Wade, B.A. (2008). Psychosocial Contribution to Understanding and Reducing disparities. *JEP* 4, 123-132

- Weiner, J. B. (1992). *Psychological disturbance in adolescence* (2nd Edition) New York: John Wiley and Sons.
- Whaley, S. E. (2003). *The impact of dietary intervention on the cognitive development of Kenyan schoolchildren*. *Journal of Nutrition*; 12:3965–3971.
- Walsh, F. (1985). *Normal Family Processes*. Center for Family Studies/Family Institute. Guilford Press. NY
- Wash, C. (1992). *Parenting Engagement and School Readness Parent-Child Relationships in Early Learning*. University of Nebraska Press Lincoln.
- Whichman, A. L., Rodgers J. L. & McCallum R. C. (2006). “*Birth Order has no effect on Intelligence: A Reply and Extension of Previous Findings.*” *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 33(9): 1195-1200.
- Wiseman, D. C. (1999). *Research Strategies for Education*. Westworth Publishing Company Inc.
- Wolters, C. (1999). “*The relation between high school students’ motivational regulation and their use of learning strategies, effort, and classroom performance,*” *Learning and Individual Differences*. 11(3): 281-99.
- Woodward, J. & Onoh, Y. (2004). *Mathematics and Academic Diversity in Japan*. *Journal of Learning Disabilities* 37, 74-82.
- WES (2005), World Education Service. Ontario Canada
- WES (2005), World Education Services, . Bulletin NY.
- Zajonc R. B. & Sulloway, F. J. (2007). “*The Confluence Model: Birth Order as a Between Family or Within Family Dynamic?*” *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 33: 1187-1194.
- Zajonc, R. B. (1976). “*Family Configuration and Intelligence.*” *Science*, 192: 227-236.
- Zimmerman, G. D. (1988), *Multi-dimensional Scale of Perceived Psychosocial Support*. *Journal of Personality Assessment*, 52, 30-34.
- Zinn, M. B. & Stanley, E. (2002). *Diversity in families* (6 ed.). Allyn and Bacon. p. 557. Mouton Publishers:.